

A CONTRASTIVE ANALYSIS OF INDONESIAN AND ENGLISH NOUN PHRASES: HOW THE DIFFERENCES CREATE PROBLEMS IN TRANSLATION AS SEEN IN “CHEMISTRY 2A FOR SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL GRADE XI SEMESTER 1”

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INTISARI

Penelitian ini bertujuan: 1) untuk mengetahui perbedaan dan persamaan antara frasa kata benda Bahasa Indonesia dan Bahasa Inggris, 2) untuk menjelaskan bagaimana pengaruh perbedaan dan persamaan tersebut pada penerjemahan. Dengan menggunakan analisis kontrastif konstruksi frasa kata benda Bahasa Indonesia dan Bahasa Inggris dibandingkan untuk mendapatkan perbedaan dan persamaan yang digunakan untuk menganalisa data. Hasil penelitian menunjukkan bahwa konstruksi frasa kata benda Bahasa Indonesia dan Bahasa Inggris memiliki perbedaan dan persamaan yang menimbulkan permasalahan dalam penerjemahan. Frasa kata benda yang memiliki persamaan menimbulkan permasalahan yang lebih sedikit dalam penerjemahan tetapi frasa kata benda yang berbeda menimbulkan lebih banyak permasalahan dalam penerjemahan.

Kata Kunci: Analisis Kontrastif, Frasa Kata Benda Bahasa Indonesia, Frasa Kata Benda Bahasa Inggris, Penerjemahan

ABSTRACT

This research aims: 1) to find out the differences and similarities between Indonesian and English noun phrases, 2) to explain the effects of the differences and similarities between Indonesian and English noun phrases on the translation products. By using contrastive analysis Indonesian and English constructions of noun phrases are contrasted to get the differences and similarities by which the data are analyzed. The results show that Indonesian and English constructions of noun phrases have similarities and differences which create problems in translation. Those noun phrases which have differences create more problems in translation than those having similarities.

Keywords: Contrastive Analysis, Indonesian Noun Phrase, English Noun Phrase, Translation

INTRODUCTION

The existence of translation in the globalization era nowadays reaches many aspects in human life, which deals with bilingual or even multilingual communication like politic, education, entertainment, medical, and tourism. One of the examples in education is the use of translation in immersion class which is called *Rintisan Sekolah Berbasis Internasional* (RSBI) in Indonesia. This school uses bilingual learning in which the learning processes are supposed to use more English than Indonesian language.

This kind of school also requires bilingual learning book to support the learning process. In example to the book is *Chemistry 2A For Senior High School Grade XI Semester 1* by J.M.C. Johari and M. Rachmawati. As a bilingual learning book for Senior High School students the book is expected to have a good English translation. Since the book is a learning media for the students not only to learn about the subject that is presented but also the English language, a good translation should be produced by the translator of the book.

Afterward, to produce good translation product a translator should acquire both the source and target language. For example Indonesian translator who wants to translate Indonesian text to English should acquire not only Indonesian language well but also English as well. That is how translation deals with language acquisition/learning.

Having good understanding of foreign language is not easy. As stated by Haegeman (1991:13) that "human beings usually master one language with native competence and they have a hard time learning other languages later in life." The difficulty in learning foreign or second language makes linguists find many ways to help the learners like by doing contrastive analysis, error analysis, and discourse analysis. Here the researcher uses

contrastive analysis to analyze the differences and similarities of Indonesian and English linguistics structure.

To focus on the unit in the linguistic structure the researcher choose noun phrase as the main subject because the importance of noun phrase in a sentence, which can be placed as subject to make the subject clear or even in object to give detail information of the object. So, translator must be careful enough in translating noun phrase because errors in translating it can produce different meanings of the sentence.

By this research, the researcher will find out the differences and similarities between Indonesian and English noun phrases and explain the effects on the translation products. Contrastive analysis is used in this research to develop the corpus in order to determine the differences and similarities between Indonesian and English noun phrases.

PREVIOUS STUDY AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.1 Previous Study

Contrastive study on noun phrase is not new in linguistics study. Several researchers have done the research by contrasting noun phrase between Indonesian and English. Generally, contrastive analysis on noun phrase was done in order to give contribution to language teaching field, for example, *A Contrastive Analysis of Selected Patterns of the Noun Phrase and Verb Phrase of English and Indonesian* by Mohamad Farid Baradja in 1971. In his research, Baradja compared and contrasted some structures of English and Indonesian noun phrases, based on assumption that foreign language learners tended to encounter difficulties as a result of native language interference.

Another example is *Contrastive Analysis of English and Indonesian Noun Phrase* by Soemarno in 1975 and A

Contrastive Analysis of English and Indonesian Noun Phrase in Lower Secondary School English Textbooks and Its Implications in Teaching by Hidayati (2002). Both researches focused on contrasting Indonesian and English noun phrases without any attempt to connect it to translation field.

