CHAPTER 2

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.1 Structure

This thesis talks about correlation between students' ability in using Indonesian and English structure, thus, the writer decides to describe the definition of Indonesian and English structure according to several dictionaries.

2.1.1 Structure in Indonesian

Structure in Indonesian language has several descriptions therefore the writer takes some of the definitions from two Indonesian – Indonesian dictionaries.

- According to Kamus Umum Bahasa Indonesia. *tata bahasa* is *"(pengetahuan atau pelajaran mengenai) pembentukan kata-kata dan penyusunan kata-kata dalam kalimat"* (knowledge or study about- making and arranging words into sentence).

- According to KBBI (Kamus Besar Bahasa Indonesia). third edition, *tata bahasa* is *(a) "kumpulan kaidah tentang struktur gramatikal bahasa* (rules of collection about structure grammatically), *(b) buku tentang kaidah bahasa yang meliputi kaidah fonologi, morfologi, dan sintaksis* (books about languages' rule that consist of phonology, morphology, and syntax)."

In short, structure in Indonesian is the knowledge or study about arranging words into a good sentence and grammatically correct.

2.1.2 Structure in English

To make a clear meaning, the writer quotes from several dictionaries some definitions of structure.

- According to Oxford, Advanced Learner's Dictionary, "structure is (a) the way in which something is organized, built or put together: *rules of sentence structure.* (b) the state of being well planned or organized: *Your essay lacks structure.*"

- According to Cambridge, Advanced Learner's Dictionary, "structure is the way in which the parts of a system or object are arranged or organized, or a system arranged in this way:

- The grammatical structure of a sentence
- The structure of this protein is particularly complex.
- They have a very old-fashioned management structure.
- Some people like the sense of structure that a military lifestyle imposes

Seeing from definitions above, the writer may conclude that structure in English is the way in which something or object are arranged, organized and constructed into a good pattern.

2.1.3 Basic Elements of Indonesian Structure

There is no basic element of structure in Indonesian but they call it sentence and the elements. Sentence elements are divided into four parts: *subjek* (subject), *predikat* (predicate), *objek* (object), and *keterangan* (explanation). (Sugono, 1991:35)

2.1.3.1 *Subjek* (Subject)

Based on Dendy Sugono's, subject is "*unsur pokok yang terdapat pada sebuah kalimat di samping unsur predikat*" (main elements in a sentence beside predicate, Sugono: 36)

The criteria of a subject are:

- *jawaban apa/siapa* (answering what or who)

- *disertai kata itu* (followed by "itu" words)

- *didahului kata bahwa, yang* (preceded by the word "bahwa", "yang")

- *mempunyai keterangan pewatas yang* (have modifier explanation "yang")

- *tidak didahului preposisi* (not preceded by preposition)

- *berupa nomina atau frasa nominal* (must be noun or noun phrase) (Sugono: 36-44)

2.1.3.2 *Predikat* (Predicate)

Predicate is part of sentence that explain subject. (Sugono: 46)

The criteria of a predicate are:

- *jawaban mengapa atau bagaimana* (answer for why or how)

- *disertai kata adalah, ialah, merupakan* (followed by the words *adalah, ialah, merupakan)*

- *dapat diingkarkan* (can be reluctant)

- *dapat disertai kata-kata aspek dan modalitas* (can be followed by word of aspects and modals)

- *tidak didahului kata yang* (not preceded by the word **yang**)

- *jenisnya dapat berupa kata benda, kata kerja, kata sifat, kata bilangan* (it can be noun, verb, adjective or numeral)

- *dapat disertai kata-kata aspek dan modalitas* (can be followed by aspects word and modality).

