



**A CONTRASTIVE ANALYSIS OF ENGLISH AND SUNDANESE
TWO ROOT NOUN PHRASE CONSTRUCTIONS**

a final project

submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements

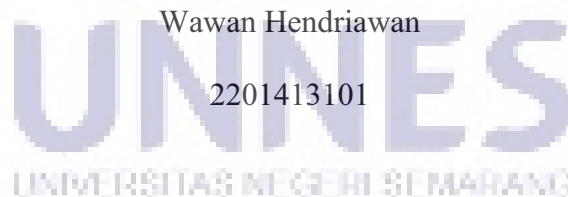
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in English

by

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FACULTY OF LANGUAGES AND ARTS
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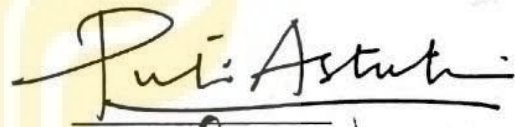
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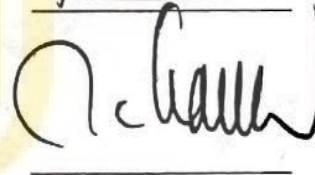
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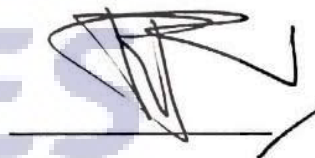
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DECLARATION

I, Wawan Hendriawan hereby declare that this final project entitled *A Contrastive Analysis of English and Sundanese Two Root Noun Phrase Constructions* is my own work and has not been submitted in any form for another degree or diploma at any university or other institute of tertiary education. Information derived from the published and unpublished work of others has been acknowledged in the text and a list of references is given in the references.

Semarang, July 2017

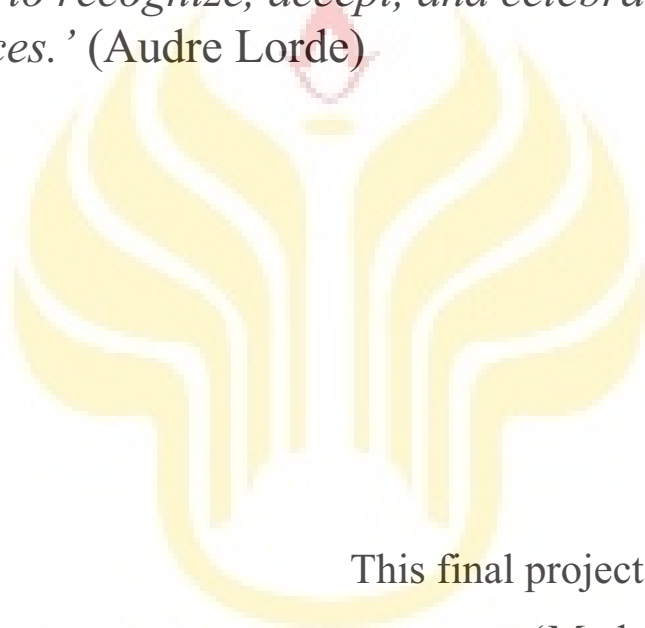


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'It is not our differences that divide us. It is our inability to recognize, accept, and celebrate those differences.' (Audre Lorde)



This final project is dedicated to

'My beloved parents'

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My gratitude goes to my parents for always caring, loving, praying and supporting me through the journey of my life. To all people who cannot be mentioned one by one who helped me in writing this final project, thank you very much.



ABSTRACT

Hendriawan, Wawan. 2017. *A Contrastive Analysis of English and Sundanese Two Root Noun Phrase Constructions*. Final Project. English Department. Faculty of Languages and Arts. Semarang State University. Advisors: Prof. Dr. Dwi Rukmini, M.Pd. and Dr. Rudi Hartono, S.S., M.Pd.

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The arbitrariness causes the variety of language spoken in the world. There are many languages in the world and every language contains different set of rules and discrete linguistic units. It means language has arbitrariness in grammatical system too. People will have some problems when they learn it. The majority of a learner's problem in producing foreign language, especially in the beginning levels, starts from the learner's assumption that the target language operates like the native language. The study was a qualitative research. The data of the study were two root noun phrases taken by using random sampling from two different magazines; 'Forbes Asia' English magazine (published in November 2016) and 'Mangle' Sundanese magazine (published in December 2016). The data were analyzed using contrastive analysis in order to achieve the purpose of the study, i.e. to describe English and Sundanese noun phrases construction and to explain the similarities and the differences between English and Sundanese noun phrases construction. The findings show that there are fourteen patterns of English noun phrase based on its class of elements. On the other hand, there are eleven pattern of Sundanese noun phrase. There are only four same patterns in both English and Sundanese noun phrases. The construction type and modifier position of those patterns are exactly same both in English and Sundanese. There are two differences between English and Sundanese noun phrase constructions. First, some noun phrase constructions do not exist in Sundanese and only found in English. Second, the noun phrase construction exists in both languages, but with different modifier positions. For example, the pronoun in noun phrase of English and Sundanese with two elements 'Noun and Pronoun' is as a modifier of the noun, but the position of pronoun is different. In English the modifier (pronoun) comes before the head (noun) with 'pn + N' pattern, while in Sundanese the modifier (pronoun) comes after the head (noun) with 'N + pn' pattern. The result will hopefully be used by the teacher as a reference in teaching phrases of English or Sundanese. It helps the teacher in choosing how to teach the materials to the students in learning process, so the teacher will teach them in a better way.