Those three researches dealt with contrastive analysis on Indonesian and English noun phrase. This research will be a similar one, but its main subject is translation, instead of language learning. This research will be focused on how the differences and similarities between Indonesian and English noun phrases affect the translation products. This research uses contrastive analysis to find out the effects of the differences and similarities between Indonesian and English noun phrases.

Using contrastive analysis in researching translation field is rarely done. There is a similar research, which is done by BRA. Hj. Moeryati Soedibyo, S.S, M.Hum. entitled *Analisis Kontrastif Frasa Nomina Bahasa Inggris dan Bahasa Indonesia dalam Buku '50 Powerful Ideas Your can Use to Keep Your Customers'*. However, this research is quite different in that it will be about Indonesian-English translation not English-Indonesian translation as what has been done by Soedibyo. In that research Soedibyo used English text which then she translated it herself into Indonesia to get the data.

2.2 Theoretical Framework

2.2.1 Noun Phrase

Indonesian has 3 kinds of noun phrase according to Chaer (1998), which are *frasa benda setara*, *frasa benda bertingkat*, and *frasa benda terpadu*.

2.2.1.1.1 Frasa Benda Setara (compound noun phrase)

This kind of noun phrase has two elements in form of two nouns which has meaning in the same field. The two

Noun phrase is a combination of two or more words which has noun as its head. As stated by Fromkin (1984:210), "noun phrases may be easily identified because they can function as "subject" or "object" in a sentence, and only noun phrases may do so. Noun phrases usually contain a noun or pronoun." An assumption of noun phrase also comes from Hudson (2008) that "NP is different from N, so it may be important for the grammar to distinguish them. The standard assumption is that this is indeed so, because nouns combine with adjectives to form NPs, whereas it is NPs that combine with verbs to form clauses; and this distinction requires the "unary branching" above cows to show that this is in the intersection of the two classes: both N and NP."

Noun phrase in a language compared to another language can be different as every language has its own structure. So are Indonesian and English noun phrases which have some differences. The structure of Indonesian and English noun phrase will be explained as follow.

2.2.1.1 Indonesian Noun Phrase

The important part of noun phrase is the head which is a noun. There are two kinds of noun according to Moeliono (1993: 153-165), basic noun and derived noun. Basic noun consists of only one morpheme, general noun (*meja, rumah, semangat*) and specific noun (*adik, Farida, batang, ini*). Derived noun consists of two or more morphemes, for examples: derived noun with prefix *ke-* (*ketua, kehendak, kerangka*), derived noun with affix *ke-* (*an(kemenangan, kelaparan, kepulauan)*). elements have the same degree of word in which both of them are independent, for examples: *meja kursi, piring mangkuk, kasur bantal*.

As seen in the examples above, the noun phrases show grouping relation in which the two nouns come from the same group of thing. The grouping relation somehow makes people tend to add 'and'

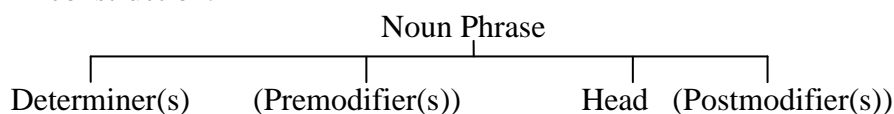
be formed by considering the following rules:

- a. A headword can be followed by one or more additional noun.
- b. A headword can be followed by adjective, pronoun or possessive pronoun, and ended with demonstrative pronoun.
- c. If a headword is followed by an adjective and there is no another element between them, a word 'yang' can be added between them. In addition, the word 'yang' and the adjective should be moved to the back after personal pronoun if there is personal pronoun added. If there is demonstrative pronoun added, it should be placed at the end of the arrangement.
- d. A headword can be followed by a certain verb which basically can be separated by 'yang', or other element. But not all verbs can be used for this construction.

- e. A head can also be expanded by using apposition in which the noun phrase has the same reference with the explained noun.
- f. A head also can be expanded with a clause which begins with 'yang', for example: *masalah yang kita bicarakan kemarin itu*.
- g. A head also can be expanded by prepositional phrase. In this construction the prepositional phrase is a part of the noun phrase so it cannot be moved like other prepositional phrase.

2.2.1.2 English Noun Phrase

According to Morley (2000), the construction of English noun phrase basically consists of four elements which are determiner (d), modifier (m), headword (h), and qualifier (q). According to Leech (1973:251) the structure of English noun phrase can be written:



The basic construction of noun phrase according to Morley and Leech are the same. They only differ in the name of modifier after head in which Morley named it as qualifier while Leech named it as postmodifier.