To use aspects word and modality in a sentence, only predicate that contains of verb or adjective that can be followed by aspects word, such as *akan, telah, sudah,* and *sedang*. These words will be placed in front of predicate. (Sugono: 51)

Example: *Saya akan pergi ke rumah Paman.* (I am going to go to uncle's house)

Sentence that the subject contains of noun (people) can be followed by modality, words that declare the subject's attitude, such as *ingin, hendak,* and *mau.* (Sugono: 51)

Example: *Semua peserta ingin memperoleh kemenangan.* (Every contestant wants to be the winner). (Sugono: 46-52)

2.1.3.3 *Objek* (Object)

Objek is "*bagian kalimat yang berfungsi melengkapi predikat yang berupa kata kerja transitif*" (part of a sentence whose function is to complete its predicate in the form of transitive verb, Sugono: 58)

The criteria of an object are:

- *terletak langsung dibelakang predikat* (located before predicate)

- *dapat menjadi subjek dalam kalimat pasif* (can be a subject in passive sentence)

- *tidak didahului preposisi* (not preceded by preposition)

e.g: *Mereka mendiskusikan bahan ujian* (they discussed about test material)
                          object
   (Sugono: 58-61)

2.1.3.4 Keterangan (information)

Based on Dendy Sugono's book,

keterangan adalah unsur kalimat yang memberikan informasi lebih lanjut tentang suatu yang dinyatakan dalam kalimat; misalnya, memberi informasi tentang tempat, waktu, dan cara (information is part of a sentence that gives more explanation about something

that is said in a sentence; for instance, giving information about place, time and method,
Sugono: 64)

The criteria of information are:

- *bukan unsur utama* (not the main elements)

- *tidak terikat posisi* (can be placed in any part of a sentence) (Sugono: 64-65)

2.1.4 Basic Elements of English Structure

English structure has several elements, but the basic one to write a sentence is
subject, verbs, and object, adjectives, adverbs, personal pronouns and contractions
(Azar: A1).

2.1.4.1 Subjects, Verbs, and Objects

● **Subject:** a word or phrase in a sentence indicating who or what does the action stated
by the verb, e.g: the pencil in *The pencil fell of the table.* (Azar: A1)

● **Verbs:** a word or phrase indicating an action, an event or a state, e.g: *bring, happen,
exist.* (Oxford: 1323)

Verbs that are not allowed by an object called intransitive verbs, e.g: *agree, cry,
go.*(Azar: p.A1)

Example: cried in *The baby cried.*

Verbs that are followed by an object called transitive verbs, e.g: *find. built, make, need.*

Example: need in *The student needs a pen.*

● **Objects:** a noun or a phrase or clause behaving like a noun, which refers to a person,
thing, etc affected by the action of a verb, or which depends on a preposition (Oxford:
797).

e.g: the money in *He took the money.*

2.1.4.2 Adjectives

Adjectives describe nouns or adjectives modify nouns. *Modify* means "change a little". An adjective is neither singular nor plural, and final –s never added to an adjective. (Azar: A3)

E.g: Angela is an ***intelligent student.***
          (adjective) (noun)

2.1.4.3 Adverbs

Adverbs modify verbs and often formed by adding –*ly* to an adjective. It is also used to modify adjectives and to express time or frequency. (Azar: A3)

E.g: She walks ***quickly.***
            (adverb)
    He opened the ***window.***
            (adverb)

2.1.4.4 Personal Pronouns

A pronoun is used in place of noun and refers to a noun. The noun *it* refers to is called the *antecedent.*(Azar: A5)

E.g: Louise said, " *I* drink milk."

The pronoun "I" refers to the speaker, whose name is Louise.

Table 2.1 Personal Pronouns

	SINGULAR	PLURAL
SUBJECT PRONOUNS	*I* *You* *She, he, it*	*We* *You* *They*

OBJECT PRONOUNS	*Me*	*Us*
	You	*You*
	Her, him, it	*them*
POSSESIVE PRONOUNS	*Mine*	*Ours*
	Your	*Yours*
	Hers, his	*Theirs*
POSSESIVE ADJECTIVES	*My* name	*Our* names
	Your name	*Your* names
	Her, his, its name	*Their* names

(Azar: A6)

2.1.4.5 Contractions

Contraction is a short form of a word (Oxford: 251). Contractions with pronouns are common in informal writing but not generally acceptable in formal writing. (Azar: A7).

E.g: *I'm* writing a letter. (Informal)

I am writing a letter. (Formal)

They're waiting for us. (Informal)

They are waiting for us (Formal)

2.2 Tenses

Basically, there are three main parts of tenses in English language: *present, past,* and *future.* Each has a perfect form, indicating completed action; a progressive form, indicating ongoing action; and a perfect progressive form, indicating ongoing action that will be completed at some definite time.(Escalas, 2000:1) Since this thesis talks about simple sentence with simple future tense, therefore, the writer will just discuss the simple forms.