TABLE OF CONTENT

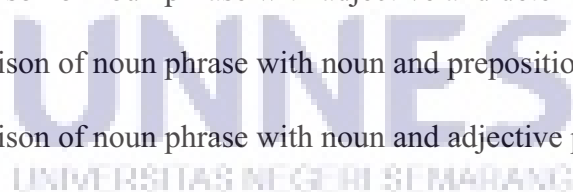
APPROVAL.....	i
DECLARATION.....	ii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENT.....	iv
ABSTRACT.....	v
TABLE OF CONTENT.....	vi
LIST OF TABLE.....	viii
LIST OF APPENDICES.....	x
1. INTRODUCTION.....	1
1.1 Background of the Study.....	1
1.2 Reason for Choosing the Topic.....	5
1.3 Research Question.....	6
1.4 Purpose of the Study.....	6
1.5 Significance of the Study.....	7
1.6 Scope of the Study.....	7
1.7 Outline of the Report.....	7
2. REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE.....	9
2.1 Review of Previous Studies.....	9
2.2 Review of Related Theories.....	15
2.2.1 Contrastive Analysis.....	15
2.2.2 Syntax.....	16
2.2.3 Phrase.....	17
2.2.4 Noun Phrase.....	19
2.3 Theoretical Framework.....	27

3. METHODS OF INVESTIGATION.....	28
3.1 Approach of the Study.....	28
3.2 Data	28
3.3 Data Sources.....	29
3.4 The Role of the Researcher	29
3.5 Instrument of the Study	30
3.6 Procedure of collecting data.....	30
3.7 Procedure of analyzing data	31
4. FINDING AND DISCUSSION.....	35
4.1 Data Description.....	35
4.2 Research Finding.....	35
4.2.1 Finding of English Noun Phrase Construction	35
4.2.2 Finding of Sundanese Noun Phrase Construction.....	54
4.3 Discussion	70
5. CONCLUSIONS AND SUGESTIONS.....	86
5.1 Conclusions	86
5.2 Suggestions.....	88
REFERENCES.....	89
APPENDICES.....	92

LIST OF TABLE

3.1	The example of data table	30
4.1	English Noun Phrase Construction	36
4.2	Finding of English noun phrase with EP 1.....	38
4.3	Finding of English noun phrase with EP 2.....	39
4.4	Finding of English noun phrase with EP 3.....	40
4.5	Finding of English noun phrase with EP 4.....	42
4.6	Finding of English noun phrase with EP 5.....	42
4.7	Finding of English noun phrase with EP 6.....	44
4.8	Finding of English noun phrase with EP 7.....	45
4.9	Finding of English noun phrase with EP 8.....	47
4.10	Finding of English noun phrase with EP 9.....	47
4.11	Finding of English noun phrase with EP 10.....	49
4.12	Finding of English noun phrase with EP 11.....	50
4.13	Finding of English noun phrase with EP 12.....	51
4.14	Finding of English noun phrase with EP 13.....	53
4.15	Finding of English noun phrase with EP 14.....	54
4.16	Sundanese Noun Phrase Constructions.....	54
4.17	Finding of Sundanese noun phrase with SP 1	56
4.18	Finding of Sundanese noun phrase with SP 2	57
4.19	Finding of Sundanese noun phrase with SP 3	59
4.20	Finding of Sundanese noun phrase with SP 4.....	61
4.21	Finding of Sundanese noun phrase with SP 5.....	62

4.22	Finding of Sundanese noun phrase with SP 6.....	63
4.23	Finding of Sundanese noun phrase with SP 7.....	64
4.24	Finding of Sundanese noun phrase with SP 8.....	66
4.25	Finding of Sundanese noun phrase with SP 9.....	68
4.26	Finding of Sundanese noun phrase with SP 10.....	68
4.27	Finding of Sundanese noun phrase with SP 11.....	69
4.28	Comparison of noun phrase with two nouns.....	70
4.29	Comparison of noun phrase with noun and adjective.....	71
4.30	Comparison of noun phrase with noun and adverb.....	73
4.31	Comparison of noun phrase with noun and verb.....	74
4.32	Comparison of noun phrase with noun and pronoun.....	76
4.33	Comparison of noun phrase with noun and determiner.....	77
4.34	Comparison of noun phrase with noun and enumerator.....	78
4.35	Comparison of noun phrase with noun and noun phrase.....	81
4.36	Comparison of noun phrase with noun and genitive phrase.....	82
4.37	Comparison of noun phrase with adjective and determiner.....	83
4.38	Comparison of noun phrase with noun and prepositional phrase.....	84
4.39	Comparison of noun phrase with noun and adjective phrase.....	85



LIST OF APPENDICES

English Noun Phrase.....	93
Sundanese Noun Phrase	100



CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

This chapter deals with the introduction of the study, which consists of background of the study, reasons for choosing the topic, statements of the problem, objectives of the study, significances of the study, limitation of the study, and outline of the report.

1.1 Background of the Study

Human is a social being that can never live without company. In every sector of life, human always needs company to help. For the purpose of helping each other they need 'language'. Language is something that only human beings possess in the world. Although human beings may not be the only one who can communicate among themselves. Sometimes it can be said that animals can do the same thing, but the difference is human uses language and animals use their instinct.

Kentjono (1982) said that 'Language is system of sound symbol which arbitrary, used by a social group to work together, communicate, and identify their self'. As stated before that human use language to communicate, it obviously has characteristics that differ from animals' communication way. From the explanation, we can take the characteristics of language. They are 1) language is system, 2) language is mostly sound (spoken), and 3) language is arbitrary.