2.2.1.1.1 Head

Head in noun phrase is a noun. According to Thomson and Martinet (1986: 24), there are four kinds of noun in English, which are:

- a. Common nouns: *dog, man, table*
- b. Proper nouns: *France, Madrid, Mrs. Smith, Tom*
- c. Abstract nouns: *beauty, charity, courage, fear, joy*
- d. Collective nouns: *crowd, flock, group, swarm, team*

2.2.1.1.2 Determiner

Determiner possesses a function to specify the reference of the head. As stated by Leech that “determiners are

words which specify the range or reference of a noun in various ways, e.g. by making it definite (the boy), indefinite (a boy), or by indicating quantity (many boys)”. Leech also stated that determiners are more essential to noun phrase structure than modifiers so it cannot be left out. Determiner can be left out if only the noun phrase has a zero article, for example, *boys in general*.

There are three classes of noun which can occur together with determiner. They are singular count nouns, plural count nouns, and mass nouns. The proper noun according to Leech normally does not need determiner.

2.2.1.1.3 Premodifier

According to Leech, modifiers are classified into premodifiers and postmodifiers. On the other hand, in Morley’s construction, there is no sub

classification under modifier. Postmodifier which occur after head according to Leech named as qualifier according to Morley. Here, Morley's construction will be used so postmodifier will be explained in qualifier.

Modifiers in a noun phrase are placed after determiners but before the noun which is head of the phrase. The types of premodifiers are adjectives (that enormous old red bucket), participles (a downing man, baked potatoes) and nouns (a Glasgow marathon, a crossword puzzle).

In modifiers, a combination of words may happen as compound modifier. According to Leech (1973:272), compound modifier is "a combination of words which functions as a single adjective or noun." For instance:

Icy-cold water

Brand-new dinner plates

A good-looking girl

Nouns in modifiers can also occur in more than one noun. The nouns can be made of syntactic construction. According to Leech (1973:272), these constructions are not hyphenated when they occur as complements (i.e. after the verb in a clause), but are often hyphenated when they premodify." That is why these constructions are not easy to be distinguished from compound modifiers. For instance:

The *town-hall* clock (the clock is in the town hall)

A ready-to-wear suit (the suit is ready to wear)

A red and white scarf (the scarf is red and white)

In English, sequence of three, four, or even five nouns are commonly occur in a noun phrase. The constructions may be formed by noun premodifications, noun compounds, or combinations of both. For instance, *Lancaster City football club supporters*.

The sequence of modifiers if more than one modifier happens

according to Leech (1973:273) can be explained as bellow:

- a. The item that comes next before the head is the type of adjective which means 'consisting of', 'involving', or 'relating to', for example: This is not a *political* problem, it's a *social* problem.
- b. Next closest to the head is a noun modifier, for example: A *world* political problem.
- c. Next before the noun modifier comes the adjective derived from a proper noun, for example: The *American* spring medical conference.
- d. Normally, noun phrases do not have all the types of modifiers. A simple structure is commonly used, for example: A *Russian* trade delegation.
- e. Before type of adjective, other modifiers are happened like participles, color-adjectives, adjectives denotation age, etc., for examples: '*Printed* Scandinavian design' and '*Red* oriental carpet'.
- f. Premodifiers may have modifiers of themselves, for example: *Badly copied* Scandinavian furniture design.
- g. Notice the middle position of unstressed *little*, *old* and *young*, for example: A *nice little* cottage.

2.2.1.1.4 Postmodifier

Postmodifier according to Leech has six different ranges.

- a. relative clauses
- b. prepositional phrases
- c. non-finite clauses equivalent to relative clauses
- d. appositive clauses
- e. clauses of time, place, manner and reason
- f. Adverbs
- g. Adjectives

2.2.2 Translation

Many definitions on this field arose by many experts on translation like Newmark, Catford, and Nida. Catford (1965) in Hanafi (1986:24) said that

"translation may be defined as follows: the replacement of textual material in one language (SL) by equivalent textual material in another language." Newmark (1974) in Hanafi (1986:25) assumes that "translation is an exercise which consists in the attempt to replace a written message in one language by the same message in another language." Meanwhile, Nida in Hanafi (1986:25) said that "translating consists in producing the receptor language the closest natural equivalent to the message of the source language, first in meaning and secondly in style."

The three definition of translation above have different sentences in defining translation but the key is just the same. The key is replacing SL message to TL equivalently. This shows how equivalency is important in translation.

According to Hanafi (1986:46) the categorization of unit in translation arose from an assumption that what is translated is not the language but the message. Hanafi assumes that it does not matter since language and message is a union. The message could not be translated without translating the language. So, Hanafi stated five units in translation which are word, term, idiom, phrase, proverb.

In translating the five units, translators may found some problems. According to Nadar, there are five problems in translation which may be found by translators. The five problems are problems in equivalency, problems in ecological terms, problems in material, problems in social and cultural terms, and linguistic problems.

