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A Contrastive Analysis of Indirect Passive Sentences of Japanese Language and Sundanese Passive Sentences

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ABSTRACT

Indirect passive sentences, especially those with intransitive verb predicates, are complicated for Japanese language (JL) learners in Indonesia to understand because they cannot be combined into Indonesian language (IL) passive sentences. Contrastive research between passive JL and Sundanese language (SL) is one effort to overcome this problem because most JL learners in West Java speak SL as their mother tongue. The results of data analysis show that several types of intransitive passives can be combined with SL passive sentences, namely (a) the JU-I type passive is equivalent to the *ke-N-an* construction; (b) passive types JU-II and JU-IV corresponding to the *ditingalkeun-V-intr* construction; and (c) passive type JU-VII corresponding to *dipang-V-intr-keun* construction. The differences include: (1) the *ke-N-an* construction does not always contain an adversative meaning, but can also express a neutral meaning or a beneficial meaning (*onkei*), and (2) the verbs used to fill in the *ditingalkeun-V-intr* construction are limited to verbs that contain a negative meaning.

**Keywords:** Direct passive; Indirect passive; Ka-N-an construction; Dipang-V-intr-keun construction

1. Introduction

Japanese language (JL) passive sentences are one of the materials considered difficult by JL students in Indonesia because they are very different from the passive sentences in the Indonesian language (IL). JL’s passive voice is considered unique because it contains a direct passive (*chokusetsu judoubun*), an
indirect passive (kansetsu judoubun), a neutral passive (chuuritsuteki judoubun), and an adversative passive (meiwaku judoubun).

Direct passive is a passive sentence whose subject comes from the argument or object of the active sentence, either in the form of a direct object or indirect object (complement). Meanwhile, indirect passive is a passive sentence whose subject does not come from the argument of the active sentence but comes from outside.

JL’s direct passive voice is generally used to express neutral or impartial meaning, while indirect passive is used to express adversative meaning (mei-waku/higai). Direct passive predicates can be filled with transitive or ditransitive verbs, while indirect passive predicates can be filled with transitive, ditransitive, and intransitive verbs. Direct passives can generally be combined with passives with a di-V construction in Indonesian (IL), while indirect passives generally cannot be combined with IL passive sentences (Sutedi, 2012, 2013, 2015). Therefore, JL students, especially Indonesians, will have difficulty understanding indirect passive sentences in JL.

One of the most striking differences is that in JL, there is an indirect passive (kansetsu judoubun) with an intransitive verb predicate. Meanwhile, in IL, no passive sentences use intransitive verb predicates because, in IL sentences, all passive sentences come from transitive and ditransitive sentences. JL’s direct passive can generally be matched with the di-V construction in IL, so it is not difficult for students to understand. However, they find it challenging to understand indirect passive sentences, especially those with intransitive verb predicates, because they cannot be combined into IL passive sentences.

However, there are several types of indirect passive sentences whose intransitive verb predicates in JL are predicted to be combined into Sundanese passive sentences (SL). For example, passive sentence (1) cannot be combined with passive sentence IL, but it is equivalent to passive sentence SL, as in example (2) below.

(1) Watashi wa kodomo ni nak-are-ta. (JL passive)
I-NP1 child-NP2 cry-pass-past.

I’m troubled because the child is crying.

(2) Kuring dipang-ceuri-keun ku budak. (SL passive)
I-NP1 dipang-cry-keun by child-NP2.
I’m troubled because the child is crying.

Sentence (1) above, both in meaning and nuance, is almost exactly the same as example (2) in SL. This shows that the intransitive passive (1) in JL corresponds to the dipang-V-intr-keun construction in SL. There are still several other types of JL intransitive passives that are equivalent to SL passive sentences. This will help JL students in Indonesia, especially in West Java because most JL students in West Java generally speak SL as their mother tongue.

