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## Contrastive Analysis: Gorontaloese and English Noun Phrase

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### ABSTRACT

The main objective of this study is to gain an understanding of the different and similar features of Noun Phrase in the vernacular language of Indonesia; Gorontaloese, with English. Gorontaloese is one of Indonesia's vernaculars that is rarely investigated, including the structure of Noun Phrases. Comparative study of Gorontaloese and English is also very rare. This study presents the similarities and the differences of Noun Phrase structures of Gorontaloese and English. To achieve this purpose, the structure of the Noun Phrases in both of the languages have been provided. They were taken from newspapers, relevant text-books, online journals and other data sources. The theories about Gorontaloese are very limited, because there was only handful of researchers. The findings of this study will be helpful for further researchers to develop their arguments when conducting their study in the same field. This study has supported the theory, in which the order and structure of Noun Phrases in both languages are distinct, while Gorontaloese is considered as a head-last language and English is a head-initial language. In Gorontaloese, the head of the Noun Phrase is always placed at beginning of the phrase followed by the other supporting elements, which helps in the description of the head noun. On the other hand, the Noun Phrase in English follows the supporting elements, which is placed in the beginning of the Noun Phrase, which helps in the description of the head Noun Phrase.

**Keywords:** Contrastive Analysis, English Noun Phrase, Gorontaloese, Gorontaloese Noun Phrase.

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### 1. Introduction

This paper will present particularly grammatical structures and rules regarding noun phrase between English and Gorontaloese, as two distinct languages. The main concern in doing this study is the lack of sources in and about Gorontaloese. So far, the data sources are limited only on written folktales. Apart from written folktales, noun phrase of Gorontaloese was difficult to collect, due to the limitation of sources written in Gorontaloese. Therefore, as records of this language only come in the form of folklore, fables and traditional books. There is no related data from other sources, as in English, where noun phrases can be collected from many historical records. Therefore, this study will be beneficial in the future. As there is no study like this before that compare the structure of noun phrase between English and Gorontaloese, this is the uniqueness of this study.

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Indonesia is a country, which comes with a lot of cultures. Thus, brings in a lot of vernacular language. The official language of Indonesia is Bahasa Indonesia, but all the 34 provinces of Indonesia have 34 different languages, which sub-divided into more than 749 vernacular languages, which are spoken by more than 749 tribes in Indonesia (Dakan, 2010; Kirkpatrick, 2012; Muziatun, 2017; Steinhauer, 1994), one of these 749 languages is Gorontaloese. Gorontaloese is the local language, which is spoken by the tribes in the Gorontalo province, in the Sulawesi Island. It is located in the northern part of Sulawesi and it is popularly known as the Minahasa peninsula. This province includes four regencies with one large city as the capital of its regency.

While, at the present age, English is considered as a global language to most of non-English speaking countries that is known globally (Androutsopoulos, 2003, 2012; Blommaert, 2006, 2010, 2012; Chan, 2000; Daulton, 2003a, 2003b, 2004; Echandy, 2011; Muziatun, 2016, 2017; Stiglitz, 2007; Zhao & Liu, 2014). English also plays an important role as a major business language (Anderman & Rogers, 2005; Crystal, 2001, 2012; Hussey, 2013). Thus, it has an impact in every field of life and plays a role in every diplomatic affair.

Moreover, English considered the leading, global language in international discourse and the common denominator mediating all the other non-English natives (Androutsopoulos, 2003, 2012; Blommaert, 2006, 2010, 2012; Chan, 2000; Daulton, 2003a, 2003b, 2004; Echandy, 2011; Muziatun, 2016, 2017; Stiglitz, 2007; Zhao & Liu, 2014), is a West Germanic language that arose from England, but eventually spread into some parts of Europe (Romaine, 2010; Romaine & Algeo, 1992). It originated from a multitude of dialects, palpably influenced by Latin and French, among others. The Gorontaloese, on the other hand, is the Indonesian local language named after the local province it originates from. It is considered the official language of Bahasa Indonesia, at least in written form. The pronunciation, however, is another story. The way speech is uttered varies from region to region. Gorontaloese often make mistake in using or constructing English noun phrases, since the two languages are different in linguistic system, especially in the term of noun phrase construction.

Additionally, English has a lot of importance and is been taught as a secondary or foreign language worldwide, including Indonesia as a foreign language (Kirkpatrick, 2012; Muziatun, 2017; Nurweni & Read, 1999). Due to its popularity, English has created special interest for linguistics as to understand how different governments have taken different initiatives to introduce English in their curriculum, including in the field of linguistics, such as syntax, morphology, sociolinguistics, phonetics and phonology, semantics and pragmatics, psycholinguistic and neurolinguistics, as well as grammar and so forth. The main reason pertaining to this matter cannot be separated from the position of English as a second language (Graddol, 2003, 2006; Mushangwe, 2013).