At last, there are principles in translation. The main principle of translation is to produce equivalent translation. More than the principles, according to Nadar (2007) the more important thing is that translator must be aware of the fact that his function is as translator not the writer which means that he should not omit or add the message in the source text.

According to Nadar (2007:20) a translator has no authority to add or omit the information of the text. The omission and addition are limited only in the structure not the meaning. For example:

Mereka – pandai

They are clever

2.2.3 Contrastive Analysis

Contrastive analysis according to Brown (1980:148) is "the systematic comparison and contrasting of the native and target (second) language systems." Language systems which are contrasted include all units and structures of the language like sounds, sound systems, and grammatical structures. Contrastive analysis according to Nababan (1991:127) can be used to present: contrasts in phonology, contrasts in morphology, contrasts in syntax, contrasts in lexicon, contrasts in culture, contrasts in orthography.

In the contrasting processes, contrastive analysis engages in certain procedures. According to Whitman (1970) in Brown (1980), "contrastive analysis involved four different procedures." The procedures are description, selection, contrast, and prediction.

The difficulty that will be the result of the prediction can be classified into several categories. Prator (1967) in Brown (1980:152) that grammatical hierarchy of difficulty can be categorized into six levels, which are:

a. Level 0 – Transfer

In this level, there is no difference or contrast between the two languages. It means that the learner can simply transfer the items of linguistic system contrasted from the native language to the target language. In other words, it can be said that there is no difficulty and so it is labeled "level zero".

b. Level 1 – Coalescence

In this level, two items in the native language are found to be one item in the target language. For example English third-person pronouns require

gender distinction (his/her) while in Indonesian it does not happen. Indonesian only has 'dia' without gender attribute.

- c. Level 2 – Underdifferentiation
In this level, an item in the native language is absent in the target language so the learner should avoid the item.
- d. Level 3 – Reinterpretation
In this level, an item in the native language has different shape or distribution so the learner should reinterpret his native language system into the target language.
- e. Level 4 – Overdifferentiation
In this level, there are too many differences. There is only a little similarity so the learner should learn so hard the system.
- f. Level 5 – Split
In this level, an item in the native language becomes two or more in the target language. The learner is required to make a new distinction between the items.

The hierarchy of difficulty also is proposed by Stockwell (1965) in Brown (1980). Stockwell proposed 16 levels of difficulty. According to Brown, Stockwell hierarchy of difficulty is too complex so it is better to use Prator's because it is more applicable. Moreover, according to Whitman in Brown (1980), "one can make simple predictions about difficulties learners will encounter." So, the prediction may not only be based on the levels of hierarchy which are proposed by Prator.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Method of Data Collection

The data are collected by using observation method. Observation is "a study which involves the collection of data without manipulating it" (Wray, 1998:186). Using this method, the researcher simply observes the text without making any attempt to control or determine it.

Not all of the noun phrases are taken as the data of the research. The researcher uses sampling method to collect the data. The researcher chooses *Contents, Concept Map of all chapters, Chapter I point A, Chapter II point B, Chapter III point C, and Chapter IV point D*. Such sampling is done to cover the whole book. It is assumed that by taking representative of each chapter, all the units can be covered.

3.2 Method of Data Analysis

Indonesian and English noun phrase constructions are analyzed by using contrastive analysis. Randal Whitman (1970) in Brown (1980:149) stated that "contrastive analysis involved four different procedures." According to Whitman the four procedures are description, selection, contrast, and prediction. Considering the procedures stated by Whitman, in the research the researcher put description about Indonesian and English noun phrase in *Theoretical Framework*. The selection has been done the first time the researcher chose the topic of the research. Then the analysis only involves with two procedures, contrasts and predictions.

The second analysis covers the explanation of problems found as the effects on translation. The differences and similarities of English and Indonesian noun phrases found in the first analysis will be the tool to analyze the data. The purpose is to see the effects of the differences and similarities in the translation product.

By using Immediate Constituents (ICs) analysis, both noun phrases in the source text and target text are analyzed deeply, not only the structures but also the accuracy of translation and the difficulty in translating it. According to Parera (1993:47), ICs is "structural linguistic analysis technique for finding linguistic elements which form a higher linguistic construction in stages". He also stated that by using this analysis, hierarchy structure

of higher formation form can be determined, and then by this analysis the problems of ambiguity in noun phrase can be overcome.

In the analysis by using ICs technique, Parera (1993:48-50) stated that there are four kinds of diagram which can be used to analyze the connection among the elements of noun phrase. The four diagrams are *grafik kurung* (cage graph), *grafik kotak* (square graph), *diagram bercabang* (branch diagram), and *diagram pohon* (tree diagram). Here the researcher chooses to use branch diagram proposed by E. Nida. In using the diagram the researcher add the name of each element.

In addition, according to Parera (1993:51-53) ICs can be used in analyzing several levels of linguistic analysis. It can be used in analyzing morphological level (words and morphemes) and syntaxes level (phrases).