2. Literature review and the present study

The problem of JL’s passive sentences has been widely studied by previous researchers such as Tera-mura (1982), Kuno (1983), Takami (1995, 2011), and Nitta, et al. (1995) with a different study angle. Tera-mura (1982) classifies them based on their construction into two types, namely direct passive (chokusetsu judoubun) and indirect passive (kansetsu judoubun). Nitta, et al. (1995) classifies it into three large parts, namely: (a) direct passive (chokusetsu ukemibun), (b) passive possessive (mochinushi no ukemibun), and (c) indirect passive (kansetsu ukemibun). Here Nita, et al. (2009) separate passive possessive from indirect passive. The following are examples of the three types of passive JL.

(3) Suzuki wa Satou ni nagur-are-ta. (direct passive)
Suzuki-NP1 Sato-NP2 hit-pass-past.
Suzuki was hit (by) Sato.

(4) Watashi wa haha ni raburetaa wo yom-are-ta. (passive possession)
I-NP1 mother-NP2 love letter-NP3 read-pass-past.
My love letter was read by mother.

(5) Watashi wa ame ni fur-are-ta. (indirect passive)
I-NP1 rain-NP2 fall-pass-past.
I got caught in the rain.

(6) Watashi wa kodomo ni nak-are-ta. (indirect passive)
I-NP1 child-NP2 cry-pass-past.
I am troubled/suffering, because the child is crying.

Example (3) is a direct passive sentence whose subject comes from the object of the active sentence. Direct passive sentence predicates can be filled with transitive verbs and intransitive verbs, so that the subject can come from a direct object or an indirect object (complementary). This passive sentence expresses a neutral meaning (chuuritsu), because there is no bias from the speaker. This passive can be compared with the passive which has the di-V construction in IL.

Example (4) is a possessive passive, where the subject is a combination of NP3 and NP1 into one argument, the predicate is a transitive verb. This passive is used to express an adversative meaning (meiwaku/higai), meaning that the subject (watashi) becomes an adversative experiencer when the mother reads her love letter. Passives like this can also be combined with passive sentences with a di-V construction in IL.

Examples (5) and (6) are indirect passives whose predicates are filled with intransitive verbs. Example (5) can still be combined with the passive construction ke-|-an in IL, while example (6) cannot be combined with the IL passive sentence. Instead, it must be combined into an active sentence accompanied by words that express an adversative meaning such as the words repot [busy], menderita [suffer], menyesal [regret], and the like. This type of passive will be revealed in this paper, because example (6) above is predicted to be able to be combined into a SL passive construction as follows.

(7) Kuring dipang-ceurik-keun ku budak. (SL passive)
   saya-NP1 tangis-pass oleh anak-NP2
   I am troubled/suffering, because the child is crying.

The SL passive predicate above (7) is an intransitive verb used to express adversative meaning, so it has similarities to the indirect passive in JL. The child’s activity (NP2) crying makes the subject (NP1) feel disturbed or suffer, so it is said to be an adversative experience.

Meanwhile, Kuno (1983) and Takami (1995, 2011) studied JL passive sentences from a functionalist linguistic perspective, giving birth to the terms neutral passive (chuuritsuteki ukemi) and adversative passive (meiwaku ukemi). This classification is based on the meaning content in JL’s passive sentences, neutral passives include passive sentences that do not contain adversative meaning in the subject, while adversative passives are passive sentences where the subject experiences disturbance or loss or suffers. Machida (2005) studied it from the perspective of Cognitive Linguistics, and there are many other researchers such as Fukuda (2006), Namai (2017), Aoyama (2023), and Hayashita and Ueyama (2023), Ueyama (2020), Kanda (2023) discuss it from other linguistic angles. Nakamaru (2023) contrasts it with the English passive sentence. Okutsu (1983) explains it from a pragmatic perspective, while Shibatani (1985) discusses passive sentences universally.