This study used Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis (CAH) in analyzing the data. The process of second language acquisition is much more complex and intricate than just the issue of grammatical and structural differences between first language and second language. Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis (CAH) still plays certain important role in the process of second language acquisition. For example, through a contrastive analysis, learners will be aware of things or aspects existing in first both language and second language, or things exist in first language but do not exist in second language. This awareness will help their acquisition of second language.

By the same token, the English learners whose mother tongue is Gorontaloese also experienced the same obstacles to learning English as their target language. As a general truth, in learning a new language, mistakes are absolutely necessary to improve the ability of the target language acquisition. The more students realize the errors, the better ability to correct the errors in using the target language further. Furthermore, they realize that making mistakes will improve their ability in studying and understanding the target language properly. In addition, where structure of first language and second language coincide formally and semantically, the learning process will be easier, and where they differ, the learning process will be inhibited. The learner's knowledge of the source language or first language affects the learning of the target language or second language.

In teaching and learning language, the errors made by learners are providing insights for teachers (Salehuddin, Hua, & Maros, 2006; Tanaka-Ellis, 2017). So that, the core of language learning is examining the errors. This is one of the underpinning assumptions of how important an analysis on first language.

It has become a common thing that when language learners use their target language to communicate, they will feel more difficult than to communicate using their native language. They made mistakes, which will be more complex when they are transferring ideas from their native language to their target language. Therefore, in the classroom, it will be better to look for ways in order to maximize the use of the target language. So that, they will become more familiar with the target language that they are learning.

Research about comparison of noun phrase between two languages has become an interest of researches to conduct, especially if those two languages are quite distinct in all aspects of linguistic, such as phonology, morphologically, syntactically, semantically, and so forth. However, study on comparison of English and Gorontaloese is none. The comparison is expected to help the English learners whose mother tongue is Gorontalo. This study is conducted to facilitate it by conducting a research that shows such comparison.

The contrastive analysis on this syntactical aspect of the two languages is considered important since parts of the errors Gorontaloese learners produce in English; spoken or written; have something to do with noun phrase in which English noun phrase constructions their produce are those of Gorontaloese. For example, Gorontaloese learners of English will likely produce a sentence orally such as: *“My father has car beautiful”*, instead of *“My father has a beautiful car”*. It is because in Gorontaloese, the correct form of *“My father has a beautiful car”* is *“Ti papa laatiya o oto gaga”*.

*“Ti papa laatiya o oto gaga”*.

*“My father has car beautiful”*

[Trans.] *“My father has a beautiful car”*

and in written sentence such as: *“He is a doctor good”*, instead of *“He is a good doctor”*. It is because the correct form of saying *“He is a good doctor”* in Gorontaloese is *“taliito boyito dokuteri gaga”*.

*“Taliito boyito dokuteri gaga”*.

*He doctor good*

[Trans.] *“He is a good doctor”*.

Analyzed linguistically, these errors are most likely attributed to the interference of first language, in the case of Gorontaloese, in which noun phrase construction is head plus modifiers. It was one of the research findings. This finding contributes to the evidence in which two languages are quite distinct in all aspects of linguistics. Some literatures will be reviewed in the next section, following methodology section. Finding and discussion will be presented later, as well as conclusion and implications.

## 2. Literature review

### 2.1 Noun phrase defined

In constructing a sentence, a single word is often insufficient, when trying to convey a complete, detailed thought, hence the necessity of using other figures of speech such as adjectives and adverbs. By itself, a single word, in the form of a noun, may be a tad too one-dimensional, even bordering on ambiguous, when trying to convey a thought. Nouns, in English, are traditionally described as naming “persons, places, things, and ideas” (Abney, 1987; Lees, 1961). Thus, in order to supply the reference needed for a sentence to be complete, it is important to add words that will specifically describe a certain object, or for this matter, a noun. This is how phrases are formed. A phrase is essentially a group of two or more grammatically linked words without a subject and a predicate (Bloomfield, 1926; Di Sciullo & Williams, 1987). Thus, it may function as a noun, verb, adverb or an adjective.