In using ICs analysis, the researcher uses several instruments to verify the data found. The instruments are

- a. Kamus Besar Bahasa Indonesia
- b. English Dictionary
- c. English-Indonesian and Indonesian English Dictionary
- d. Internet Browsing
- e. Tata Bahasa Baku Bahasa Indonesia and Tata Bahasa Praktis Bahasa Indonesia
- f. A Communicative Grammar of English and A Practical English Grammar

The results of the contrastive analysis in this research are categorized into 6 hierarchies of difficulty proposed by Prator (1967) in Brown (1980:152) as which the explanation has been mentioned in the theory of contrastive analysis.

- a. Level 0 – Transfer
- b. Level 1 – Coalescence
- c. Level 2 – Underdifferentiation
- d. Level 3 – Reinterpretation
- e. Level 4 – Overdifferentiation
- f. Level 5 – Split

If the contrasted structures are classified by using the 6 hierarchies of

difficulty proposed by Prator (1967) in Brown (1980:152), the data found are categorized according to the similarity of the construction.

CONTRASTS

The contrast procedure in this research is done by contrasting Indonesian and English structures of noun phrases. From the structures of noun phrases in the theory can be underlined that Indonesian and English structures of noun phrases have differences and similarities which will be explained in general as follow.

4.1 Similarities

Here are the similarities of Indonesian and English noun phrase constructions which according to the hierarchy of difficulty proposed by Prator (1967) can be categorized as having difficulty in level 0.

4.1.1 Frasa Benda Setara

a. Coordination

1) In English 'and' is used as coordination. According to Leech (1973:224-225) coordination can link two words of the same word class. For example:

a) Nouns

Many *boys and girls* prefer to dress in the same way nowadays.

b) Adjectives

The house was so *old and dirty* that no one wanted to buy it.

c) Conjunctions

In addition, coordination can link combinations of phrases (eg combinations of sentence elements), even where these do not occur next to one another in sentence:

a) Subject and verb phrase

The papers say, and most people believe, that the Democrats will win the next election.

b) Subject and complement

Martha is secretary and John chairman.

Also combinations of words which do not make a complete phrase can be linked:

The fund gives help to many *orphan children* and *unmarried mothers*.

She's wearing a *white scarf* and *gloves*.

When more than two items are coordinated, the conjunction is normally omitted before each item except the last:

[I would like a ham sandwich, |an ice-cream |and a cup of tea. |

In writing, a comma is used to separate all the items except (normally) the last two.

- 2) In Indonesian coordination have the same rules. As Arifin and Junaiyah (2009: 25) stated that coordinative phrase is an endocentric phrase with plural head in which its components can be potentially connected with particle such as *dan*, *ke*, *atau*, *tetapi*, or correlative conjunction such as *baik .. maupun* and *makin ... makin*. For examples:

a) *Kaya atau miskin, kaya ataupun miskin, kaya dan miskin; dari, untuk, dan oleh rakyat; untuk dan atas nama klien; pintar tetapi congkak.*

b) *Baik merah maupun biru, entah suka entah tidak (suka), makin pagi makin baik, makin tua makin bermutu.*

It should be noticed that the words which can be linked are only words from the same category such as *merah-biru*, *tua-bermutu*, *suka-(tidak) suka*, and *pagi-baik*.

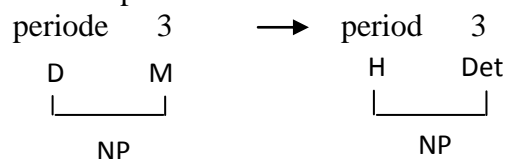
If there is no particle, the coordination can be called *parataxis* such as *tua muda*, *besar kecil*, *hilir mudik*, *keluar masuk*, *pulang pergi*, *naik turun*, *makan minum*, *ibu bapak*, and *kaya miskin*.

4.1.2 Frasa Benda Bertingkat

a. Sequence in title

English sequence in title has the same construction with Indonesian. As stated by Thomson and Martinet (1986:309) that "titles of king etc. are written in Roman figures", for example

Charles V, James III, Elizabeth II. So, in this case both Indonesian and English have the same construction. The rule is the same with Indonesian which can be seen from an example found in the book as follow.



b. Appositive, Prepositional Phrase, Clause

Different with Indonesian as stated by Leech (1973), English rules M in D-M construction into

- 1) Relative clauses
- 2) Prepositional phrases
- 3) Non-finite clauses equivalent to relative clauses
- 4) Appositive clauses
- 5) Clauses of time, place, manner and reason
- 6) Adverbs
- 7) Adjectives

English rules of M are actually same with Indonesian rules proposed by Moeliono (1993) in which he stated that

- 1) A headword can be followed by one or more additional noun
- 2) A head can also be expanded by using apposition in which the noun phrase has the same reference with the explained noun.
- 3) A head also can be expanded with a clause which begins with 'yang'.
- 4) A head also can be expanded by prepositional phrase. In this construction the prepositional phrase is a part of the noun phrase so it cannot be moved like other prepositional phrase.

