

A Comparative Study between English and Karo Language of Prepositional Phrases

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ABSTRACT

Language is one of the most fundamental defining features of the human being, and scholars have been trying to capture its essentials for thousands of years. One way of doing this is to try to establish the limits and possibilities of human language by comparing the structures of a wide range of diverse language. Comparing two languages is as approach to find the problem which may be faced by the student's contrastive approach. This study is aimed to compare and analyze between English and Karo Language of Prepositional Phrase. This study used qualitative approach in analyzing the data of the study. English and Karo language prepositional phrases are made up two or more words. But they have a different structure, in the structure pattern of prepositional phrase in English, the pattern of preposition appear as the head in the prepositional phrase and also appear before a noun, an adjective as a modifier in the noun phrase and a verb. But, in Karo language the pattern of structure preposition phrase appears in the form preposition followed by noun and noun followed by the preposition, and there is no determiner occurs after preposition in prepositional phrase of Karo Language. In mastering and understanding English prepositional phrase, the writers should pay attention syntactically to the rules of prepositional phrase and also need to know not only from the form of syntactic but also semantically.

Key Words: Karo Language, Preposition Phrase, Comparative Study

1.Introduction

Language is one of the most fundamental defining features of the human being, and scholars have been trying to capture its essentials for thousands of years. One way of doing this is to try to establish the limits and possibilities of human language by comparing the structures of a wide range of diverse language. Comparing two languages is as approach to find the problem which may be faced by the student's contrastive approach. Robert (1962:21) says that contrastive analysis is considered as the comparison of the structure of language to determine the point that differ them and the differences of the source of difficulty in learning target language.

In addition Hartman and Stork (1972: 43) says "Comparative and Contrastive have similarity that is they compare two or more languages, meaning that the comparative and contrastive linguistics which compare two or more languages explicitly". It means linguistics which compare two or more languages. One of linguistic aspects is concerned to the contrastive analysis. Contrastive analysis means the comparison of two languages by paying attention to differences and similarities between languages being compared; it was first suggested by Whorf (1941) as contrastive linguistics, a comparative study which emphasizes on linguistic differences. From the statement above, it means that the main goal of contrastive linguistics is to find out what the differences and similarities in analyzing languages.

So many languages spread across the world, especially in Indonesia. Where, Indonesia is known for a wide variety of ethnic, cultural, and language. From the diversity, the researcher want to examine one of the tribes in Indonesia, particularly in the area of North Sumatra, known as Karo tribe. Where, Karo tribe is one of the languages used by the public or the Karo tribe in daily conversation, at funerals, wedding ceremonies, organization or meetings involving about Karo. In the grammar of Karo language, we can find on the use of the preposition phrase, in Karo language we have “*ku*” and in English we have “*to*” as direction preposition phrase (PP).

For example:

English: ‘*The three of them went to the forest*’

PP

Karo Language: ‘*Lawes ia teluna ku kerangen*’

PP

From this fact we can find that language is different from other. In English PP “*to*” has a Head and followed the determiner “*the*” and Noun “*forest*” meanwhile the preposition phrase in Karo language preposition “*ku*” has a head and followed with Noun “*kerangen*” without determiner. These variations of language appear as the impact of variety of cultures the people have. Although we have so many languages as our medium of communication, we can still find some similarities and differences in each of them, and from these things encourage the researcher to find out the differences and the similarities by contrasting English and Karo language especially in prepositional phrases and also because Karo language is mother tongue of the researcher, and has been daily communication with parent, and friends who are Karo tribes.

2. Literature Review

2.1 Comparative Study

Any linguistics systems may serve as a starting point for typology comparisons. Linguistic typology concerns itself with the study of structural differences and similarities between languages. More specifically, it is the study and interpretation of types of linguistics systems. While this may involve comparison of linguistics systems within a language, it more generally involves comparison of linguistic systems between languages. Linguistic typology can be both synchronic, i.e. a comparison of language contemporary to each other, or diachronic, i.e. a comparison of language at various stages of their historical development. The term typology is, as many other linguistics terms, borrowed from the field biology and means something like ‘taxonomy’ or ‘classification’ (Croft 2003:1). For example, typological surveys of phonological, morphological, grammatical, syntactic, lexical, pragmatic, semantic, etc. In addition, according to Viveka (2012:18) “linguistic typology thus often involves cross-linguistic comparison between different languages. Therefore, with cross-linguistic comparison linguistic typology can give an idea of how linguistic features pattern across the world. As well as typology not only can map the patterns, which may then serve as a starting point for investigations into the kinds of pattern but also can serve as a guide to analysis of language. As well as Randal Whitman 1970 in Naibaho (2005:17) noted that Contrastive Analysis involves in four procedures, they are:

1. Description

In this step, the teacher uses the tools of formal grammar, explicitly describe the two languages in question.