A noun phrase, in simple grammar terms, consists of a noun with any associated modifiers, including adjectives, singular or in the form of phrases, and other nouns (Hawkins, 2015). Just like nouns, a noun phrase can act as the subject, the object of a verb, as object complement, or object of the preposition. It functions just like nouns, just in clusters of words. Interestingly, noun phrases that act as object of a verb or verbals can also form the nucleus of a noun phrase.

In simpler terms, a noun phrase is but a set of words with an incomplete thought whose center of attraction is a noun. It is most commonly preceded and modified by a determiner, then a pre-modification word in the form of adjective or an adjective phrase, and is, on most occasions capped off

by a post-modification that may take either the forms of phrase or clause. Essentially, these words modify the head of a noun phrase. This is what we have been accustomed to, particularly as it is used in English grammar.

## 2.2 English noun phrases

Some researchers (Abney, 1987; Bender, Flickinger, & Oepen, 2002; Chatterjee, Goyal, & Naithani, 2005; Lees, 1961) stated that English noun phrases are made of a noun or pronoun called head of noun phrase. Furthermore, a traditional principles and parameters framework provided by Chomsky in Coene (2003) mentioned that noun phrase is a word group that includes a noun and its modifiers. The noun can be preceded by determiners (such as *the, a, her*) and followed by complements.

In addition, according to Chatterjee et al. (2005), the head can be explained or modified by the following constituents;

1. Determiner, for example: *the man, a man, this cat, all cats*;
2. Adjectives and participles such as, *tall man, abandoned building*. This adjective and participle are called premodifier;
3. Prepositional phrases and to infinitives, for examples: *the car on the road, a pilot to fly the plane*.

Zabala (2004) provided an example of English noun phrase. The example is “*the pear tree from which the guy is picking the pears*”. This example consists of determiner such as *the*, a pre-modifier such as *pear*, a head noun such as *tree*, and a post modifier *from which the guy is picking pears*.

## 2.3 Gorontalonese noun phrases

As mentioned before, one of the major limitations of this research is the lack of sources analyzing grammatical structures of Gorontalonese. The only source where the discussion about noun phrases is found is a book written by Pateda (1999). Pateda (1999) divided Gorontalonese noun phrases into 19 types of constructions. These 19 types of noun phrases constructions are arranged by the combinations of word classes Pateda (1999). However, some of the constructions he suggested negate the concept of noun phrases accepted in linguistic field in general. In this analysis, only those constructions complying with those general rule which are taken. They are as follow:

### **Noun type**

This type of noun phrase usually appears when the speaker answers a question from another speaker. After someone asking about something, the other speaker will answer the question by using noun phrase (Pateda, 1999).

Example:

Question: “Wolo u pe itali li Bapu?”

[Trans.] “What do you want me to buy Grandfather?”

Answer: “Hula”  
“Sugar”

In the examples above, *hula* ‘sugar’ is categorized into noun. In this case, noun phrase will appear if the speaker asking the explanation of a noun that has mention in the question before. In some cases, the answer will not always be a noun. It could be another word classes, such as a verb, an adjective, an adverbial, a possessive pronoun, and a demonstrative pronoun.

### **Noun + conjunction + noun type**

This type of noun phrase consists of noun that follows by conjunction and other noun.

Example:

Pale wau binde

*Rice and corn*

### **Pronoun + conjunction + pronoun type**

This form of noun phrase has three main elements. They are pronoun, followed by conjunction and another pronoun.

Example:

Waatia wau tio

*Me and you*

**Verb + conjunction + verb type**

It consists of verb, conjunction and followed by other verb.

Example:

- Modungohu wau moka raja

*Listening and working*

- Mongilu mealo monga

*Drinking or eating*

The characteristic of this type of noun phrase is the verb and the conjunction. The verbs are always gerunds and the conjunctions are always wau means 'and', and mealo and meambo mean 'or'.

**Noun + Numeral Type**

It contains of noun and numeral. If the noun is followed by cardinal number, then mohelu should be added between noun and that cardinal number. Mohelu means 'as many as'. It is optional.

Example:

Bongo (mohelu) limo → (Limo is a cardinal number).

*Five coconuts*

However, if the noun is followed by numeral auxiliaries, then mohelu should not be added.

Example:

Bongo mohelu limo lo ayu → Wrong form; (ayu is a numeral auxiliary)

*Five coconut stems*

The correct form should be:

Bongo limo lo ayu → Correct form

*Five coconut stems (without mohelu)*

Furthermore, if the cardinal number is followed by numeral auxiliary, definite article lo have to be required in the sentence between them. This form is applied only for number five, seven, eight, and nine, which are called in Gorontaloese as limo, pitu, walu, and tio, respectively.