In fact, Indonesian categorizations of M in D-M construction exist in English as M in M-D construction. In addition both Chaer and Leech proposed sequence of M if more than one M happened in a noun phrase.

c. Quantity and Compilation

The classification of quantity and compilation is same with English since English categorizes quantity and

compilation as determiner. According to Leech (1973:226), Determiner can be classified as follow.

Predeterminers	Central Determiners	Postdeterminers
a. <i>all, both, half</i> b. <i>double, twice, etc</i> c. <i>one-third, etc</i> d. <i>what, such, etc</i>	a. Articles: <i>the, a(n)</i> b. Demonstratives: <i>this, these, that, those</i> c. Possessives: <i>my, your, etc</i> d. Quantifiers: <i>some, any, no, every, each, either, neither, enough, much</i> e. Wh- determiners: <i>what(ever), which(ever), whoever, whose</i>	a. Cardinal numerals: <i>one, two, etc</i> b. Ordinal numerals: <i>first, second, etc</i> c. General ordinals: <i>next, last, other, etc</i> d. Quantifiers: <i>many, few, little, several, more, less, etc</i>

The rules and sequences of quantity and compilation in Indonesian and English

construction of M-D can be explained as follow.

INDONESIAN

Negation – limitation – numeral (quantity/compilation) – D

ENGLISH

Predeterminer – Central determiner – Postdeterminer – Modifier (Other modifiers) $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{participles} \\ \text{color-adjectives} \\ \text{adjectives denotation age} \\ \text{etc} \end{array} \right\}$ - Proper

noun - Noun modifier - Adjective $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{consisting of} \\ \text{involving} \\ \text{relating to} \end{array} \right\}$) – Head

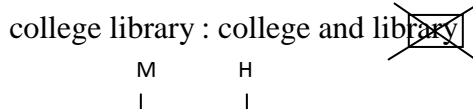
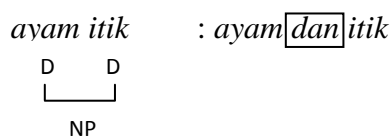
4.2 Differences

4.2.1 Frasa Benda Setara (compound noun phrase)

Indonesian construction of compound noun phrase does exist in English but the rules are different. Indonesian compound noun phrase happens if the nouns belong to the same group (*meja kursi* belong to furniture group). Such a rule does not exist in English compound noun phrase. In English, the nouns for noun compound are not categorized. According to Thomson and Martinet (1986:31-32), noun compound in English may indicate partition, place, time, material purpose, work area, occupation, sport, hobby, field.

Indonesian Compound Noun Phrase is constructed by two nouns in which the

nouns can be separated by ‘*dan*’ and have same position in the noun phrase. For instance, ‘*Ayam Itik*’, the noun phrase does not have modifier. Both ‘*ayam*’ and ‘*itik*’ are head. ‘*Ayam*’ doesn’t support ‘*itik*’ and ‘*itik*’ doesn’t support ‘*ayam*’. Both are independent. Such a rule is different with English compound noun in which the nouns cannot be separated by ‘and’. In English compound noun, the nouns have different positions. For instance, ‘college library’, ‘library’ is the head of the compound noun and ‘college’ is the noun modifier of ‘library’. So, ‘library’ is independent noun while college is dependent noun in which it depends on ‘library’.



4.2.2 Frase Benda Bertingkat (complex noun phrase)

Indonesian complex noun phrase has two construction according to the place of modifiers. The first is D-M construction where the modifiers are placed after head (right). The second is M-D construction where the modifiers are placed before head (left). Those rules are the same with English. English also has D-M and M-D construction since it has determiner and modifier which are placed before head and it also has postmodifier which is placed after head.

Though Indonesian and English have similarity in the placement of the modifiers, they also have differences. In depth the differences and similarities will be explained as follow.

4.2.2.1 D-M

Though both Indonesian and English have D-M construction, they have different rules. According to Chaer (1998), the M in D-M construction can be

- a. Personal pronouns which show possessive meaning
- b. Nouns which show material meaning
- c. Nouns or names of places which show origin of something
- d. Nouns or verbs which need place

- e. Nouns which indicate location or direction
- f. Adjectives which show characteristics
- g. Adjectives or verbs which show condition
- h. Adjectives which indicate shape
- i. Adjectives which indicate size
- j. Adjectives or adverbs which indicate age
- k. Verbs or nouns which have purpose meaning
- l. General nouns which indicate target of the D while the D is noun with affix *Pe-an* or *Per-an*
- m. Personal pronouns or names which indicate actor of the D while the D is noun with suffix *-an* or affix *pe-an*
- n. Nouns or certain verbs which indicate sector while the D is personal pronoun and
- o. Nouns which indicate location showing part of something big
- p. Nouns which indicate tool of D
- q. Verbs which indicate “a thing that has been ...”
- r. Ordinals which show sequence
- s. Nouns which indicate gender of D
- t. Adjectives which indicate behavior or trend
- u. Demonstrative pronouns which indicate limitation