System or we know as rule is an arranged pattern or structure that forms a unit and has meaning and function. Chaer (1994:34) stated that language is system

means it consists of elements or components arranged based on a specific pattern, and forms a unit. As a system, language is also systematic and systemic. Systematic means language is arranged based on a pattern, not randomly. Systemic means language is not a single system, but it consists of sub systems. These sub-systems are phonology, morphology, syntax, and semantics.

In linguistics, there are two languages, primary and secondary language. Primary language is spoken language produced by human vocal organ. While secondary language is written language; this language is the recording of spoken language. Language is sound (spoken) means in delivering ideas through language, human always produces sound by their vocal organ (Ramelan 1992). All human beings, wherever they live, always speak language, although they do not have any writing system to record their language. It is a proof of spoken language primacy over written language. The primacy of speech does not imply that written language is less important. The written language not only records spoken language but can also be used to preserve ideas in the past. To convey the messages over long distance, the written language is more prevailing and more often used in daily life, such as in newspapers, magazines or letters.

The third characteristic of language is arbitrary. It means there is no relation between languages to the concept of thing that being explained, or we can say that language is based on social agreement (Chaer 1994). For example, there is no logical explanation or no reasoning why clear liquid, without colour and taste is called 'water' in English, 'air' in Indonesian, 'banyu' in Javanese, or 'cai' in

Sundanese. If there is relation between language and word to something that it symbolizes, in Indonesia people will call clear liquid, without colour and taste as 'water', not 'air'. There will be only one language if language is not arbitrary. There are many languages in the world because of this characteristic. Halliday (1994) stated, there are many languages in the world and every language contains different set of rules and discrete linguistic units. It means language has arbitrariness in grammatical system too.

Furthermore, every language consists of same elements that build the language itself, including its morphology and syntax or traditionally called as grammar. Word, phrase, clause, sentence, and text are the units of syntax. Chaer (1994:222) stated that phrase is grammatical unit which is non-predicative words combination, or usually known as words combination filling one of the syntax's function in a sentence. It means the phrase is always combination or more than one word. In fact, there is a variety of phrase in one language; concerning the relation of its components, it is classified into two. They are *endocentric phrase* (at least one of the components belongs to the same form of class as the whole construction) and *exocentric phrase* (none of the components belongs to the same form class as the whole construction).

English is the most well-known language in the world, Crystal (2003) said that English has been a *lingua franca* and also global language. As the global language and *lingua franca*, English is spoken by people all over the world. English is used in advertisement, hotel, menu at the restaurant, etc. When two communities

begin to trade each other, they communicate with English as '*lingua franca*' or 'common language'. The phenomenon that English has become the most popular foreign language also happens in Indonesia. People are highly motivated to learn English, because they believe it will put them closer to more people than any other language. In Indonesia, English is a foreign language, and it makes some problems when Indonesian learn it.

The English-speaking world are classified into three concentric circles; Indonesia is in 'the expanding circle' with other countries such as China, Sweden, Greece, Japan, etc. (Kachru in Harmer 2001). It means English is only taught as a school subject. As a foreign language, people will have some problems when they try to master it. The majority of a learner's problem in producing foreign language, especially in the beginning levels, start from the learner's assumption that the target language operates like the native language (Brown, 2001). All linguist agree that the native language is an extremely significant factor in the acquisition of new language. The Sundanese who learn English also has this problem. When the native Sundanese speaker who is learning English try to make a sentence or phrase in English they will use Sundanese pattern because they think Sundanese is like English.

Sundanese is spoken by approximately 34 million people (Kurniawan 2013:4). It makes Sundanese as the third most widely spoken language in Indonesia, after Indonesian/Malay and Javanese. Sundanese is spoken mostly in West Java and Banten province, and also in the transmigration area outside West Java such as

Lampung province. In some Javanese speaking areas especially on the border of West Java and Central Java such as Bantarkawung, Salem, Pasir Batang, and Sidareja, there are a small group of people who speak Sundanese. The Sundanese speaking area called *Pasundan* (a term originating from *sunda* and circumfix *pe-an*) means a place of or a land of Sundanese.

From those discussions, the Sundanese native speaker who learn English have the same problem in their assumption that English (the target language) operates like Sundanese (the native language). Knowing the differences of both language is one of solutions of this problem. Comparing both phrases of English and Sundanese will help in finding out their differences.

To compare English and Sundanese, contrastive analysis is one of technique to know the differences of two languages. It is a linguistic enterprise aimed at producing inverted (i.e. contrastive, not comparative) two-valued typologies (a Contrastive Analysis always concerned with a pair of languages), and found on the assumption that language can be compared (James 1980). Contrastive Analysis has many different levels of comparison, such as in phonology, morphology, syntax, lexis, and culture, those differ each other. It identifies points of differences and provides result that will be important in language teaching.

1.2 Reason for Choosing the Topic

There are two reasons why the writer decides to investigate this topic. First, Sundanese people have major difficulties in learning English dealing with mother tongue problem. They think that English operates like their native language that is

Sundanese. Knowing the differences between the mother tongue and target language is one of the solutions. The writer wants the finding of the study provides the better material for teaching English process. Second, both English and Sundanese have phrases and become an important part of each language. Therefore, it needs to be observed and investigated, in order to know what may be the difficulties for the English learners or Sundanese learners.

1.3 Research Question

In this study, the writer states the problems as follows:

- 1) How are English and Sundanese noun phrases constructed?
- 2) How similar are English noun phrases construction and Sundanese noun phrase construction?
- 3) How different are English noun phrases construction and Sundanese noun phrases construction?