Example:

- Patode limo lo putu

- Pale walu lo kado

- Limu pitu lo tayadu

- *Five piece of sugar cane*

*Eight bales of rice*

*Seven parts of orange*

**Noun + adjective + demonstrative type**

The adjective used in this type of noun phrase is a kind of adjective derivative.

Example:

Bongo molanggata boito

*That high coconut tree*

**Noun + adjective type**

It has two elements, noun and adjective. Adjective in this type is always adjective derivative. Between these two elements, there should be a conjunction u, which means 'that'.

Example:

Sapi meela = Sapi u meela → same meaning

*Red cow*

*Red cow*

**Adjective type**

It consists of one word class only, which is an adjective. This kind of noun phrase occurs if the speaker answering for a question. This phrase is usually beginning with a conjunction u, which means 'that'. If the adjective related with human, then a conjunction ta, which means 'who' is required.

Example of u:

Question: "Si'i mongola u utohilaamu?"

[Trans.] "Which motif do you like?"

Answer: "U wahu'ende"

[Trans.] "The blue one"

Example of ta:

Question: "Ta woloolo ta lomate olio?"

[Trans.] "Who did hit her/him?"

Answer: "Ta haya-hayao"

[Trans.] "The tallest one"

**Noun + noun type**

Sometimes this type of phrase contains of a possessive pronoun; such as uolo, which means 'property'. Uolo can be changed into woli and uolilei, which means 'hers', uole and uolemei, which means 'his'. All of them – uolo, woli, uolilei, uole, and uolemei, are possessive pronouns.

Example:

- Sapi uole Dula	- Bongo uolemei Kada	- Kabaya uolilei Ija
Dula's cow	Mr. Kada's coconut	Mrs. Ija's dress

**Demonstrative pronoun + preposition + noun type**

Types of demonstrative pronouns used in this case are mai, which means 'here', ma'o, mota and mola, which mean 'there'. Whereas, the prepositions used are to, which means 'at', 'in' and 'on'.

Example:

Mai to Jawa = Ma'o to Jawa = Mota to Jawa = Mola to Jawa

[Trans.] *In Java* (all sentences above have similar meaning)

Noun + Words used to replace some standard of measurements + Demonstrative

Example:

Waawohu ngowua'ata boito

[Trans.] That bamboo cluster

**2.4 Contrastive analysis**

Broadly speaking, contrastive analysis is a general term that refers to the linguistic approach to analyse the data using typical elements of language (Ekah, 2018; Kardalesja, 2006; Mushangwe, 2013). Furthermore, Kardalesja (2006) added that contrastive analysis from both languages; first language and second language; always refers to the specific characteristics. These specific characteristics are associated with both language systems, which is believed to be useful in the anticipation of possible difficulties encountered in second language learning; in which one of the difficulties associated with the interference of the mother tongue or first language. On the other hand, contrastive analysis plays important role in facilitating learner-acquiring second language.

The main point of contrastive analysis is that this approach is very effective to compare and analyze the structure of two different languages with different aspects of estimating both of the language systems regardless of the element of genetic affinity (Geethakumary, 2002). Geethakumary (2002) in his study also provides an explanation of contrastive linguistics, which has a meaning that "a sub discipline of linguistics concerned with the comparison of two or more languages or subsystems of languages in order to determine both the differences and similarities between them".

A simple contrastive analysis shall be used to decisively find out the notable nuances between the two languages. This framework has already been regarded as main pillars in the domain of foreign language acquisition including for Indonesians. Kardalesja (2006) describes it as an inductive investigative approach based on the distinctive elements of language.

In principle, contrastive analysis is needed to minimize the influence of mother tongue in relation to second language acquisition, especially phonology, morphology and syntax. The differences obtained after analyzing can be used to predict the errors that may be made by second language learners.

**2.5 Related past studies**

Many theories in English suggests that there are several researchers conducted on noun phrase (Abney, 1987; De Haan, 1989; Lees, 1961). While on the other hand, there has been only one expert regarding the construction of Gorontaloese noun phrases (Pateda, 1999), contradicts with English. Moreover, the published analysis on the grammatical structure of Gorontaloese is only that written by Prof. DR. Mansoer Pateda (2002; 1999).