2. Selection

A selection is made of certain forms linguistics terms, rules, structure for contrast, since it virtually impossible to contrast every possible facet of two languages.

3. Contrast

That is mapping of one linguistic system on the other and specification of the relationship of one system on the other which rests on the validity of one's reference points.

4. Prediction

Is based on the first three procedures, we formulate the prediction of difficulty.

2.2 Phrase

Halliday (1994a:180) actually distinguishes between 'group' and 'phrase': a phrase is different from a group in that, whereas a group is an expansion of a word, a phrase is a contraction of a clause. Phrase is formally classified according to the class of word which functions as the headword (Morley: 1943:53).

Burton and Roberts (1948:19) states that phrase is a sequence of words that can function as a constituent in the structure of sentences. According to Nelson and Greenbaum (2002:70) "The prepositional phrase is a structure with two parts: preposition and complement, prepositional complement is typically a noun phrase, but it may also be a nominal relative clause or an *-ing* clause."

2.3 Prepositional Phrase in English

Prepositional phrases tend to be very simple. Generally they consist of a preposition, a modifier, and a noun or its substitute. Occasionally there may be more than one modifier. In addition, Emma (2010:198) examines another major constituent phrase type: adpositional phrases. The term adpositional phrase includes both prepositional phrases and postpositional phrases. In prepositional phrases such as the English ones, there is a preposition (underlined) followed by a noun phrase (pre- meaning 'before').

- a. I put it [on the table] pp
- b. I'm buying a dog [in March] pp
- c. I gave my bonsai tree [to Bob] pp
- d. I received a letter [from my sister] pp

2.3.1 Types of adpositional phrases

Adpositional phrases fall into two categories depending on whether they contain predicative or non-predicative adpositions, and there is also a distinction between adpositional phrases that are arguments of the main predicate and those that are not. We will start by looking at predicative adpositional phrases.

2.3.1.1 Adjunct adpositional phrases

Predicative adpositions function like predicates: they provide semantic information for the clause in which they occur, both in terms of their own meaning and in terms of the meaning of the noun phrase that occurs with them (their argument). They are therefore adjuncts (or adverbials), elements that modify in some way the event or situation described by the main predicate. The predicative adposition takes the whole of the core as its second argument and the adjunct adpositional phrase appears in the syntactic periphery.

For example:

- (1) (a) Mel dances in the kitchen. **be-in'** (kitchen, [**do'** (Mel, [**dance'**(Mel))])
 (b) I'm watching TV after work. **be-after'** (work, [**do'** (I, [**see'** (I, TV))])

In these sentences, the preposition contributes to the meaning of the sentence. In the case of (a), it tells us something about location. In (b), it carries information about the time of the event. We can see how the preposition contributes to the meaning by changing it and seeing how the meaning of the sentence changes, as illustrated in (2).
 for example:

- (2) (a) I sat on/under/beside the table.
 (b) I'm watching TV during/before/after work.

The preposition also licenses the noun phrase; in other words, the noun phrase would not be able to occur without the preposition beside it. Since these adpositional phrase types have a predicative function, we give them an internal constituent structure with a core P and nucleus P node, which we mark with a subscript 'P' to show they are within a pre/postpositional phrase.

2.3.1.2 Argument-marking adpositional phrases

In contrast to adjunct adpositional phrases, argument-marking adpositions are non-predicative. They mark **oblique core arguments** of the predicate with an adposition.
 for example:

- (3) (a) I gave my bonsai tree to Bob.
 (b) I took the phone from my sister.