1.4 Purpose of the Study

The purposes of this study are:

- 1) to describe English and Sundanese noun phrases construction.
- 2) to explain the similarities between English and Sundanese noun phrases construction.
- 3) to explain the differences between English and Sundanese noun phrases construction.

1.5 Significance of the Study

By conducting the study, the writer hopes some significances are obtained. Practically, the result will be helpful for the students and the teacher. It can be used as an additional reference for students who study the two languages. The result would be more beneficial for English native speaker who learn Sundanese. It also would be useful for Sundanese native speaker in learning English. For the teacher, the result can be a reference in teaching phrases of English or Sundanese. It helps the teacher in choosing how to teach the materials to the students in learning process, so the teacher will teach them in a better way. Pedagogically, the results of this research can be hopefully used as a reference for next researchers who are interested in analyzing sentences either in English and Sundanese language or in another language in future.

1.6 Scope of the Study

The concern of this study was noun phrases found randomly in all passages in two different magazines, “Forbes Asia” English magazine (published in November 2016) and “Mangle” Sundanese magazine (published in December 2016). The writer limited his study on the constructions of noun phrases consisting of two roots or constituents.

1.7 Outline of the Report

This study consists of five chapters. Chapter I is introduction that explains about general background of the study, reasons for choosing the topic, statements of the

problem, objectives of the study, significances of the study, limitation of the study, and outline of the study.

Chapter II presents the review of related literature that contains review of the previous studies, review of the related theories, and theoretical framework.

Chapter III presents the methods of investigation that includes the approach of the study, object of the study, data sources, procedures of collecting data, and procedures of analyzing data.

Chapter IV presents the findings and discussions of findings supported by the analysis.

Chapter V presents the conclusions of the study, some suggestions in relation to the findings of the study and pedagogical implication.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

This chapter contains two sections; they are review of the previous studies and review of the related theories. The first section presents the previous studies in subject related to this study. Then it is followed by the second section that talks about the theoretical reviews underlying this study.

2.1 Review of Previous Studies

There are some relatively recent researchers use contrastive analysis of two languages. Many of the studies have focused on analyzing the differences of English grammar unit with other language. Contrastive Analysis has many different levels of comparison, such as in phonology, morphology, syntax, lexis, and culture, those differ each other.

The common object of contrastive analysis is the syntactic point where the researcher try to find out the differences and similarities in the syntactic side of the two languages. Raji (2012) tried to find out the syntactic differences of English and Yoruba. This research was actually a re-examination of the previous results. In the conclusion the researcher stated that the contrastive analysis provide tremendous value to the teacher in predicting potential problem areas of interferences L1 system and L2 system. One thing that related to the writer's study was the use of contrastive analysis.

Another study that used contrastive analysis in syntax field of two languages was a research by Abushihab (2012). He tried to find out syntactic differences of English and Turkish and its pedagogical implication. The results showed that the basic syntactic differences of English and Turkish is in the word order. The word order of the Turkish sentences could be described as SOV where the verb was positioned at the end but the word order of English sentences could be described as SVO. The subject of the English sentence was plural, the NP will be plural; when it was singular, the NP was singular; however, in Turkish whether the subject was plural or not the NP was normally singular. The results of contrastive analysis were transferred to language teaching materials, syllabuses and test construction. The result of contrastive analysis was possible to eradicate the errors caused by the differences between L1 and L2. It related to this study that two languages are different, but it should be describe the specific differences of two language in specific field.

Contrastive analysis is not only used in syntax field, but also in non-syntax field. Hayati (2016) did the contrastive analysis to provide a theoretical basis for others to test through experimentation. The results of the study showed that even the learners knew the place of similarity; they maight not be aware how similar they were. It is recommended that while treating the students' problems, similarities as well as differences be emphasized. From this study, the writer noted that providing material of similarities and differences of two languages should be balance and the explanation should be clear.

The contrastive analysis can be used in finding differences of second language acquisition. Niimura (1994) tried to describe the pedagogical implications of contrastive analysis result to the students' ability in acquiring the English and Japanese demonstrative. The result showed that although demonstratives were rather easy to learn lexically, mastering particular restrictions surrounding their usage required a great deal of well prepared, carefully planned practice in a variety of real or authentic-like contexts. The researcher recommended teaching the demonstrative system and usage in deductive way.

Not only in the level of word, contrastive analysis is also used in morphology level. Amalia (2013) contrasted the prefix and suffix of English and Indonesia to find out the differences of both language and to know the pedagogical implication of the result of the study. The results showed the differences of English and Indonesia prefixes and suffixes were in their types. In English, the type of prefixes were locative, temporal, and negation. The types of Indonesian prefixes were forming verb, adjective, noun, and interrogative. In English, it was found adverbial suffixes but not in Indonesian. However, some suffixes type found in Indonesian were forming numeral and interrogative, but not in English.

When making the contrastive analysis of the structure inside the NP, in English these relations are emphasized by the strict order of the elements inside the NP that are usually supplemented by the specific grammatical words. Švenčionienė (2012) explored the specificity of the relations between heads and their dependents inside the NP. The same content and the semantic meaning of the Lithuanian NP could be expressed by the different variable syntactic structure of the word order.

English gave emphasis to the word order concerning the dependent marked structure inside the NP; in Lithuanian the grammatical relations were strongly based toward the both, head-marked and dependent-marked structure inside the NP. In order to help the students in making English noun phrase, there should be an explanation on how the noun phrases are constructed.