A study of syntactical features of Chinese and English noun phrase in 2004 has been conducted by Alice Y.W Chan. The main purpose of Chan's study was to determine more clearly the differences and similarities between Chinese and English noun phrases that she believes as the main factor causing the most common problem for Chinese ESL learners in Hong Kong. Their English scores have fallen so drastically. The main factor, which becomes Chan's research background, was an assumption, which

says that the English noun phrase is the biggest problem for the Chinese ESL learners in Hong Kong. In this study, Chan used syntactic features of the two languages; China and English, in analyzing the data. The syntactic features of these languages include syntactic features of similarity and difference of both languages. This study also tried to determine the source of the problem occurred and find as well as offer the appropriate learning systems in teaching and learning ESL in Hong Kong. In a sense, Chan through her research want to improve the ESL teaching in Hong Kong.

Moreover, there was a study related to the semantic structure and lexical meaning of the noun phrase between two different languages, Persian and English. This research was conducted by Tajaddodi (2001) with the title "A contrastive analysis of noun phrases in English and Persian within the framework of Fillmore's case theory." Tajaddodi argued that although the two languages are very different in the syntactic exponent aspect, but both languages have similarity in the active aspects of language. As a language that has a character of pro-drop language, Persian in relation to variation of preposition as dative or genitive subjects also has some similarity with English. Tajaddodi concluded that Persian and English have the same surface structure in relation to aspects of the nominative accusative and genitive, but have the differences in relation with the deep case.

In 2000, Karine Megerdoomian conducted a study of Persian, which discuss about constituents forming, the syntax and the structure of the noun phrase of its language. In this study, Megerdoomian was using all information about lexical and morphological to determine the boundaries of the noun phrase. Displayed data in this study was some complex Persian noun phrases, which generally consist of two or more simple noun phrases. Complex noun phrase were created by using recursive rules, which implies that this rule will arise when a noun phrase structure is followed by a noun phrase structure attributes, such as Persian tend to say women beautiful than beautiful women instead.

There is also a study related to the noun phrase associated with phonetics, phonology, and morphology. This study was conducted by Joo-kyeong Lee in 2008. Lee's research was entitled "Accentual patterns of English noun phrases and compounds: native speakers vs. Korean speakers of English". The core of the study was to investigate the accentual pattern of English compound and noun phrases of Korean speaker of English. He wanted to prove whether or not accentual patterns between native speakers of English and Korean have some differences or similarities through phonetic experiment. The way to examine the data that he used in his research is by examining the pitch accent patterns implemented in English compound and noun phrases contour intonation. As the data of the research, he collected 36 dissimilar compounds and 36 dissimilar noun phrases, which were integrated in carrier sentences, were explored. These noun phrases were also having varied position within the sentence. As a result, Lee (2008) found out that there were 36 different compounds and noun phrases and they were varied in position within a sentence.

### 3. Methodology of research

This study is a case study with qualitative method. The data provided an evidence about similarities and dissimilarities between noun phrases of both Gorontaloese and English. The data has been excerpted from written document, report, cards, letters, newspapers and textbooks of both Gorontaloese and English. For Gorontaloese data source, Children' books about Gorontaloese folklore and folkloric became the main sources. Gorontaloese folklore and folkloric are very popular in teaching Gorontaloese to young children in Gorontalo, and it is the main reason why the data of this research has been taken from that kind of sources.

The noun phrase constructing the modifiers, either premodifiers or postmodifiers, of both Gorontaloese and English noun phrases was considered. The word order structures were the main concerned. In collecting the data, the sentences which contain noun phrases from the designated sources were examined. Those noun phrases were then highlighted. They were classified into their own classes and types based on the theory presented.

### 4. Findings and discussion

It is now considered that the English language is the *lingua franca* in all parts of the world, the main language bridging the cultural gaps of all the participating countries in the global market, albeit not the most natively spoken language. The body of rules in using the English language, in both written and spoken form, despite seemingly being the benchmark of all other languages, however, is not

standard. Grammar is a very complex subject. It is as a matter of fact context specific, varying from one language to another.

Several theorists (Bender et al., 2002) have claimed that cross-linguistically, the same grammar rules apply. Chomsky, among other linguistics theorists, has maintained that much of grammar, or the body of knowledge possessed by language speakers, is inherent. The parochial features of native languages are developed and learned through the years. This fraction, claimed by Chomsky as the innate body of linguistic knowledge, is termed universal grammar. Basically, theories on universal grammar, postulate that all languages, whether as popular as English or as low-key as Gorontalonese, are built upon a common grammar. Linguistic universals do not necessarily apply to basic structuring or syntax issues on grammar, but a specific theory on the generalized phrase structure grammar, describing the general patterns among syntaxes and semantics of languages. It has a questionable, if not none, empirical basis. Universal grammar is altogether an entirely new topic but this framework can help compare the extreme languages of arguably the most basic language of English and the almost never-heard-of language, at least on the global level, of Gorontalonese: their similarities and dissimilarities and the questionable existence of the “innate” grammatical rules between these two languages.

