

The Markedness of Active and Passive Sentences in Indonesian

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ABSTRACT

This research report presents the results of research on the markedness of active and passive voice in Indonesian. The purpose of this study was to determine the markedness of active and passive voice in Indonesian and their implications. The theory used in this study is the concept of markedness proposed by Waugh and Lafford (1994: 2378) and Croft (1990: 64). This research was conducted qualitatively and quantitatively. The results of the study are as follows. The active voice in Indonesian is an unmarked construct, that is, a simple, productive, context-insensitive, more universal sentence, and easier to understand. The passive voice in Indonesian is a marked construct, that is, a more complex, less productive, context-sensitive, more particular sentence, and harder to stand. This markedness has implications for grammar and language learning. For grammar preparation, active voice explanations should be the basis for passive voice explanations so that the rules for forming both types of sentences are easy to understand. For language learning, active voice should be learned first and then passive voice so that both types of sentences are mastered more easily by language learners.

INTRODUCTION

The concept of markedness was first discussed in the 1930s by two Prague linguistic figures, namely Nicolai S. Trubetzkoi and Roman Jakobson (Waugh & Lafford, 1994). This concept was first used in the field of phonology to indicate incongruity or polar opposition between one sound and another, for example the sound [p] vs the sound [b] (weak sound versus strong sound). The consonant [p] is an unmarked sound, while the consonant [b] is a marked consonant because in words, the consonant [p] has a wider distribution than the distribution of the consonant [b]. In Indonesian, for example, the consonant [p] is used both at the beginning of the syllable ([paku] and the end of the syllable [roof]), while the consonant [b] is only used at the beginning of the syllable ([baku]). From this example, it can be shown the productivity of the two consonants, namely the consonant [p] as an unmarked consonant is a productive consonant because it has a wider distribution of use in words, while the consonant [b] as a marked consonant is an unproductive consonant because it has a distribution of use narrower one.

In subsequent developments, the concept of markedness was not only used in the field of phonology, but also in the fields of morphology, syntax and semantics. In the field of morphology, the concept of markedness is used to determine the markedness of singular and plural forms. The singular form is an unmarked form, while the plural form is a marked form because the singular form is simpler than the plural form. In the field of syntax, for example, sentences with regular structure or SV (Subject-Verb) structure are seen as unmarked sentences, while inversion sentences or sentences with VS (Verb-Subject) structure because sentences with SV structure have simpler formation rules than sentences with VS structure. In the field of semantics, for example, long words are unmarked words,

while short words are marked words because the distribution of use of long words is wider than the distribution of use of short words. For example, short words cannot be used to replace long words in the sentence How meters is the length of the rope and in the sentence the length of the rope is five meters.

In this research, the markedness of active sentences and passive sentences in Indonesian is studied. There are three problems discussed in this research. First, how are active sentences and passive sentences constructed in Indonesian? Second, how does the productivity of using active sentences and passive sentences compare in Indonesian? Third, what are the implications of the markedness of active sentences and passive sentences in Indonesian?

Active sentences and passive sentences in Indonesian have been widely discussed in various Indonesian grammar books from traditional grammar to the present, namely (Alisjahbana, 1994), (Poedjawijatna & Zoetmulder, 1955), (Lubis, 1950), (Muljana, 1968), (Soetarno, 1980), (Dhasmana, Fokker, & Spilker, 1972), (Keraf, 1980), (Moeliono, 1993), (Alwi, Dardjowidjojo, Lapoliwa, & Moeliono, 1993), and (Effendi, Kentjono, & Suhardi, 2015). In these grammar books, the rules for forming active and passive sentences are discussed.