● The SIMPLE TENSES (Azar, 1989: 2)

Table 2.2 The Simple Tenses

TENSE	EXAMPLES	MEANING
SIMPLE PRESENT	(a) It *snows* in Alaska. (b) I *watch* television every day.	In general, the simple present 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	(c) It *snowed* yesterday (d) I *watched* television last night.	*At one particular time in the past*, this happened. It began and ended in the past.
SIMPLE FUTURE	(e) It *will snow* tomorrow (f) I *will watch* television tonight	*At one particular time in the future*, this will happen.

2.2.1 Simple Future Tense in Indonesian

In Indonesian language, there is no specific tense with future tense like in English language but there are some words that used in sentence to show future, such as *akan, ingin,* and *mau.* These words include in group of *kata aspek* or *modalitas.* The usage of *kata aspek* and *modalitas* is already explained in 2.1.3.3. Words that contain in *kata aspek* are *akan, telah, sudah, belum* and *sedang.* Words that contain in *modalitas* are *ingin, hendak,* and *mau.* (Sugono: 51).

Based to *Kamus Besar Bahasa Indonesia* (2002), *akan* means "*untuk menyatakan sesuatu yang hendak terjadi, berarti*". Similarly, *Kamus Umum Bahasa Indonesia* (1999) defines *akan* as "*untuk menyatakan sesuatu yang hendak terjadi, berarti, hendak, bakal*"

Based to *Kamus Besar Bahasa Indonesia* (2002), *ingin* means *"hendak, mau, berhasrat"*. Similarly, *Kamus Umum Bahasa Indonesia* (1999) defines *ingin* as *"menghendaki, berkehendak, berhasrat"*

Based to *Kamus Besar Bahasa Indonesia* (2002), *mau* means *" sungguh-sungguh suka hendak, akan, kehendak"*. Similarly, *Kamus Umum Bahasa Indonesia* (1999) defines *mau* as *"sungguh-sungguh suka hendak (berbuat sesuatu), kehendak, maksud"*.

2.2.2 Simple Future Tense in English

According to Maggie Escalas in Literacy Education Online, future tense expresses an action or situation that will occur in the future. This tense is formed by using *will/shall* with the *simple form* of the verb. The future tense can also be expressed by using *am, is,* or *are* with *going to*. (Escalas: 2)

It is also said by Betty Azar that *will* or *be going to* is used to express future time. (Azar: 44). Thus, to express future time in English, we should use *will* or *shall* or *be going to*. The use of *shall* is different too, and it also rarely used. The use of *shall* with I or we to express future time is possible but uncommon in American English. *Shall* is used much more frequently in British than in American English. (Azar: 44) Contractions in future tense are also common. Betty Azar said that, *will* is usually contracted with personal pronouns in both speaking and informal writing. *Will* is often contracted with nouns and with other pronouns in speaking but not in writing. (Azar: 44)

Formula of Simple Future Tense:

> **Subject + will or be going to + Verb 1**

2.2.2.1 Will versus Be Going To

● To express a prediction (a statement about something s/he thinks will be true or will occur in the future), either *will* or *be going to* is used. (Azar: 45)

E.g: - According to the critic, Julia Robert will get the Oscar award.

         - According to the critic, Julia Robert is going to get the Oscar award.

● To express a prior plan (something the speaker intends to do in the future because in the past s/he made a plan or decisions to do it), only *be going to* is used. (Azar: 45)

E.g: A: What are you doing this afternoon?

         B: I'm going to the groceries with my mum. We're going to cook pasta.

● To express willingness-only *will* is used. (Azar: 45)

E.g: A: I need to read this article but it is all in Chinese and I don't understand a
         single word of Chinese.

         B: Let me help. I will translate it for you.

In the example, speaker B has made no prior plan or prediction to translate the article. But this person is volunteering to translate it. Therefore, s/he has to use *will* to show the willingness.

2.3 Sentence

Based on several English dictionaries, a sentence has several meanings.

- According to Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary (1995), *sentence* is a set of words expressing a statement, a question or a command. *Sentences* usually contain a subject and a verb.