INDONESIAN

D - $\left\{ \begin{array}{c} \text{color} \\ \text{shape} \\ \text{size} \end{array} \right\}$ - *age* - *characteristic* - ‘*sudah*’ - *condition* - *possessive* - *demonstrative* - limitation

ENGLISH

Predeterminer - *Central determiner* - Postdeterminer - *Modifier (Other modifiers*
 $\left\{ \begin{array}{c} \text{participles} \\ \text{color-adjectives} \\ \text{adjectives denotation age} \\ \text{etc} \end{array} \right\}$ - *Proper noun - Noun modifier - Adjective* $\left\{ \begin{array}{c} \text{consisting of} \\ \text{involving} \\ \text{relating to} \end{array} \right\}$) - Head -
 Postmodifier

4.2.2.2 M-D

Limitation and negation also exist in English but they are categorized amodifier since limitation and negation like ‘only’, ‘just’, and ‘no’ are adjectives.

The rules and sequences of limitation and negation in Indonesian and English construction of M-D can be explained as follo

INDONESIAN

Negation – limitation – numeral (quantity/compilation) – D

ENGLISH

Predeterminer – Central determiner – Postdeterminer – Modifier (Other modifiers) – Proper noun - Noun modifier - Adjective

modifiers { $\frac{\text{participles}}{\text{color-adjectives}}$, $\frac{\text{adjectives denotation age}}{\text{etc}}$ } - $\left\{ \frac{\text{consisting of}}{\text{involving relating to}} \right\}$ -

Head

4.2.3 Frase Benda Terpadu (integrated noun phrase)

This noun phrase has two elements which are depended each other. One of the elements cannot be omitted. If one of the elements is omitted, the meaning will be change or it may become an incomplete noun phrase. This type of noun phrase proposed by Chaer (1998) seems confusing since the type is not explored in depth in the explanation of noun phrase like the other two types. The explanation of the type is found only in the general explanation.

In English such a type does not exist. There is no rule stated that modifiers in a noun phrase may not be omitted. Determiner, modifier and qualifier may be omitted since the core of the noun phrase

is Head or the noun. Leech also stated that “determiners are more essential to noun phrase structure than modifiers so it cannot be left out.” Determiner can be left out if the noun phrase has a zero article (boys in general).

EFFECTS ON TRANSLATION

Based on the analysis done by the researcher to the noun phrases found from “Chemistry 2S For Senior High School Grade XI Semester 1”, the data can be classified into three major categories. The three categories are D-M, M-D, and M-D-M construction. The three categories are complex noun phrases since there are no compound and integrated noun phrase found in the book.

In short problems of translation found in the book can be written as follow.

No.	Types of Noun Phrase	Hierarchy of Difficulty	Total Appearance	Total Difficulty	Problems*
1. D-M					
1.1 D-M with noun as its M					
1.1.1	D-M with general noun as its D and M	Level 3	162	17.90%	1,2,3
1.1.2	D-M with noun modifier which is found to be a noun in English	Level 1	14	0%	
1.1.3	D-M with derived noun head –an	Level 3	9	0%	
1.1.4	D-M with derived noun head pe-an	Level 3	39	20.51%	1, 4, 5, 7
1.1.5	D-M with derived noun head ke-an	Level 3	7	42.86%	1, 3, 5
1.1.6	D-M with M is noun which indicates name	Level 3	97	24.74%	1, 5
1.2 D-M with noun phrases as its M					