There is also a library that specifically discusses passive sentences in Indonesian. The literature is the work of (Chung, 1990), (Cartier, 1989), (Hopper et al., 1989), (Verhaar, 1978), (McCune, 2006), and (Bambang Kaswati Purwo, 1990). This article was published in a book entitled *Fragments of Passive Studies in Indonesian*, edited by (Bambang Kaswanti Purwo, 1989). Apart from that, there is also literature that discusses passive sentences in Indonesian and passive sentences in Korean from contrastive analysis, namely a dissertation by (Hwang et al., 2022) which compares passive sentences in Indonesian with passive sentences in Korean. In these various articles, passive sentences are discussed from various aspects, namely morphology, syntax, discourse analysis, language typology, pragmatics, and contrastive analysis.

Based on the literature review, it can be stated that active sentences and passive sentences in Indonesian have been discussed from various aspects, including rules of formation, morphology, syntax, language typology, discourse analysis, pragmatics, and contrastive analysis. If you look closely, among the various literature, no one has discussed active sentences and passive sentences in Indonesian in terms of their marking, even though the results of research on the marking of active sentences and passive sentences in Indonesian have very important implications for the preparation of Indonesian grammar and learning. Indonesian. Therefore, in this research, active sentences and passive sentences in Indonesian are studied in terms of their significance.

THEORY

There are at least five interrelated characteristics of marking (ISODARUS, 2000). First, in terms of complexity, unmarked constructions are constructions whose formation rules are simpler, while marked constructions are constructions whose formation rules are more complex. Second, in terms of productivity, unmarked constructions are productive constructions because they are easy to articulate, while marked constructions are unproductive constructions because they are difficult to articulate. This productivity can be seen from the frequency of use, namely unmarked constructions are constructions that are frequent, usual, common and primary in use, while marked constructions are constructions that are infrequent and less common. (unusual), special (specific), and secondary (secondary) usage. Third, in terms of sensitivity to context, unmarked constructions are noncontext sensitive or context independent, while marked constructions are context sensitive or context dependent. Fourth, in terms of universality, unmarked constructions are more universal constructions, while marked constructions are more particular constructions. Fifth, in terms of understanding, unmarked constructions are constructions that are relatively easy to understand, while marked constructions are constructions that

are more difficult to understand. These five characteristics of marking can be shown in table 1 below.

Table 1 Marking Characteristic Components

No	Marking Characteristics	Unmarked Construction	Marked Construction
1	Complexity	simple	Complex
2	Fecundity	productive, frequent, regular, general, primary	less productive, rare, unusual, special, secondary
3	Sensitivity to Context	context insensitive, context free	context sensitive, context bound
4	Universality	more universal	more particular
5	Understanding	easier to understand	more difficult to understand

In Indonesian, active sentences and passive sentences in Indonesian are usually limited in meaning based on the meaning of the subject. Active sentences are sentences where the subject means the actor. Passive sentences are sentences where the subject means sufferer.

METHODS

This research data is in the form of active voice and passive voice in Indonesian. The data is obtained from two sources, namely (i) from Indonesian that people have used and (ii) from creative generation Indonesian that the author uses daily. What is used as the first data source is discourse that contains various types of sentences, namely variations of active voice and passive voice. The type of discourse in question is narrative discourse, namely novels, short stories, and folklore. Data from the first source were collected using observation methods (Sudaryanto, 2015), namely by observing the use of language in data sources.

Data derived from the second source which (Botha, 2017) called introspection data were obtained by intuitive methods (Labov, 1972), namely by generating language competence possessed by researchers as Indonesian speakers. In this case, according to (Robins, 1992), the researcher is positioned as an internalist, that is, the researcher is also a speaker of the language studied.

This research was conducted qualitatively and quantitatively. Qualitative research was conducted to prove the complexity of active and passive voice construction in Indonesian. To prove the complexity of active and passive voice in Indonesian, the "contrast" technique is applied, which is by comparing the construction of active and passive voice in Indonesian. In addition, paraphrasing techniques are also used. Paraphrasing techniques are done by changing the form of active voice into passive voice.

Quantitative research is used to prove the productivity of using active and passive voice in Indonesian. In this study, the results of active and passive voice productivity studies were used by (Givon, 1979), (Alisjahbana, 1994), (Dardjowidjojo, 2013), and (Bambang Kaswanti Purwo, 1989).