Many contrastive studies of JL passive and IL passive have been carried out, such as by Tanaka (1991), Sutedi (2006), Sarjani (2020), and Yusuf (2023), which are linked to teaching materials. As JL teaching material for Indonesians, Sutedi (2012, 2013, 2015) tries to create a new classification of JL passive sentences based on syntactic functions and categories and their semantic roles. Direct passives predicated on transitive verbs are divided into eight types, and direct passives predicated on ditransitive verbs are sorted into three types. Indirect passive sentences with transitive verb predicate are divided into two types, and those with ditransitive verb predicate have one type. Meanwhile, there are seven types of indirect passive sentences predicated with intransitive verbs. So, Sutedi’s (2012, 2013, 2015) classification of JL passive sentence types has 21 types.

Furthermore, Sutedi (2015) contrasted all types of JL passive sentences with IL passive sentences, both those with transitive, ditransitive and intransitive verbs. Here, JL’s direct passive sentences, both those predicated with transitive verbs and ditransitive verbs, are sorted into 11 types based on their function and syntactic category and semantic role, while indirect passive
sentences, both those predicated with transitive verbs, ditransitive verbs and intransitive verbs, are divided into 10 types. Of the 10 types of indirect passive sentences, there are seven types of passive sentences with intransitive verb predicates sorted based on the original construction of the active sentence. The seven types of intransitive passives are types JU-I ~ JU-VII, as in the following Table 1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type *</th>
<th>Intransitive Passive Sentence</th>
<th>Intransitive Active Sentence (Original Sentence)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| JU-I    | NP1-wa—NP2-ni—V-intr-ARERU.  
Watashi wa ame ni fur-areta.  
Ame ga fut-ta.  
Rain is falling. |                                                                 |
| JU-II   | NP1-wa—NP2-ni—V-intr-ARERU  
Watashi wa chichi ni shin-areta.  
Chichi ga shin-da.  
Father died. |                                                                 |
| JU-III  | NP1-wa—NP2-ni—NP3-ni—V-(IRARERU).  
Haha wa daidokoro ni nezumi ni ir-arete komatta.  
Daidokoro ni nezumi ga i-ta.  
There are mice in the kitchen. |                                                                 |
| JU-IV   | NP1-wa—NP2-ni—NP3-e—V-(IKARERU).  
Watashi wa tsu ma ni kaigai ni ik-areta.  
Tsuma wa kaigai ni it-ta.  
Wife went abroad. |                                                                 |
| JU-V    | Haha wa kodomo ni souji shita bakari no yuka wo aruk-areta.  
Kodomo ga souji shita bakari no yuka wo arui-ta.  
Children step on freshly mopped floors. |                                                                 |
| JU-VI   | NP1-wa—NP2-ni—NP3-ni—V-(NARARERU).  
Watashi wa musume ni moderu ni nar-areta.  
Musume wa moderu ni nat-ta.  
My daughter is becoming a model. |                                                                 |
| JU-VII  | NP1-wa—NP2-ni—V-intr-ARERU  
Watashi wa kodomo ni nak-areta.  
Kodomo ga nai-ta.  
The child is crying. |                                                                 |

Table 1. JL intransitive passive sentence structure.

**Note:** JU: jidoushi no ukemi (Intransitive Passive).

The passive sentence construction types JU-I, JU-II, and JU-VII come from the same intransitive sentence, namely NP-ga—V-intr. Here the author divides them into three types, namely JU-I, JU-II, and JU-VII based on the subcategories of subject and predicate fillers. The JU-I type comes from intransitive sentences that express natural events because the subject is filled with the word rain, which is a natural phenomenon. Then NP1 in the JU-I type passive sentence is filled with nouns in the form of humans as an adversative experience, NP2 is filled with nouns which express natural phenomena, namely rain and wind and the like, while the predicate is filled with intransitive verbs related to these natural phenomena, such as verbs furu ‘down’, fuku ‘blowing’ and the like.

JU-II is an intransitive passive sentence whose NP1 is filled by humans as an adversative experience. NP2 is filled by animate nouns. The predicate is filled by an intransitive verb which means the disappearance of NP1 from its usual place with NP2, for example the verb shinu ‘died’, yasumu ‘on holiday’, yameru ‘stop’, and the like.