- According to Merriam Webster Online-Dictionary, *sentence* is word, clause, or phrase or a group of clauses or phrases forming a syntactic unit which expresses an assertion, a question, a command, a wish, an exclamation, or the performance of an action, that in writing usually begins with a capital letter and concludes with appropriate end punctuation, and that in speaking is distinguished by characteristic patterns of stress, pitch, and pauses.

- According to Cambridge Dictionaries Online, *sentence* is a group of words, usually containing a verb, which expresses a thought in the form of a statement, question, instruction or exclamation and starts with a capital letter.

Therefore, the writer can conclude that a sentence is a set of words, containing a subject and verb, forming expression of statement, question, command, and starts with a capital letter.

2.3.1 Simple Sentence

Since this thesis analyzes simple sentence between two languages-Indonesian and English- , the writer wants to describe the definition of a simple sentence in both languages. Thus, the writer can conclude whether there are or are not similarities between those languages.

2.3.1.1 Simple Sentence in Indonesian

In Indonesian, simple sentence is known as "kalimat tunggal" which is *kalimat yang terdiri atas satu klausa. Hal itu berarti bahwa konstituen untuk tiap unsur kalimat, seperti subjek dan predikat, hanyalah satu atau merupakan satu kesatuan* (sentence that

only consists of one clause. Therefore, the constituent for one sentence, like subject and predicate, must be only one or become one unity, Alwi, 2003: 338).

E.g: *Dia akan pergi* (He will leave).

          Kami mahasiswa Bina Nusantara (We are Bina Nusantara's students)

2.3.1.2 Simple Sentence in English

In English, there are several definitions of simple sentence but more or less, the definition of each is the same that simple sentence is a sentence that consists of one clause and that at least has subject and predicate. Here are the definitions:

According to a web page from University of Calgary:

> A simple sentence is made up of one independent clause with no dependent clause attached. It consists of at least one subject and one predicate. Either the subject or the complement may be compound (consisting of more than one element joined with a coordinating conjunction). and modifiers and phrases may be added as well.(Calgary, 1998: 1)

Based on Glossary English Linguistic terms (2004), a simple sentence is a sentence containing one main clause and no subordinate clauses.

E.g: He understood.
     S + Pred.

     He and I understood.
     S +   S+ Pred.
     (compound subject)

     He understood my meaning and departed from the house.
     S + Pred.   + Pred.
     (compound predicate)

2.4 Native Language (L1) use in Target Language (L2)

In learning a second language, many opinions say that native language (L1) affects the result in learning L2. As Bhela noted that when writing or speaking the target language (L2), second language learners tend to rely on their native language (L1) structures to produce a response. (Bhela: 22). In learning a target language, learners construct their own interim rules (Bhela: 23) with the use of of their L1 knowledge, but only when they believe it will help them in the learning task or when they have become sufficiently proficient in the L2 for transfer to be possible. (Bhela: 23)

Naturally, people who want to learn a second language, the result will not be as well as their native language because a person learns a second language partly in terms of the kinds of meanings already learned in the first language (Bhela: 23).

Moreover, Beebe (1988) in Bhela's article also suggests that

> in learning a second language, L1 responses are grafted on to L2 responses, and both are made to a common set of meaning responses. Other things being equal, the learner is less fluent in L2, and the kinds of expressions he/she uses in L2 bear telltale traces of the structure of L1. (Bhela: 23)

2.5 Correlative Theory

Since this thesis analyzes a correlation between students' ability in using Indonesian and English structure, the writer feels that it is important to definition of correlation and all the elements of it.

2.5.1 Definition of Correlation

As Brown (2002) noted, in general, "correlational studies are designed to investigate the nature and strength of functional relationships among the variables of interest to the researcher" (p.126). Therefore, to get the result from two variables of

students' ability when using Indonesian and English structure, correlative research theory is needed.