RESULTS

Active Sentences in Indonesian

In Indonesian, active sentences are sentences whose subject means the perpetrator. Based on the presence or absence of an object function (O), active sentences are divided into two types, namely intransitive active sentences and transitive active sentences.

Intransitive active sentences are active sentences whose predicate is not followed by O. Based on whether there is a complement or no complement, transitive active sentences are divided into two types, namely uncomplemented intransitive active sentences and complementary intransitive active sentences. An uncomplemented

intransitive active sentence is a sentence with a subject (S)-predicate (P) structure. Here's an example.

(1) *Dia membungkuk.*

(He Bowed)

Sentence (1) has an SP structure, namely S is filled with the perpetrator noun (He) and P is filled with the intransitive active verb (bowed). The structure of an uncomplemented intransitive sentence is as follows.

(2) S-doer—intransitive P-active

Based on the number of complements, intransitive active sentences with complements are divided into two types, namely intransitive active sentences with single complements and intransitive active sentences with double complements. A single complement intransitive active sentence has a subject (S)-predicate (P)-Complement (C) structure as seen in the following example.

(3) *Dia berganti pakaian*

He changed clothes.

Sentence (3) has an SPC structure, namely S is filled with the perpetrator noun (He), P is filled with the intransitive active verb (change), and C is filled with the sufferer noun (clothes). The structure of the single complement intransitive active sentence is as follows.

(4) S-doer—P-intransitive active—C-sufferer

Intransitive active sentences with double complements are active sentences with an SPCC structure as seen in the following example.

(5) *Srintil mengirim surat kepada seorang pemuda di desanya.*

Srintil sent a letter to a young man in his village.

Sentence (5) has an SPCC structure, namely S is filled with the actor noun (Srintil), P is filled with the intransitive active verb (send), C is filled with the sufferer noun (to the youth), and C is filled with the target noun (the youth in the village). The structure of the double complement intransitive active sentence is as follows.

(6) S-doer—intransitive P-active—C-sufferer-C-goal

The structural rules for intransitive active sentences, both incomplete and complemented, can be combined as follows.

(7) S—P—(C)—(C)

The sign (C) indicates that C is not always present in intransitive active sentences. The verb forms that fill P in intransitive active sentences include the original verb (8), the verb with the affix me(N)- (9), and the verb with the affix ber- (10).

(8) *Dia bangkit*

He got up.

(9) *Orang itu mengangguk.*

The person nodded.

(10) *Ia bertanya kepada saya*

he asked me.

In the intransitive active sentence (8) the P is filled by the original verb, namely rise. In the intransitive active sentence (9) the P is filled with the verb with the affix me(N)-, namely nodding. In the intransitive active sentence (10) the P is filled with the verb with the affix ber-, namely asking.

Transitive active sentences are active sentences in which P is followed by O. Based on the presence or absence of C, transitive active sentences can be divided into two types, namely non-complemented transitive active sentences and complementary transitive active sentences. Uncomplemented transitive active sentences are active sentences with an SPO structure. Here's an example.

(11) *Brian membaca buku komik itu*

Brian reads the comic book.

Sentence (11) is a transitive active sentence with an SPO structure, namely S is filled with the perpetrator noun (Brian), P is filled with the transitive active verb (read), and O is filled with the sufferer noun (the comic book). Thus, an uncomplemented transitive active sentence is an active sentence which has the following structure.

(12) S-doer—P-transitive active verb—O-sufferer

The categorical filler for S in an uncomplemented transitive active sentence is a free pronoun or descriptive noun. The category filler for P in uncomplemented transitive active sentences is a polymorphemic verb with the affix me(N)- with or without other affixes, namely per-, -kan, and -i or a combination of per- with -kan or -i (Sudaryanto, 2015). The form of the verb can be shown as follows.