JU-III is an intransitive passive sentence whose NP1 is filled by a human who also acts as an adversative experiencer. NP2 is filled by an animate noun. NP3 is filled by a noun that states a place, and the predicate is filled by a verb that states the existence of NP2 like a verb iru ‘there is’. The subject is said to be an adversative experiencer because he does not like or is afraid of the presence of mice in the kitchen.

JU-IV is an intransitive passive sentence where NP1 and NP2 are people, NP3 is the place to be, and the predicate is filled with an intransitive verb that expresses a change of location, such as the verb iku ‘go’, kaeru ‘go home’, and the like. The subject (NP1) was said to have an adversative experience because he felt troubled or suffered as a result of the
actions of NP2 (wife).

JU-V is an intransitive passive sentence which consists of three arguments, NP1 and NP2 are filled by animate nouns, NP3 is the place traveled (path/keiro), and the predicate is filled by an intransitive verb which expresses NP2 movement such as the verb hashiru ‘to run’, aruku ‘walk’, wataru ‘cross’, and the like. The subject (NP1) is said to be an adversative experiencer because he suffers or is disturbed by what NP2 does.

JU-VI is an intransitive passive sentence whose NP1 and NP2 are filled by humans, and the predicate is filled by the verb naru ‘to be’. JU-VII is an intransitive passive whose NP1 is filled by humans. NP2 is filled by animate nouns. The predicate is filled by intransitive verbs other than those used in the above-mentioned six types (JU-I~JU-VI). Subject (NP1) is considered an adversative experiencer because he does not like what NP2 experienced, namely being a model. In other words, the subject does not want his child to become a model.

The results of Sutedi’s (2015) research show that of the seven types of intransitive sentences above, only three types can be combined into IL passive sentences: type JU-I, type JU-II, and type JU-V. The JU-I type corresponds to the ke-N-an construction, the JU-II and JU-V types correspond to the diting-gal-V-intr construction in IL. Meanwhile, JU-III, JU-IV, JU-VI, and JU-VII cannot be combined into IL passive sentences, so students still have difficulty understanding these types of passive sentences.

Passivization in SL is almost the same as in IL, but the passive use of SL is much more productive than in IL. The passive form in SL is expressed using the di-V-tr construction, ka-V-tr construction, and ka-N-an (Sudaryat, et al., 2013). The di-V construction expresses a volitional (intentional) passive, the ka-V construction expresses an unintentional or non-volitional passive, and the ka-N-an construction is considered to express an adversative meaning.

Apart from that, there is another construction as a development of the di-V construction, namely the dipang-V-keun construction. The verbs to fill this construction can be transitive verbs and intransitive verbs. If this construction is filled with a transitive verb, it becomes dipang-V-tr-keun, used to express the benefactive passive or the same as the V-te morau construction in JL. However, if it is filled with an intransitive verb, it becomes dipang-V-intr-keun which is used to express an adversative passive. This is thought to have similarities with some of the indirect passives which are predicated of intransitive verbs in JL. Therefore, the paper attempts to describe these similarities.

3. Results and discussion

The contrastive analysis between the indirect passive predicated of the JL intransitive verb and the SL passive presented here refers to the seven types of JL intransitive passives in Table 1 above. The results of the data analysis reveal the following findings.

3.1 Passive Type ‘JU-I’ Corresponds to the Construction ‘ka-N-an’

JU-I type passive sentences are passive sentences related to natural events such as rain falling and the wind blowing which are considered to give rise to an adversative meaning in NP1. This type of passive corresponds to the ka-N-an construction in SL, as shown in the following example.

(8) Watashi wa ame ni fur-are-ta. (JU-I)
     I-NP1 rain-NP2 fall-pass-past.
     I got caught in the rain.
(9) Kuring ka-hujan-an. (ka-N-an)
     I-NP1 ka-rain-an
     I got caught in the rain.

The passive sentence in example (8) above is equivalent to the passive SL in example (9), and both express an adversative meaning. This means that NP1 acts as an adversative experiencer because it is disturbed by the rain. Another example is as follows.