Phrases, particularly, follow structure rules. The syntax of the phrase is circled to this set of rules. Every sentence is comprised of parts called phrasal categories and lexical categories. The lexical categories are also known as parts of speech. The noun phrase, among other types of phrases such as the verb phrase and prepositional phrase, comprise the phrasal categories.

In simple terms, the phrase structure usually follows the form  $A \rightarrow B C$ , meaning one of its lexical categories is separated from B and C. In every phrase, there is one constituent. In noun phrases, the constituent lexical unit is the head, which may either be a noun or a pronoun. This phrase structure applies not just on phrases, but also on sentences. To sum it all up, in sentences, it is  $S \rightarrow NP - VP$  or a noun phrase should be followed by a verb phrase. In noun phrases, it is  $NP \rightarrow \text{Determiner } N$  or the determiner should always come before a noun. The noun (or the head/N) can be further modified by adjective phrase before it and a prepositional phrase after it. It follows the structure:  $N_1 \rightarrow (AP) - N - (PP)$ . A classic example was devised by Chomsky to illustrate the basic phrasal rules of the English grammar. The sentence “Colorless green ideas sleep furiously,” for example follows the order Noun Phrase (NP) (Colorless green ideas) – Verb Phrase (VP) is “sleep furiously”. The Noun Phrase (NP) “colorless green ideas” can be further dissected into three parts. “Colorless” and “green” are either modifiers or adjectives and naturally they are placed before “ideas” or the head of the noun phrase. This is the core rule in English noun phrase.

The structure, first and foremost, being the most concrete aspect of language will first be taken into account. Any slight changes with the language structure can easily, instantly be noticed. However, there are instances when the changes in structure are only on the abstract level. They may look entirely the same, when literally translated, but may denote a different meaning.

On this note, Gorontalonese for this matter will be taken in its general Indonesian form. The Indonesian language, in general, is widely known for its rather peculiar, having English as the benchmark, construction of phrases. When literally translated in English, a noun phrase would actually pass for a verb phrase as in “makan malam” which is literally translated as “night eat”. Although “night eat” is not common, may pass for colloquial but never formal, when someone says or write “night eat”, one would instantly think of it as a verb phrase. The order of the words plays a pivotal role in the English language. In a compound verb-phrase, the verb always has to be the second word (i.e. shoe-shop, nail-bite, etc.). In the Indonesian language, “makan malam” can actually be interchanged as either a verb or a noun. In its popular usage, it actually means “dinner.”

This obvious alteration of structure is in fact one of the major issues regarding translation problems of Indonesian and English. Indonesian, when translated verbatim, may completely denote a completely different thought that what it really means. Take “Bahasa Indonesia” for instance; literally, “Bahasa Indonesia” translates to language Indonesian. The placement of modifier (in this case, Indonesian) in this example is in a sense questionable in the English grammar. In English, it is more grammatically apt to call it “Indonesian language.” English noun phrases follow the pattern of modifier; object being modified. It follows the pattern:

- 1.) Modifier, being the object being used to explain and;



2.) The object being explained, or the noun.

In Indonesia, the noun phrase follows the opposite pattern.

Even Indonesian sentences follow a different pattern. It follows the pattern: subject, verb, object or adjective, or adverb. A sentence basically consists of a noun phrase and then a verb phrase. Yet in many cases, this order is flexible. It can be put in various ways. This runs similarly with the English grammar, except that this pattern is strictly followed in the English grammar.

For example, the sentence: “Ibu ke pasar naik becak” runs similarly with the English sentence structure Noun Phrase – Verb Phrase. The sentence literally translates to “Uncle went to Surabaya last night,” which basically follows the same structure. The sentence “Bibi di kebun”, however does not literally translate to “Aunt is in the garden.” The Indonesian sentence follows the pattern Noun Phrase – Adverbial Phrase, whereas its English translation still follows the Noun Phrase – Verb Phrase pattern.

Gorontaloese noun phrases are essentially similar, structure-wise, with the more widely spoken Indonesian noun phrases. Provided in the examples in the appendix are the different structure forms of simple Gorontaloese noun phrases such as:

- 1.) *Nomina + Nomina* (Noun + Noun);
- 2.) *Nomina + Adjektiva* (Noun + Adjective); and
- 3.) *Nomina + Numeralia* (Noun + Numeral).

In English grammar, the modifying figure of speech (could take the form of a noun, adjective or a numeral) always comes first. It is the other way around in Gorontaloese language.