Core arguments that are not marked with adpositions (e.g. *I* and *my bonsai tree* in (3a)) are **direct core arguments**. In (3), the predicates *give* and *take* have three arguments, and the preposition marks the third argument; in other words, it marks the non-macrorole argument that is neither the actor nor the undergoer. The preposition itself does not contribute substantial semantic information; it cannot be changed for another preposition because the choice of preposition is determined by the semantic role of the noun phrase that goes with it, as we see in (4).

- (4) (a) I gave my bonsai tree to/*from/*under Bob.
 [**do'** (I, Ø)] cause [BECOME **have'** (Bob, bonsai tree)]
 (b) I took the phone from/*to/*beside my sister.
 [**do'** (I, Ø)] cause [BECOME not **have'** (sister, phone)]

In the case of (4a), the noun *Bob* has the role of **recipient** which is marked in English by the preposition *to*. In (4b), the opposite role (a type of source) is marked with *from*. Notice that the prepositions do not appear in the semantic representations. They are assigned by rules to particular arguments. Another argument-marking adposition in English is *with*, which is used for the instrument and accompaniment roles and is also assigned by a rule.

2.3.1.3 Argument-adjunct adpositional phrases

The argument-adjunct adpositional phrases (aajs). Argument-adjunct adpositional phrases contain predicative adpositions that add to the meaning of the sentence. In addition, argument-adjunct adpositional phrases introduce one of the participants in the event.

There are several ways of recognizing argument-adjunct adpositional phrases. Firstly, we can look at certain predicates which require three arguments such as *put*, shown in (5).

- (5) (a) Rosemary put the flowers in the vase.
 (b) *Rosemary put the flowers.
 (c) *Rosemary put the flowers the vase.

The predicate *put* requires three arguments (in this case *Rosemary*, *the flowers* and *the vase*) and so all three are core arguments, even though one is prepositionally marked. But on the other hand, notice that the choice of preposition is not fixed. Unlike non-predicative adpositional phrases with verbs like *give*, we can put a number of different prepositional phrases with verbs like *put*. The choice of preposition affects the meaning, showing that the preposition is predicative. This is reflected in the semantic representation where the preposition appears as a predicate.

2.4 Prepositional Phrases in Karo Language

According to Geoffrey 1991:162 states that there are thirteen types of prepositional phrases may be identified in karo; some of these exhibit more than one sub-type. As indicated by their various labels, PPs most typically expound clause level adjunct slots, except for genitive PP's, which expound only the possessive slot of the NP. Several PP types can also function as predicates of Stative clauses, namely Location, Dative, Comitative, Reference, Purpose and Similitude.

1 Location PP

Location PP's incorporate Position, Direction, Vicinity, Source, Proximity and Extent. All these sub-types can occur as predicates of stative clauses, as locative adjuncts, and as exponents of the descriptive slot of the NP. Position, Direction, Source and Vicinity PP's typically exhibit a Head filled by a locative noun

2. Time PP

Time PP's incorporate point, Extent and Duration sub-types. Many of the prepositions in this category are derived from other word classes or have functions at other levels of the grammar, for example, as aspect markers or conjunction. There is also some overlap with the use of prepositions in Location PP's expressing position-2 and Extent. The Head of the Time PP is nearly always expounded by a temporal noun or noun phrase.

3. Comparison PP

Comparison PP's expound the nuclear but optional slot of a stative clause who predicate is filled by an adjective inflected for the comparative degree with *-en*. The comparison PP exhibits the following structure:

Comparison PP = Prep : *asa, asang, asangken, maka* + Head : X

X = category of filler expounding: the subject of the clause or the complement of the clause or an adjunct in the clause.

4. Dative PP

There are two types of Dative PP, both of which can occur as dative complements in stative clauses and as dative adjuncts of intransitive and transitive clauses. However, only the second type, dative-2 PP, is able to expound the nuclear dative slot of a passive reflexive clause, and the predicate slot of a stative clause.

5. Comitative PP

A comitative PP comprises the preposition ras 'with' plus a head expounded by a NP whose referent is usually animate. Comitative PP's express accompaniment, and typically occur with reciprocal verbs. Ras also functions as a coordinating conjunction meaning 'and', linking phrase-level constituents of the same category when expounding the head of a comitative PP, the third person ia may alternate in form with the enclitic -sa.

6. Purpose PP

A purpose PP contains an obligatory preposition man 'for', plus a head expounded by a common noun or a purpose noun with -en; the head noun may be modified by a possessive. The preposition guna 'for' may also occur in purpose PP's but does not collocate with purpose with purpose nouns.