(10) Kodomo tachi wa kaze ni fuk-are-ta. (JU-I)
    children-NP1 wind-NP2 expose-pass-past.
    Children are exposed to wind.
(11) Barudak ka-angin-an. (ka-N-an)
    children-NP1 ka-wind-an
    Children are exposed to wind.’
Sentence (10) is equivalent to sentence (11) without reducing the meaning. In short, the passive JU-I in JL can be matched with the ka-N-an construction in SL without changing the meaning. Thus, the structure of combining JU-I type passives into SL passives is as follow in Figure 1.

![Figure 1](image)

Figure 1. The structure of combining JU-I type passives into SL passives

There is a slight difference: the ka-N-an construction in SL does not always express an adversative meaning (meiwaku). However, some also have a neutral (chuuritsu) or beneficial (onkei) meaning, as shown in the following example.

(12) Patani galumira, sabab sawahna kahujanan.
    (ka-N-an)
farmers-NP1 happy, because fields-NP2 ka-rain-an
Farmers are happy, because their fields are getting rained on.
Tanbo wa ame ni fur-arete, noumin-tachi ga yorokonde iru. (Japanese)

In example (12) above, there is absolutely no adversative meaning in NP1 regarding the rain falling, in fact they are actually happy with the rain, because their rice fields can be irrigated.

### 3.2 Passive Type ‘JU-II’ Corresponds to the Construction ‘ditingalkeun-V-intr’

The JU-II type passive is a passive sentence whose predicate is filled with a verb that expresses the meaning of the disappearance of NP2 which is usually with NP1, such as the verb shinu ‘to die’, yasumu ‘on holiday’ and so on. This type of passive corresponds to the ditingalkeun-V-intr passive construction in SL.

(13) Hanako wa otto ni shin-are-ta. (JU-II)
Hanako-NP1 husban-NP2 die-pass-past
Hanako was left behind by her husband who died.

(14) Hanako ditingalkeun paeh ku salakina. (SL passive)
Hanako-NP1 ditingalkeun-die by husban-NP2
Hanako was left behind by her husband who died.

Example (13) above corresponds to the passive SL as in example (14) without the slightest change in meaning. The following example (15) is equivalent to the passive SL example (16).

(15) Watashi-tachi Yamada kyouju ni yamer-are-ta. (JU-II)
We-NP1 prof. Yamada-NP2 retire-ment-pass-past
We were left behind by Prof. Yamada who retired.

(16) Kuring sarera ditingalkeun pangsiun ku Prof. Yamada. (SL passive)
We-NP1    ditingalkeun-retirement  by prof. Yamada-NP2
We were left behind by Prof. Yamada who retired.

Prof. Yamada’s retirement incident in example (15) is a loss for NP1 because it loses people who are considered competent. This kind of meaning can be expressed in the same way in the passive sentence SL as in example (16). Thus, the structure of combining JU-II type passive sentences into SL passives is as follow in Figure 2.

![Figure 2](image)

Figure 2. The structure of combining JU-II type passives into SL passives

### 3.3 Passive Type JU-III Has No Equivalent

JU-III type passive sentences are passive sentences whose predicate is filled with the verb iru ‘there is’. This passive cannot be combined into a SL passive sentence, so it must be combined into an active sentence accompanied by an adverb that expresses an adversative meaning, such as suffering, dislike,
disappointment, and the like. Consider the following example.

(17) Watashi wa kodomo ni soba ni ir-are-te, nani mo dekinai. (JU-III)
I can't work, because my child is next to me.

In the example (17), the incident of the child (NP2) being next to NP1 is considered disturbing by NP1, so it is expressed in passive sentences in JL. Examples like this cannot be combined with SL passive sentences, so they can only be understood if combined with active sentences like the following.

(18) Kuring teu Bisa gawe, lantaran budak aya di sagedengeun. (SL: active)
saya-NP1 tak Bisa kerja, karena anak-NP2 ada-act di samping-NP3
‘Saya tidak Bisa bekerja karena anak berada di sampingku.’
‘I can’t work, because my child is next to me.’