Since this thesis discusses a correlation between students' ability in using Indonesian and English structure when writing simple sentence with future tense, there are two variables to find the correlation. Therefore, the writer will use Pearson's product moment coefficient of correlation. It is a statistical value ranging from -1.0 to +1.0 and expresses this relationship in quantitative form. The coefficient is represented by the symbol r (Cohen and Manion, 1994: 129). Therefore, the range of a correlation coefficient according to Pearson's product moment coefficient of correlation could be explained as follows:

$$-1 \leq r \leq +1$$

Cohen and Manion also said about positive correlation that,

> Where the two variables (or sets of data) fluctuate in the same direction. i.e. as one increases so does the other, a positive relationship is said to exist. Correlations reflecting this pattern are prefaced with a plus sign to indicate the positive nature of the relationship. Thus, +1.0 would indicate perfect positive correlation between two factors. (Cohen and Manion: 129)

For negative relationship, Cohen and Manion explain that,

> A negative correlation or relationship, on the other hand, is to be found when an increase in one variable is accompanied by a decrease in the other variable. Negative correlations are prefaced with a minus sign. Thus, -1.0 would represent perfect negative correlation. (Cohen and Manion: 129)

2.5.2 Causal Relationships and Hypotheses

"A hypothesis is a proposition to be tested or a tentative statement of a relationship between two variables" (Neuman, 1999: 108). To make a hypothesis, it is

needed, in minimum, two variables, could be in questions or statement. In Neuman's book, Kerlinger (1979: 35) noted that,

> Hypotheses are much more important in scientific research than they would appear to be just by knowing what they are and how they are constructed. They have a deep and highly significant purpose of taking man out of himself, so to speak... Hypotheses are powerful tools for the advancement of knowledge, because, although formulated by man, they can be tested and shown to be correct or incorrect apart from man's values and beliefs. (Neuman: 108)

Five Characteristics of Causal Hypotheses,

(Neuman: 109)

1. It has at least two variables.
2. It expresses a causal or cause-effect relationship between the variables.
3. It can be expressed as a prediction or an expected future outcome.
4. It is logically linked to a research question and a theory.
5. It is falsifiable; that is, it is capable of being tested against empirical evidence and shown to be true or false.

2.5.3 Quantitative and Qualitative Analysis

This part will explain obviously about two research methods that the writer use in this thesis, they are quantitative and qualitative analysis.

Table 2.3 Quantitative vs Qualitative Style

Quantitative Style	Qualitative Style
Measure objective facts	Construct social reality, cultural meaning
Focus on variables	Focus on interactive processes, events
Reliability is a key	Authenticity is key
Value free	Values are present and explicit
Independent of context	Situationally constrained
Many cases, subjects	Few cases, subjects
Statistical analysis	Thematic analysis
Researcher is detached	Researcher is involved

(Neuman: 14)

In short, the writer can conclude that quantitative analysis is a research focusing on variables, having many subjects and statistical. On the other hand, qualitative analysis is a research focusing on process, few cases and thematic analysis.

2.5.4 Interpreting the Correlation Coefficients

After explanation of correlation and its contents, it is now the time for the writer to explain how to interpret the correlation coefficient.

> Although the correlation coefficient has been computed, three remains the problem of interpreting it. The question may be approached in three ways: by examining the strength of the relationship; by examining the statistical significance of the relationship; and by examining the square of the correlation coefficient. (Cohen and Manion, p.137)

Based to Cohen and Manion, low or near zero values indicate weak relationships, while those nearer to +1 or -1 suggest stronger relationships. Borg in Cohen and Manion (Cohen and Manion: 139) offer some general guidelines for interpreting correlation coefficients. Borg assumes that the correlations relate to a hundred or more subject. (Cohen and Manion: 139)

a. $0.20 - 0.35$

Correlations within this range show us that the relationship between the two variables being correlated is very weak. Furthermore, correlations at this level may have a limited meaning in exploratory relationship research. They are no value in either individual/group prediction studies.

b.   0.35 – 0.65

Two variables are quite significantly correlated with each other. Correlations at this level, however, are of a little use for making accurate predictions.

c.   0.65 – 0.85

Indicate a close relationship between the two variables being correlated. Group predictions can also be made very accurately when a research has the correlation coefficient at this level.

d.   over 0.85

Correlations as high as this indicate a very close relationship between the two variables being correlated. When correlations at this level are obtained, however, they are very useful for either individual or group prediction studies.

Finally, the summary of interpreting the correlation coefficient become as the ending of chapter 2.