7. Similitude PP

Similitude PP's typically occur as predicate of stative clauses, or manner adjuncts. They are characterised by the preposition bagi or the more literally dēsken, meaning 'like, similar to', plus a head expounded by a NP, a position PP, an independent clause, or a headline relative clause.

2.5 Comparative Analysis

According to George (1972:27) Comparative Analysis is still in use and of use in Language teaching, in spite of all criticisms made against it. In comparative analysis of two or more languages, any aspects of the languages can be compared i.e. syntactic, phonology, semantic and morphology depending on the purpose for such comparison, Mathew (1997). According to James 1980:3, "Comparative Analysis is a linguistics enterprise aimed at producing inverted (i.e. contrastive not comparative) two valued typologies and founded on the assumption that language can be compared. Comparative analysis of language is exploited in contrastive analysis for determining what constitute areas of problem to learners of (L2) by predicting possible errors. Therefore, comparative analysis is a tool developed for language teaching and learning, Lado (1957) sees it as a scientific outlook into describing a language. He notes that it should be done carefully in the line with the native language of the learner in the aim of predicting possible problems and proffering solution to the problems. In his view, constrictive analysis compares language structure and implies mere differences than similarities existing between the source and the target language. Thus, contrastive analysis students should know the differences and similarities existing between two languages that may border around different levels of study; phonetics, phonology, morphology, syntax and semantics

3. Methods

In completing this study, the writer applies comparative analysis method as research method, where the writer not only going to describe the data but also analyzes them. As an explicit analysis in dealing with language concerned, comparative analysis can be concluded that is a way to compare the first language structure with the second language structure to find out how far the similarities and differences of both languages compared. In collecting the data, the writer applies library research method to support the data description. Library research method is a way to support the analysis through providing data in written materials. The data are collected to be read and studied. The sources of the data are taken from some references in groups of media social internet. In this study, the analyses of the data can be divided into 2 steps. They are:

1. The data will be describes into structure and function of prepositional phrases
2. Compare English and Karo Language prepositional phrases in the form similarities and differences.

4. Result and Discussion

English and Karo language prepositional phrases are made up two or more words. It can be appear after a noun, an adjective or a verb. Just as common are preposition coming before a noun phrase. In addition, the prepositional phrase can be at the beginning, in the middle, or the end of a sentence. It has functioned as an adjunct, complement of phrase and phrasal in a verb phrase. The structure of prepositional phrase in English always appears preposition as the head and followed by determiner and noun (*Prep + N* and *Prep + Det + N*). And the structures of preposition appear as the head in the prepositional phrase and also appear before a noun, an adjective, and a verb. But, in Karo language the pattern of structure preposition phrase appears in the form preposition followed by noun and noun followed by preposition (*Prep + N*, *N + Prep*, *Prep + N + Prep*), and there is no determiner occurs after the preposition in Karo prepositional phrase as well as English preposition phrase.

5. CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTION

5.1 Conclusion

1. The position of English and Karo Language Prepositional Phrase

The position of the prepositional phrase appears after a noun, an adjective or a verb, and the preposition always as the head in phrase. In addition, the prepositional phrase can be at the beginning, in the middle, or the end of a sentence. Furthermore, the prepositional phrase has functioned as an adjunct, a complement of phrase and a phrasal in a verb phrase.

2. The similarities and differences structure of English and Karo language prepositional phrase.

English and Karo language prepositional phrases are made up two or more words. But they have a different structure, in the structure pattern of prepositional phrase in English, the pattern of preposition appear as the head in the prepositional phrase and also appear before a noun, an adjective as a modifier in the noun phrase and a verb. But, in Karo language the pattern of structure preposition phrase appears in the form preposition followed by noun and noun followed by the preposition, and there is no determiner occurs after preposition in prepositional phrase of Karo Language as well as English preposition phrase.

5.2 Suggestions

Based on the conclusion above, the writer would like to give some suggestion for both the learners and the other writers of English, especially in mastering and understanding English prepositional phrase. For the learners, the understanding of prepositional phrase should be in a clause or a sentence and For the other writers, the writers should pay attention syntactically to the rules of prepositional phrase and also need to know not only from the form of syntactic but also semantically.

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