Example (18) is the same event as example (17) which occurred in Sundanese.

Thus, the structure of matching JU-III type passives sentences into SL is as follow in Figure 3.

3.4 Pasif ‘Tipe JU-IV’ Corresponds to the Construction ‘ditingalkeun-V-intr’

JU-IV type passive sentences are passive sentences whose predicate is filled with verbs that express directional meaning such as the verb iku ‘go’, kaeru ‘go home’, nigeru ‘run away’ and the like. This passive is the same as type JU-II and can be paired with the passive sentence SL, which has the construction ditingalkeun-V-intr, as shown in examples (19) and (20) below.

(19) Hanako wa otto ni kaigai ni ik-are-ta. (JU-IV)
Hanako-NP1 husband-NP2 abroad-NP3 left-pass-past.
Hanako was left abroad by her husband.

(20) Hanako ditingalkeun indit ka luar nagri ku salakina.
Hanako-NP1 ditingalkeun-go abroad by husband-NP2.
Hanako was left abroad by her husband.

Examples (19) and (20) are the same occurrence in Sundanese and Japanese. Semantically, the typical passive sentence predicate filler verb of this type is the same as type JU-II, namely a verb that expresses the meaning of NP2 disappearing from its usual place along with NP1, so that the verb iku ‘go’ can be compared with the ditingalkeun-V-intr construction in SL. Thus, the structure of combining JU-IV type passive sentences into SL is as follow in Figure 4.

3.5 Passive Type ‘JU-V’ Has No Equivalent

JU-V type passive sentences are passive sentences whose predicates use verbs used in the ‘path-wo V-intr’ construction such as the verbs aruku ‘walk’, wataru ‘cross’, and the like. This type of passive also cannot be combined into a SL passive sentence, but must be combined into an active sentence.

(21) Haha wa soujishita bakari no yuka wo kodomo ni aruk-are-ta. (JU-V)
mother-NP1 floor-NP3 children-NP2 move-pass-past
Mother doesn’t like it because the children step on the newly mopped floor.

In the example above, the mother is mopping the floor, when she is finished the children come and step on the still wet floor. Therefore, the mother or someone who sees it expresses their disappointment or annoyance in an indirect passive sentence like the example (21) above. The example above is not in the passive SL, so it must be combined into an active
sentence accompanied by an adverb that expresses an adversative meaning such as the words teu suka ‘don’t like’, kuciw ‘disappointed’, ripuh ‘busy’, and the like. Example (21) above corresponds to the following SL active sentence (22).

(22) Ibu teu suka sabab barudak kalah laleump-ang di lantai meunang ngepel. 
iBu-NP1 tak suka, karena anak-NP2 ber-jalan-act, di lantai baru dipel.
‘Ibu doesn’t like it because the children step on the newly mopped floor.’

To express the adversative meaning in JL it is expressed in an indirect passive sentence, whereas in SL it is expressed in an active sentence which begins with the adverb ‘kalah’ (instead) in front of the verb. Thus, the structure of combining JU-V type passive sentences into SL is as follow in Figure 5.

3.6 Passive Type ‘JU-VI’ Has No Equivalent

The JU-VI type passive is a passive sentence whose predicate uses the verb naru ‘to be’, which cannot be combined into an SL passive sentence. The comparison can only be made into an active sentence accompanied by an adverb that expresses an adversative meaning, such as the words teu suka (dislike), kuciw (disappointed), ripuh (busy), and the like. Example (23) is equivalent to the SL active sentence example (24).

(23) Watashi wa musume ni moderu ni nar-are-ta. (KJ-6) 
I-NP1 daughter-NP1 model-NP3 become-pass-past.
I was disappointed, because my daughter became a model.

(24) Kuring kuciw, sabab budak awewe kalah jadi model. (SL: active)
the following example. Example (25) is equivalent to example (26) in Sundanese.

(26) Kuring dipang-ceurikeun ku budak. (SL passive)
I-NP1 dipang-cry-keun by child-NP2
I am troubled/suffering, because the child is crying.