Beside word and phrase level, contrastive analysis can be used in sentence level. Kusumwati (2009) tried to find out the differences of declarative sentence in English and Indonesia. The research was aimed to analyze and compare the patterns of declarative sentences in both languages and to know how the errors happened among the students in making the declarative sentence through analyzing the students' translation. The result of the study showed that there are some patterns of declarative sentences that similar between Indonesian and English language, exactly in the category of transitive, bi-transitive, and intransitive. In contrast, there was pattern of declarative sentences that exists in Indonesian; while in English it did not. It was the pattern SC (Subject-Complement); in this pattern the predicate was the complement. In addition, English had pattern of declarative sentences using intensive verb or copula verb (verb "to be"), but it did not belong to Indonesian since Indonesian has no verb "to be". These are the differences existed in the declarative sentence patterns in the two languages.

Furthermore, the research found that students mostly made errors in the sentence that have different pattern between the source language (Indonesia) and the target language (English) with significant number. The errors made by students

are due to interference of declarative sentence pattern in their mother tongue that differs from the target language.

Another contrastive analysis in sentence level is the study conducted by Oratmangun, (2014). his study was aimed at analyzing in contrast English and Tanimbar that focuses on the interrogative sentences in relation to their form and function in both languages. The result of that study showed that English and Tanimbar languages had similarities, in the form of yes-no question and interrogative word question. However, both of them different in terms of the placement of question word. English question word is at the beginning of sentence while question word in Tanimbar is at the beginning and at the end of sentence.

The relation between Oratmangun's study and the current study is found in the context of analysis; contrastive analysis. Both of the studies aim to reveal if two languages are compared, there might appear certain similarities and differences. Then, the difference is on the object of the study. The previous study attempted to analyze the interrogative sentence form in two different languages while the present study attempts to analyze two root noun phrase constructions in two different languages.

All language can be contrasted by contrastive analysis including Indonesian local language such as Javanese. A study entitled 'A Contrastive Analysis of English and Javanese Compound Word Constructions' written by Widyasari (2015) is one of the example. The study was aimed to find out the constructions of English and Javanese compound words, and to find out the characteristics, similarities, and

differences in English and Javanese compound words construction. The result showed both English and Javanese compound words are made up from two words with different meaning which combine and have a new meaning. English and Javanese compound words have some similar construction; they are Noun + Noun, Adjective + Adjective, Adjective + Noun, Noun + Adjective, Verb + Noun, Noun + Verb, Verb + Adjective, and Adjective + Adverb. The differences of English and Javanese compound words are English compound word does not have structure like Javanese which has *Tembung Camboran Tugel*, e.g. budhe (ibu + gedhe) = aunt, and Javanese compound word does not have construction like English, e.g. Adjective + Verb, Adverb + Noun, Adverb + Verb, Noun + Adverb, Verb + Adverb, and Adverb + Adverb.

There are similarities and differences in the Widyasari's study and the current study. The obvious similarity can be found in the context of analysis; contrastive analysis. The two studies are aimed to reveal if two languages are compared, there might appear certain similarities and differences. Even though the object of three studies are different, Widyasari's study is analyzing compound word constructions, whereas the current study is about analyzing noun phrase constructions.

Yuwono (2010) had investigated the differences of English and Indonesian noun phrase. The researcher tried to find out the differences of English and Indonesian noun phrase and its impact to the students in learning to interpret English noun phrase. The results showed that English and Indonesian noun phrase are different in the word order and the modifier position. The different system would

make difficulties for the learners not only in learning active mastery, but also passive comprehension such as listening and reading.

What have not been done by the former researchers mentioned before are a study on contrastive analysis of English and Sundanese. This study helps students with Sundanese as their first language. Sundanese is the third most widely spoken language in Indonesia spoken by approximately 34 million people. Later, this research focuses on two root noun phrase construction.

2.2 Review of Related Theories

In the study, the related theories or literatures are needed to be base of the analysis. The writer has to deal with some theories of syntax, phrase, English noun phrase, and Sundanese noun phrase. The writer explains briefly the relation between constituents of noun phrase and the theory of modifier in noun phrase.

2.2.1 Contrastive Analysis

Some grammar and phonetics books for foreign students usually focus on a lot of differences between source language and target language. Students make mistakes because of the influence from the mother tongue, and being aware of the differences is essential to learn the target language. Without the awareness, students will think that the target language operates like the source language. In fact, every language operates in their particular system that differs with other language.

Contrastive Analysis (CA) is a research method to compare two languages, in order to find the differences and similarities (James 1980). In etymology, Contrastive Analysis consists of two words, *Contrastive* and *Analysis*. The word

Contrastive is derived from the word *contrast*, which is an obvious difference between two or more things. The word *Analysis* is a transcription of the ancient Greek (analysis), "a breaking up" (from *ana-* "up, throughout" + *lysis* "a loosening"). It means the process of breaking a complex topic or substance into smaller parts to gain a better understanding of it.

CA is the systematic comparison of two or more languages, with the aim of describing their similarities and differences. Then Fisiak (1981) defined "Contrastive Analysis is a sub discipline of linguistics that deals with the comparison of two or more languages in order to determine both the differences and similarities that hold between them". The basic ideas of contrastive analysis are to compare the source language and the target language, and predict points of difficulty then use the results in order to improve teaching materials.

2.2.2 Syntax

Grammar is divided into two parts: morphology and syntax. Akmajian (2010) stated that 'morphology' is a linguistics subfield that studies the words internal structure and the relationship among the words. On the other hand, syntax is a linguistics subfield that studies sentence internal structure and interrelationship among its internal parts. If morphology is the study of arrangement of morphemes into words or morphological construction, syntax is the study of the arrangement of words into phrase and sentence or syntactical constructions. Morphemes are the smallest units to be arranged in morphology, while in syntax, words are the smallest units to be arranged.