To further elaborate on this rather peculiar pattern, several examples will be provided. The simple Gorontaloese phrase “bele dupi” for instance which translates to the more widely-spoken Indonesian as “rumah papan” is literally translated a “house board.” As it is used in the Gorontaloese statement “Te Aamiri lomongu bele dupi” and in the Indonesian statement “Si Amir membangun rumah papan,” it means (in English) “Amir builds a clapboard house.” In English noun phrases, the noun being modified always comes last. In this case, wherein the modifier is also a noun, the noun modifier always comes first. Other examples include “bele seni” (literally “house zinc”, but really “zinc house” when properly translated), “taluhu dehetu” (literally “water sea”, but pertains to “sea water”), “kadera hutia” (literally “chair rattan”, but pertains to “rattan chair”) and, “kadera ayu” (literally “chair wood”, but pertains to “wooden chair”).

The phrases “Wala’o malu’o” (chick/young chicken), “Wala’o Sapi” (calf/young cow), and “Wala’batade” (kid/young goat), on the other hand, follow the typical modifier; modified pattern in the English grammar. It can also be noticed that some simple non-phrases in Gorontaloese such as “Wala’o malu’o”, “Wala’o Sapi”, and “Wala’batade”, which respectively mean chick, calf, and kid in English. They can be translated into singular nouns in English. This goes to show that the English language, through the years, has been thoroughly expanded. Or put it simple, the English vocabulary is vast. Down to the most specific of things such as “young chicken” (chick), “young cow” (calf), and “young goat” (kid), the English vocabulary has it. On the contrary, Gorontaloese and Indonesian do not. Perhaps this has something to do with the English language being more widely spoken, and thus more likely to have a more encompassing vocabulary.

Other examples of Gorontaloese noun phrase that more or less run similarly with the aforementioned observed pattern are “dungito olobu” or literally “tooth buffalo”, but pertains to “buffalo tooth”, “o’ato wadala”(literally “foot horse” but pertains to “horse foot”), “olu’u’tau” (literally “hand person”, but pertains to “person’s hand”), “tulidi pangimba” (literally “snake ricefield”, but pertains to “paddy-field snake” , “yinulo bongo” (literally “oil coconut”, but pertains to “coconut oil”, “peambolo bele” (literally “terrace home”, but pertains to “home terrace”), and “lipu Hulontalo”(literally “country Gorontalo”, but pertains to “Gorontalo country”) among others. When translated literally, these phrases follow the modified – modifier pattern.

For the *Nomina + Adjektiva* (Noun + Adjective) form, the same pattern (modified, in this case the noun; modifier, in this case the adjective). Examples of Gorontaloese noun phrases essentially describing a house for instance are: “bele bohui” (literally “home new”, but pertains to “new house”), “bele damango” (literally “home large”, but pertains to “large house”), and “bele muloolo” (literally “home old”, but pertains to “old house”). This pattern practically applies to every Noun + Adjective. Other examples would include Gorontaloese phrases “apula biongo” (appropriately translates to “crazy dog”), “kameja moputi’o” (appropriately translates to “white shirt”), “talala moitomo”

(appropriately translates to “black pants”), and “*putito mohutodu*” (appropriately translates to “rotten egg”). Compared with the English language, the structure of the Gorontaloese noun phrase is the other way around. It is essentially similar, structure-wise, with Indonesian. “*Dalala Meepito*” also follows the same structure pattern in Indonesian as “*jalan sempit*” (in English, it literally translates to “road narrow”). It is a basic rule in the English that the adjective must always come before the noun it modifies. In the English, it should be “narrow road” and not “road narrow.” The latter is considered unacceptable in English grammar. It does not convey a thought, at all, as in the cases of the literal translations of Gorontaloese noun phrases such as: “*langge meenggo*” (jackfruit young/immature), “*ileengi motanggalo*” (garden wide), “*bo’o beresi*” (clothing clean), “*palipa mokotoro*” (sarong dirty), and “*nanati molutu*” (pineapple ripe).

In the cases of “*malu’o teelo*” (hen), “*malu’o bangge*” (rooster), “*wadala bilango*” (mare), “*wadala la’l*” (stallion), the Gorontaloese noun phrases can be translated into single nouns in the English language. This goes to show, repeatedly, that the English vocabulary is far more encompassing than Gorontaloese, for obvious reasons that there is a greater necessity for the English language to cover and take in the most specific of things, actions, and descriptions.