Thus, the structure of combining JU-VII type passive sentences into SL passive sentences is as follow in Figure 7.

![Figure 7](image)

**Figure 7.** The structure of combining JU-VII type passives into SL passives

Below we will see how typical JL verbs can be combined into the dipang-V-intr-keun construction in SL. First, we will see whether there is a difference between intransitive verbs that express volitional (ishiteki dousa) and non-volitional (muishiteki dou-sa) actions, or not.

(27) Hanako wa otto ni uwaki-sareta.
Hanako-NP1 husband-NP2 have an affair-pass-past
Hanako is suffering because her husband is cheating on her.

(28) Ichih dipang-bangor-keun ku salakina.
Ichih-NP1 dipang-affair-keun by husband-NP2
Ichih is suffering because her husband is cheating on her.

The predicate in example (27) above is filled with the passive form of the verb uwaki-suru ‘having an affair’. In example (28), it is filled with the verb bangor ‘cheating’. These two verbs can be classified as volitional action verbs. This means that NP2 consciously or deliberately carried out this action, thereby harming or disturbing NP1. The two examples above are compatible with each other, because both express an adversative meaning. Apart from that, both verbs have negative nuances, meaning that the verb uwaki-suru ‘having an affair’ and the verb bangor ‘having an affair’ semantically contain a negative meaning (disliked). Thus, the dipang-V-intr-keun construction can be filled with transitive verbs that express volitional actions and have negative nuances. Next, let’s look at the following example.

(29) (Watashi wa) mae ni suwatte iru hito ni tat-are-te, mienaku natta.
I-NP1 sitting in front man-NP2 stand-pass-past didn’t be able to see
It can’t be seen, because the person sitting in front is standing.

(30) Teu kaciri, sabab kalah dipang-nangtung-keun ku jalma nu diuk di hareup.
It can’t be seen, dipang-stand-keun by orang di depan-NP2
It can’t be seen, because the person sitting in front is standing.

(31) Teu kaciri sabab jalma nu diuk di hareup kalah nangtung. (active)
‘Tidak kelihatan, karena orang yang duduk di depan malah berdiri.’
‘It can’t be seen, because the person sitting in front is standing.’

The verb tatsu ‘stand’ in JL can be used as a predicate of an adversative passive sentence as in example (29), while the verb nangtung ‘stand’ in SL cannot be used in the dipang-V-intr-keun construction even though it is a volitional action. To match example (30) into SL, it can only be done in an active sentence like example (31). This is because the meaning of the verb tatsu or nangtung has no negative nuance. Thus, it can be concluded that the dipang-V-intr-keun construction can only be filled by intransitive verbs expressing volitional actions with a negative nuance.

Second, we will see what happens with intransitive verbs that act non-volitionally in the following example.

(32) Kougi no toki, joshu ni akubi-sa-re-ta.
A lecture assistant by yawn-pass-past
When giving a lecture, I was disappointed because the assistant yawned.

(33) Waktu kuring ceramah, kalah dipang-heu-ay-keun ku asisten.
When I lecture dipang-yawn-keun by assistant
'Ketika saya ceramah, saya kecewa karena asisten malah menguap.'

‘When giving a lecture, I was disappointed because the assistant yawned.’

The predicates in the examples above each use the passive form of the verbs akubi-suru ‘to yawn’ (32) and heuay ‘to yawn’ (33). Both intransitive verbs express actions nonvolitionally. This type of verb can be used in the dipang-V-intr-keun construction because it can be considered a verb with negative nuances. In short, almost all verbs that express nonvolitional actions in SL with negative nuances can be used in the dipang-V-intr-keun construction.

Third, the condition verb (joutai-doushi) in SL can be used in passive sentences as follows.

(34) Udin ngarasa era, sabab dipang-menor-keun ku pamajikan na.
Udin-NP1 malu, sebab dipang-menor-keun oleh istrinya-NP2.
‘Udin felt embarrassed, because his wife (looked) eye-catching.’