The study of syntax usually discusses: syntactical structure, including function, category, and character of syntax, and the units of syntax, those are words, phrases, clauses, sentences, and texts (Chaer 1994:206). We know the term of subject, predicator, object, complement, and adverbial; and the term of noun, adjective, verb, and adverb. The first group, those are subject, predicator, object, complement, and adverbial, is the terminology of syntactical functions. The second group, those are noun, adjective, verb, and adverb, is the terminology of syntactical category. These syntactical functions are like empty box, which means nothing because it is empty (Verhaar in Chaer 1994). These empty boxes will be filled by something called syntactical category. For example:

‘John ate steak last night’

A word ‘john’ as noun category fills the empty box called subject. The empty box called predicator is filled by a word ‘ate’ as verb category. A word ‘steak’ as noun category fills the empty place called object. While, the adverbial function is filled by a phrase ‘last night’ as adverb of time category.

2.2.3 Phrase

Phrase is grammatical unit that is non-predicative words combination, or usually known as words combination filling one of the syntax’s function in a sentence (Chaer 1994). It means the phrase is always combination or more than one word. In fact, there is a variety of phrase in one language; concerning the relation of its components, it is classified into two. They are *endocentric phrase* and *exocentric phrase*.

a. Endocentric Phrase

Endocentric phrase is a phrase in which at least one of the components belongs to the same form class as the whole construction (Ramelan 1992:135). For example:

'the boys play football'

The phrase 'the boys' consist of word 'the' and 'boys'. One of its component 'boys' can occupy the position before the predicate phrase, and so can the whole construction 'the boys'. This means the component 'boys' belong to the same form class as the whole construction 'the boys', so this phrase called endocentric phrase.

Another kind of endocentric phrase is what may be termed as an 'Appositive Phrase' and 'Coordinative Phrase'. Appositive phrase consists of a noun or noun phrase to which another noun or noun phrase is added so as to give further clarification. For example, 'John, my friend'. While, coordinative phrase consists of two components on an equal syntactic level.

b. Exocentric Phrase

Exocentric phrase is the opposite of endocentric phrase. It is a phrase that none of the components belongs to the same form class as the whole construction (Ramelan 1992:143). Example:

'he slept in the room'

The prepositional phrase 'in the room' consists of the two components 'in' and 'the room', each of which cannot fill the slot after the verb 'slept'. So there are no constructions like

'he slept *in*' or

'he slept *the room*'

2.2.4 Noun Phrase

Noun phrase is often called Noun Cluster or noun group in grammar books. It is defined as follows; "A noun cluster is a noun with other words or groups of words clustering around it and modifying it in various ways" (Roberts, 1956). The basic structure of noun phrase is:

$(\{M^n\} H \{M^n\})$

The superscript 'n' means that there can be one or more than one modifier (M). The noun phrase must have a head, but the modifiers are optional (Leech 1982). There are two kinds of modifier: PREMODIFIERS (precede the head) and POSTMODIFIERS (follow the head). Some points describe noun phrase are as follow:

1. A noun phrase can be one word, or it can also be more than one word.

$[_{NP} (^H_N \text{Planes})_{VP} (\text{take off})_{PP} (\text{from here})]$.

$[_{NP} (^M_N \text{Security})_{NS} (^H_N \text{guards})_{VP} (\text{set})_{NP} (\text{a trap})]$.

2. In a noun phrase, there can be determiners, quantifiers and modifiers, as well as a noun.

a. Determiners

The determiners are the articles (*a, the*), demonstratives (*this, that, these, those*) and possessives (e.g. *my, your*). These come before the noun.

(${}^M_{Det} \mathbf{a} {}^H_N \text{bomb}$) (${}^M_{Det} \mathbf{the} {}^H_N \text{result}$)

(${}^M_{Det} \mathbf{this} {}^H_N \text{idea}$) (${}^M_{Det} \mathbf{my} {}^H_N \text{bag}$)

b. Quantifiers

Quantifiers are *a lot of, many, much, a few, every, each, all, most, both, half, some, any, no etc.* These also come before the noun.

(${}^M_{Det} \mathbf{a lot of} {}^H_N \text{money}$) (${}^M_{Det} \mathbf{two} {}^H_{NP} \text{people}$)

(${}^M_{Det} \mathbf{every} {}^H_{NP} \text{photo}$) (${}^M_{Det} \mathbf{half} {}^M_{Det} \mathbf{the} {}^H_{NP} \text{passengers}$)

2.2.4.1 English Noun Phrase

In a clause, English noun phrase (NP) typically acts as subject (S), as object (O), or as complement (C):

- [${}^S_{NP} (\text{The house}) {}^P$ (was) C (quite empty)]. NP = S
- [S (We) P (have bought) ${}^O_{NP} (\text{the house})$]. NP = O
- [S (This) P (must be) ${}^C_{NP} (\text{the house})$]. NP = C

Some kind of NP can act as adverbials (A):

- [S (We) P (walked) ${}^A_{NP} (\text{five miles last night})$]. NP = A

The structures of English NPs are very divers, but the chief elements are the head of noun phrase, pre-modifier of Noun Phrase, and post-modifier of Noun Phrase. The head of Noun Phrase may be:

- A noun: (the H doll), (dear H Margaret), etc.
- A pronoun: (H everyone in the street).
- An adjective: (the H absurd).