	D-M with noun phrases as its M	Level 3	105	40%	1, 2, 5, 6, 7, 8
1.3 D-M with adjectives as its M					
	D-M with adjectives as its M	Level 3	99	12.12%	3, 9, 10
1.4 D-M with adjective phrases as its M					
	D-M with adjective phrases as its M	Level 3	25	28%	1, 2, 11, 12, 20
1.5 D-M with possessive/personal pronoun as its M					
	D-M with possessive/personal pronoun as its M	Level 3	29	24.24%	13, 14
1.6 D-M with demonstrative as its M					
	D-M with demonstrative as its M	Level 3	62	3.22%	1
1.7 D-M with limitation					
	D-M with limitation as its M	Level 3	1	0%	
1.8 D-M with sequence or sequence in title as its M					
	D-M with sequence or sequence in title as its M	Level 0 Level 3	16	12.5%	10
1.9 D-M with verb as its M					
	D-M with verb as its M	Level 3	11	18.18%	1
1.10 D-M with prepositional phrases as its M					
	D-M with prepositional phrases as its M	Level 0	72	11.11%	1, 15, 16
1.11 D-M with clauses as its M					
	D-M with clauses as its M	Level 0	31	12.90%	1, 2
1.12 D-M with compound head or modifier					
1.12.1	Two compound heads or modifiers	Level 0 Level 3	31	32.26%	1, 8, 16, 17
1.12.2	More than two compound heads or modifiers	Level 0 Level 3	11	18.18	5
1.13 D-M with combination of several M					
1.13.1	D-M-M with noun, adjective, verb, adjective phrase, sequence, and demonstrative as its M	Level 3	127	23.62%	1, 5, 18, 19
1.13.2	D-M-M with clause as its last M	Level 0 Level 3	29	6.70%	1, 2
1.13.3	D-M-M with Prepositional Phrase as its last M	Level 0 Level 3	74	14.86%	5, 12, 15, 16, 20
1.13.4	D-M-M with possessive as its last M	Level 3	19	26.31%	1
1.13.5	D-M-M-M with noun, adjective, verb, adjective phrase, sequence, and demonstrative as its M	Level 3	50	28%	1, 2, 19
1.13.6	D-M-M-M with preposition as its last M	Level 0 Level 3	34	47.06%	1, 5, 18, 21
1.13.7	D-M-M-M with clause as its last M	Level 0 Level 3	8	12.5%	1
1.13.8	D-M-M-M-M with noun, adjective, verb, adjective phrase, sequence, and demonstrative as its M	Level 3	6	16.67	1
1.13.9	D-M-M-M-M with preposition as it	Level 0	6	33.33%	1, 5

	last M	Level 3			
1.13.10	Various combinations of M	Level 3	21	9.52	2, 5
2. M-D					
2.1 M-D with numeral as its M					
	M-D with numeral as its M	Level 0	56	5.36%	1, 2
2.2 M-D with numeral phrase as its M					
	M-D with numeral phrase as its M	Level 0	4	0%	
3. M-D-M					
	M-D-M	Level 3	79	36.71%	1, 2, 5, 10, 18, 22

1. Omission
2. Addition
3. The change of noun into adjective
4. The change of derived noun which has noun form into participle
5. Wrong distribution
6. The use of *of* construction
7. The change of noun into verb
8. The addition of preposition
9. Change of adjective into noun,
10. Inappropriate choice of word
11. Wrong translation of comparison
12. Change of adjective phrase into clause

CONCLUSIONS

In conclusion, there are two underlying conclusion from the two research questions. First, from the contrasts it can be concluded that Indonesian and English noun phrases have differences and similarities. The differences lie on the different distributions of possessive modifiers, noun modifiers, adjectives modifiers, verb modifiers, ordinal modifiers, and demonstrative pronoun modifiers. The differences also lie on the different classifications. Indonesian classifications of noun phrase are mostly based on meaning while English classifications are mostly based on the types of words forming it. The differences also lie on some rules which are absent in English such as rule for compound noun phrase in which the nouns should have grouping relation and rule for integrated noun phrase in which head and modifier in a

*notes:

13. The use of genitive
14. The quite different transformation
15. Change of the prepositional phrase
16. Change of noun head
17. Change of compound conjunction into preposition
18. Wrong preposition
19. Change of adjective phrase modifier into predicate
20. Change of noun phrase into sentence
21. Wrong noun form
22. Change of clause into sentence

noun phrase may not be separated. Although Indonesian noun phrase constructions have many

differences with English, they also have similarities. There are seven similarities found which are compound coordination, sequence in title, apposition, clause, prepositional phrase, quantity, and compilation.

Second, from the analysis of the effects on the translation it can be inferred that the differences and similarities affect the translation products as seen in the *Chemistry 2A for Senior High School Grade XI Semester 1*. In the effects on translation can be seen that most constructions have difficulty in level 3. Eight constructions have difficulty in both level 3 and level 0, four constructions have difficulty in level 0, and one construction has difficulty in level 1. The differences and similarities do affect the translation since noun phrases which have difficulty

in level 0 are found to only have difficulty in translation under 13% and in average 7% while noun phrases which have difficulty in level 3 are found to have difficulty in translation in average 20.70%. Noun phrases which have difficulty in level 1 are found to have 0% difficulty in translation while noun phrases with level 0 and level 3 have 22.17%. The difficulty on noun phrases with level 0 and level 3 is bigger due to the more complicated construction since the noun phrases have more than one modifier.

The problems found are not all caused by the differences but there are some problems caused by the less understanding on the translation principles such as omission and addition. The cases are related to the principles of translation in which translator has no authority to add or omit information to/from the text. But still such cases also have relation on the understanding of the difficulties since omission on important element such as head will not occur if the translator understands well the principles of translation. So, in producing a good translation product, a translator should understand both the differences of source and target text language structures and the principles of translation.

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