(35) Udin kalah dipang-kucel-keun ku anaknya.
Udin-NP1 dipang-kucel-keun oleh anaknya-NP2
‘Udin felt embarrassed, because his child (looked) crumpled.’

The words menor and kucel in the example above in SL express a situation, both of which can be used in the dipang-V-intr-keun construction which also still expresses a situation. To express the intention as in example (34) above, it can be stated in the following passive sentence in JL.

(36) Watashi wa nyobou ni hade ni kesshou s-are-te iru.
I-NP1 wife-NP2 smaller-pass-asp.
‘I felt embarrassed, because my wife (looked) eye-catching.’

The meanings of sentences (34) and (35) both express a situation, but judging from the type of verb that fills the predicate, they are different. The verb kesshou-suru ‘dress up’ in JL is a volitional action verb. However, in example (36), it is presented as an aspect expressing the result of the action (dousa-kek-ka no joutai). Thus, verbs that express circumstances in SL can be used in the dipang-V-intr-keun construction.

5. Conclusions

From the discussion above, it can be concluded that among the types of JL indirect passives predicted with intransitive verbs, several types are equivalent to SL passive sentences. These passive types are:

(a) JU-I type passive corresponding to ke-N-an construction;

(b) passive types JU-II and JU-IV corresponding to the ditingalkeun-V-intr construction; and (c) passive type JU-VII corresponding to dipang-V-intr-keun construction.

Meanwhile, passive types JU-III, JU-V, and JU-VI cannot be combined into SL passive constructions but must be combined into active sentences accompanied by adverbs that express adversative meaning, such as the words kuciwa ‘disappointed’, teu suka ‘don’t like’, ripuh ‘busy’, and right in front of the verb is placed the adverb ‘kalah-V-intr’. This means that disappointment in JL is expressed in indirect passive sentences, whereas in SL it is expressed with active verbs starting with the word ‘kalah’ (instead).

Thus, the type of passive sentence with an intransitive verb predicate is not only in JL but also in SL. This shows that JL’s passive sentences, considered unique and special, are refuted by the results of the data analysis above. This means that passive sentences with intransitive verb predicate occur not only in JL but also in SL.

Several things differentiate the passive SL and passive JL constructions, including:

(1) the ke-N-an construction does not always contain an adversative meaning, but can also express a neutral meaning or a beneficial meaning (onkei); And

(2) the verbs used to fill in the ditingalkeun-V-intr construction are limited to verbs that contain a negative meaning.

The phenomena of JL and SL passive discussed here are all in line with the most prototypical passive characteristics universally proposed by Shibatani.
(1985), namely:
   a. Its pragmatic function is to hide the perpetrator (agent).
   b. The semantic characteristic is that it has two valences, namely the predicate: agent and patient, and the subject affected by the action.
   c. The syntactic characteristic is that the actor is not shown, the patient becomes the subject, and the valence of the predicate is one less than that of the active form.
   d. The morphological characteristic is that the passive form is more marked than the active form.

The results of this research need to be followed up with its application in teaching JL to Sundanese people so that later it will be known whether the results of this contrastive analysis can facilitate the understanding of JL students, especially regarding JL intransitive passive sentences. The concrete step is to explain the meaning and function of JL and SL passive sentences through contrastive speech results, followed by the most appropriate matching.

This research can be followed by other similar research, such as potential sentences, modalities in JL and SL, and so on, which have the potential to be contrasted. This will prove that contrastive analysis is still needed in second language teaching.

Author contributions

Conceptualization, DS, NH, and SW; methodology, DS and NH; validation, DS, NH, and SW; formal analysis, DS and NH; investigation, DS, NH, and SW; resources, DS and NH; data curation, DS, NH, and SW; writing—original draft preparation, DS, NH, and SW; writing—review and editing, DS, NH, and SW; supervision, DS, NH, and SW; project administration, DS, NH, and SW; funding acquisition, DS, NH, and SW. All authors have read and agreed to the published version of the manuscript.

Conflict of interest

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