As for noun phrases that take the form *nomina + numeralia* (noun + numeral), basically the same structure follows. Whether the numeral is a cardinal (denoting quantity) or an ordinal (denoting order), or perhaps multiplicative (denoting the number of repetitions), as long as the numeral is used as an adjective modifying the noun, the same order (modifier-modified) follows.

This opposes the English grammar. For instance, the noun phrase “*pingge ngoduusingi*”, in English is literally translated as “plates one dozen.” In this noun phrase, “plates” is the noun or the object being modified and “one dozen” is the numeral adjective denoting the quantity or how many plates there are. However, this rule does not always follow. “*Timi’idu bele*”, for instance, translates literally to “each house” or “every house” in English grammar but the apt way of putting it.

For longer Gorontaloese noun phrases, it is an utterly different case. It has a more complex structure. Also, the structure is hardly consistent. “*Bu’olohemomo’o to botu patihu*” (literally “waves breaking on the rocks”), for example, is grammatically correct relative to the English grammar. The set of accompanying modifiers (the verbal “breaking on the rocks”) is rightfully placed after the noun. Also, the simple noun phrase “*ti kaka woli taata*” (literally meaning “older male and ballooning women”) also follows all modifies to the right basic direction of modification in the English grammar.

Not just adjectives, but also determiners usually are placed after the head or the noun being modified. “*Pombangaa botiye*” (or in Indonesian “*tebing ini*”) is “cliff this” in English. It is not different from the noun phrase “*tangguli mongoliyo*”, which means “names their” in English. The same modified – modifier rule applies, even when the modifiers take the form of a determiner.

As far as the elements go, there practically is an innate similarity between Gorontaloese and English. However, on most occasions, there are dissimilarities when it comes to syntax and structure. The noun phrase “*Bungo lo ayu damango to penthadu boyito*,” for instance is “tree large on the edge beach” when translated word per word. It follows the peculiar modified – modifier order as the noun + adjective form. “Tree large on the edge beach” is ungrammatical in English. It should follow the syntax “large trees on the beach” or “large trees on the edge of the beach” for it to be correct.

Among the other countless of phrases that have an atypical syntax, “*bungo lo ayu moombungo*”, literally meaning “wood tree leafy” is quite notable. It can be observed that the adjectives in this phrase “wood” and “leafy” are respectively placed at the beginning and at the end of the phrase. Normally in Gorontaloese, the modifier (adjective) comes after the modified (noun). In this particular example, the noun (“tree”) is placed between the two adjectives. But then again, perhaps “wood” in this particular example is taken as a noun synonymous or adding emphasis to the already mentioned noun, which is tree. In English, the only way for it to be grammatical is to put the noun at the end of every simple noun phrase like such, depending on the level of importance of the adjective. If wood is taken as an adjective, it should be “leafy wooden tree.”

## 5. Conclusion

Now that the world is in a globalized setting, whereas the value of cosmopolitanism or that one common culture is valued above all things, it cannot be avoided that English is now being considered the benchmark of Grammar, since English has practically become the medium of global diplomacy.

Language is culture and culture is language. Language is easily the most explicit expression of culture. Common language and culture facilitate trade between people.

There is evidence from this study, which shows that it is correct that the structure of noun phrase of English and Gorontaloese is different. The longer Gorontaloese noun phrases are the more peculiar is its ordering. Suffice it to say, the Gorontaloese is more loose when it comes to the syntax and structure of noun phrases, as compared with the English syntax which is, in a nutshell, more rigid. What the Gorontaloese seems to lack, or at least not palpably implied, is that based on the ordering of what constitutes a Gorontaloese noun phrase modifications are not established as a kind of dependency. Based from the examples given, the modifiers are all over the place.

Despite the differences between ordering and arrangement of the constituents of noun phrases in English and Gorontaloese, what is important among native speakers of this language is that there is a common understanding among its people. As a rarely researched topic, these difference structures of noun phrase of English and Gorontaloese could cause some confusion to the Gorontaloese students who learn English. These differences might help the Gorontaloese learners of English in understanding the concept of noun phrase.

## 6. Implications

The information obtained can be profitably used in language teaching, translation, language testing, stylistics, etc. It is expected to have the benefit directly not only practical language teachers, but also equally those interested in linguistic theory and practice.

Other Expectations also, the result of this research will be useful in enriching data collection in fields of linguistic study and will be useful as data source for other researchers in conducting further research on the future. As linguistic always develops from time to time just like any other field, the data founded from recent researches will be very important to support their works.

The final product, it is hoped will also add to linguistic theory and practice in this field and that the results of the work will provide further insight in to the linguistic structure of the two languages.

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