- An enumerator: (all ^H*fifteen*).

The pre-modifier of noun phrase may be:

1. Nouns: (a ^M*garden* fence), (a ^M*gold* ring), (^M*London* pubs)
2. Adjectives: (^M*red* shoes), (^M*older* music)
3. Adverb (in initial position): (^M*quiet* a noise)
4. Determiners: (^M*this* morning), (^M*what* a girl)
5. Enumerators: (^M*two* eggs), (^M*the third* man)
6. Genitive phrase: (^M*Fred's* juice), (^M*someone else's* problems)
7. Some less clear-cut categories, such as adjective phrase (^M_{AjP}*awfully bad* weather); other phrases (^M_{PP}*around the clock* service); compound words of various kinds (a ^M*slow-witted* bumpkin); Ven and Ving forms of verbs (^M*grated* cheese), (a ^M*running* total).

The post-modifier of a noun phrase may be:

- Prepositional phrases: (the best day ^M_{PP} (*of my life*))
- Relative clauses: (a quality ^M [*which I admire*])
- Various other types of modifier, including adverbs (the girl ^M_{Av} *upstairs*); adjective (something ^M_{Aj} *nasty* (in the woodshed)); and noun phrase in apposition (the bandicoot, ^M_{NP} (*a tiny marsupial*)).

Because of these various kind of modifier, it is possible for NP to reach considerable complexity. This possibility is rare, such as:

(^M_{Av}absolutely ^M_dthe ^M_elast ^M_etwo ^M_{Aj}unsold ^M_{Aj}ripe ^M_{Aj}juicy ^H_Npeaches)

(^M_dthe ^H_Ngirl ^M_{PP}(^M_pby ^M_dthe ^H_Ntable ^M_{PP} (with the carved legs)))

2.2.4.2 Sundanese Noun Phrase

Frasa barang (noun phrase) is a phrase that has similar syntactic category with the noun. Kuswari (2010) in *Sintaksis Basa Sunda* mentioned some words that usually act as a modifier in noun phrase. Those are *Kecap Barang* (Noun), *Kecap Pagawean* (Verb), *Kecap Sipat* (Adjective), *Kecap Bilangan* (Enumerator), and *Frasa Pangantet* (Prepositional Phrase).

As a modifier of a noun phrase, a noun can be in concrete form, abstract form and pronoun. Such as in phrase no 1, the noun ‘*Sumedang*’ is a concrete noun; while noun phrase no 2, the noun ‘*kuring*’ is a pronoun.

- 1) (^H_N*Tahu* ^M_N*Sumedang*) ‘Tofu from Sumedang’
- 2) (^H_N*Cau* ^M_N*kuring*) ‘My Banana’

The modifier of a noun phrase can be also a verb, such as:

- 3) (^H_N*Babaturan* ^M_V*maenbal*) ‘friend of playing football’
- 4) (^H_N*Awewe* ^M_V*ditiung*) ‘a girl using hijab’

In some context, *Kecap Sipat* or adjective has two functions. Those are a predicator and a modifier.

- 5) [^S_{NP} (*Kuring*) ^P_V (*boga*) ^O_{NP} (^H_N*meong* ^M_{Aj}*bodas*)] ‘I have a white cat’
- 6) [^S_{NP} (^H_N*Meong* ^M_{Pn}*kuring*) ^P_{Aj} (*bodas*)] ‘My cat is white’

The word '*bodas*' in sentence no. 3 acts as a modifier of '*meong*' in phrase '*meong bodas*'. On the other hand, the word '*bodas*' in sentence no. 4 acts as a predicator.

Another modifier of a noun phrase is *kecap bilangan* or enumerator. As modifier of noun phrase, the position of *kecap bilangan* can be as post- or pre-modifier.

7) ($\begin{matrix} H \\ N \end{matrix} \text{Budak} \begin{matrix} M \\ e \end{matrix} \text{katilu}$) 'third son'

8) ($\begin{matrix} M \\ e \end{matrix} \text{Lima} \begin{matrix} H \\ N \end{matrix} \text{mobil}$) 'five cars'

Frasa pangantet or prepositional phrase can come after a noun as a modifier of a noun phrase, such as:

9) ($\begin{matrix} H \\ N \end{matrix} \text{Surat} \begin{matrix} M \\ pP \end{matrix} (\text{ti manehna}))$ 'a letter from her'

Based on the semantic relation or the relation of meaning between its components, Sundanese noun phrase is divided into 13, they are *frasa barang jumlah, pamilih, sasaruuan, pangjéntré, milik, tujuan, bahan, asal, panangtu, hasil, sesebutan, pamungkir, and waktu*.

1) *Frasa barang jumlah*

Frasa barang jumlah is a phrase in which the relation of the components shows the quantity. For example:

- *Kuring, Ani, jeung Mono* 'I, Ani, and Mono'
- *Ibu sareng bapa* 'mother and father'

6) *Frasa barang tujuan*

Frasa barang tujuan is a phrase in which the relation of the components shows the purpose. For example:

- *Lapangan maen bal* ‘football field’
- *Buruan tempat ulin* ‘playing yard’

7) *Frasa barang bahan*

Frasa barang bahan is a phrase in which the relation of the components shows the material. For example:

- *Sapatu kulit* ‘leather shoes’
- *Korsi hoe* ‘rattan chair’

8) *Frasa barang asal*

Frasa barang asal is a phrase in which the relation of the components shows the origin. For example:

- *Bedog Ciwidey* ‘Bedog from Ciwidey’
Bedog = traditional big knife
- *Peyeum Bandung* ‘Peyeum from Bandung’

9) *Frasa barang panangtu*

Frasa barang panangtu is a phrase in which the relation of the components shows like demonstrative pronoun. For example:

- *Buku ieu* ‘This book’
- *Jalema nu nangtung* ‘The standing man’

10) *Frasa barang hasil*

Frasa barang hasil is a phrase in which the relation of the components shows the result. For example:

- *Hasil pembangunan* ‘Development product’
- *Sawah warisan* ‘Inheritance field’

11) *Frasa barang disebutkan*

Frasa barang disebutkan is a phrase in which the relation of the components shows name of something. For example:

- *Sakadang Kancil* ‘A mousedeer’
- *Ibu dosen* ‘The lecturer’

12) *Frasa barang pamungkir*

Frasa barang pamungkir is a phrase in which the relation of the components show the negativity. For example:

- *Lain kereta api* ‘not a train’
- *Lain jalema* ‘not a man’

13) *Frasa barang waktu*

Frasa barang waktu is a phrase in which the relation of the components shows the time. For example:

- *Peuting tadi* ‘last night’
- *Minggu hareup* ‘next week’

In short, this research goes on the study about the differences and similarities of noun phrase in English and Sundanese. Whether there is differences and similarities or not in two root noun phrase constructions of English and Sundanese. Knowing the differences and similarities is one of the way to give more understanding to the sundanese students who learn English in constructing noun phrase. The analysis is based on the elements of noun phrase and the position of modifier.

2.3 Theoretical Framework

This study draws on Brown's theory (2001) that the errors of beginning level learner's start from their assumption that target language operates like their native language. The sundanese students who try to make an English noun phrase will construct the noun phrase similar with their native language and causes some errors. Moreover, theories from Fisiak (1981) about contrastive analysis stated that contrastive analysis is a sub discipline of linguistics that deals with the comparison of two language in order to determine both differences and similarities that hold between them. From this theory, the writer decide to find out both differences and similarities of English and Sundanese two root noun phrase.

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSIONS AND SUGESTIONS

This chapter presents conclusions and suggestions based on the discussion on the previous chapter.

5.1 Conclusions

The main purpose of the study is to describe comparison of English and Sundanese noun phrase construction. The comparison includes three main points, 1) the construction of English and Sundanese noun phrase, 2) the similarities of English and Sundanese noun phrase construction, 3) the differences of English and Sundanese noun phrase construction.

First, there are fourteen patterns of English noun phrase based on its class of elements; Adjective + Noun, Adverb + Noun, Determiner + Adjective, Determiner + Noun, Enumerator + Noun, Genitive Phrase + Noun, Noun + Noun, Noun Phrase + Noun, Pronoun + Noun, Verb + Noun, Verb-en + Noun, Verb-ing + Noun, Adjective Phrase + Noun, and Noun + Prepositional Phrase. On the other hand, there are eleven pattern of Sundanese noun phrase; Adjective + Noun, Determiner + Noun, Enumerator + Noun, Noun + Adjective, Noun + Determiner, Noun + Enumerator, Noun + Noun, Noun + Noun Phrase, Noun + Pronoun, Noun + Prepositional Phrase, and Noun + Verb.

Second, the results of the analysis show that there are some similar patterns of English and Sundanese noun phrases. There are only four same patterns in both

English and Sundanese noun phrases; Adjective + Noun, Determiner + Noun, Noun + Prepositional Phrase and Enumerator + Noun. The construction type and modifier position of those patterns are exactly same in both English and Sundanese.

Third, in order to reach the purpose of contrastive analysis, followings are the differences of English and Sundanese noun phrase constructions that are divided into two kinds:

- 1) The noun phrase construction does not exist in Sundanese. Some noun phrase constructions are found only in English; the noun phrase with Noun and Adverb elements, Noun and Genitive Phrase elements, Determiner and Adjective elements. Different grammatical system makes this difference, e.g. we cannot find the noun phrase with Determiner and Adjective elements in Sundanese because the derivation noun from adjective always has change ('hade' -> 'ka-hade-an') while in English we can derive noun from adjective without any change (absurd -> absurd).
- 2) The noun phrase construction exists in both languages, but with different modifier positions. For example, the pronoun in noun phrase of English and Sundanese with two elements 'Noun and Pronoun' is as a modifier of the noun, but the position of pronoun is different. In English the modifier (pronoun) comes before the head (noun) with 'pn + N' pattern, while in Sundanese the modifier (pronoun) comes after the head (noun) with 'N + pn' pattern. This also occurs in several English and Sundanese noun phrase constructions; those are noun phrase with two elements 'Noun and Noun', 'Noun and Adjective', 'Noun and Verb', 'Noun and Pronoun', 'Noun and Determiner', 'Noun and

Enumerator’, and ‘Noun and Noun Phrase’. Whereas the elements of those noun phrase constructions in both languages are the same, but the positions of modifier are different.

5.2 Suggestions

After doing the study on English and Sundanese noun phrase construction, here are some suggestions that the writer proposes. *First*, knowing the differences of two language can help a teacher in his/her learning process. It is hoped that teachers can develop their ideas and try to find out the best method in teaching English, especially when they teach noun phrases. Since English and Sundanese noun phrase constructions are different from each other, the writer suggests to teach the system in the deductive way combined with some interactive games. Both differences and similarities can be explained to the students in the early stage. *Second*, the data were taken only from two magazines, so the constructions found in the study were limited. Therefore, the writer suggests to other researchers to conduct study with more data sources.

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