(13) Me(N)- + (per)+ original word+-kan/-i

Below are examples presented.

(14) Pak Sam **memanggil** anaknya.

Mr. Sam **call** his son

(15) Anak-anak burung itu **membuka** mulutnya yang merah segar.

The baby birds **open** her mouth was fresh red.

(16) Orang itu **memarahi** anaknya.

That person **scold** his son.

(17) Mereka **mendekatkan** tempat duduknya.

They **get closer** his seat.

(18) Orang itu **memarahi** anaknya.

That person **scold** his son.

(19) Bibi **menuruni** tangga.

Aunt **down** ladder.

(20) Penyanyi itu **memperkecil** suaranya.

The singer **zoom out** his voice.

(21) Lisa **memperolok-olok** adiknya.

Lisa **make fun** his sister.

(22) Direktur itu **memperamati** pekerjaan karyawannya.

The director **observe** employee's work.

(23) Rudi **memperbaiki** sepedanya.

Rudi **repair** his bicycle.

(24) Dia **memperhatikan** saya.

He **notice** I.

(25) Para mahasiswa **mempertanyakan** kebenaran isyu itu.

Students **question** the truth of the issue.

The category fillers for O in transitive uncomplemented active sentences are non-definitive nouns (26), descriptive nouns (27), independent personal pronouns (28), bound personal pronouns (29).

(26) Lasi **menegur** seorang pemuda.

Lasi rebuked a young man.

(27) Tini **mengambil** bukunya.

Tini took the book.

(28) Orang itu **memaki-maki** saya.

That person cursed at me.

(29) Dia **telah menolongku**.

He has helped me.

Overall, the structural rules for uncomplemented transitive active sentences can be explained as follows.

(30) S-perpetrator + P-me(N)- + (per-) + original word + (-kan/-i) + O-sufferer

Complementary transitive active sentences are sentences with a SPOC structure. Here's an example.

(30) *Gubernur DKI menyerahkan beasiswa kepada anak-anak yatim piatu.*

The Governor of DKI handed over scholarships to orphaned children.

(31) *Tesa meminjami saya sebuah buku.*

Tesa lent me a book.

(32) *Darsa menyandarkan sepedanya pada dinding itu.*

Darsa leaned his bicycle against the wall.

(33) *Darsa menyandari dinding itu dengan sepedanya.*

Darsa leaned against the wall with her bicycle.

(34) *Dia memeriksakan giginya kepada drg. Stella.*

He had his teeth checked by Dr. Stella.

(35) *Jaksa mengajukan dia sebagai saksi ahli.*

The prosecutor presented him as an expert witness.

(36) *Jati memperlihatkan buku baru kepada para mahasiswa.*

Jati showed the students a new book.

Passive sentences

The active sentence that has a counterpart to the passive sentence is only a transitive active sentence. Intransitive active sentences do not have passive sentence counterparts. The passive sentences studied in this paper are focused on passive sentences which are the equivalent of transitive active sentences which do not have complements because these passive sentences are considered to represent the passive sentence as a whole. Indonesian grammarians, including (Alisjahbana, 1994), (Poedjawijatna & Zoetmulder, 1955), (Hadidjaja, 1965), (Lubis, 1950), (Muljana, 1968), (Soetarno, 1980), (Dhasmana et al., 1972), (Keraf, 1980), (Moeliono, 1993), and (Alwi et al., 1993) limits passive sentences based on the referent they state, namely sentences where the subject is subjected to the action mentioned in the predicate or the subject is a sufferer. Here's an example.

(37) *Kedua kursi itu dirapatkan.*

The two chairs were pushed together.

(38) *Kusiakkan kelambu.*

I opened the mosquito net.

Sentence (38) consists of the two chairs as S-sufferers and put together as a passive verb. Sentence (39) consists of Kusiakkan as P-passive verb and mosquito net as S-sufferer.

Based on the constituent that occupies its initial position, passive sentences can be divided into two types, namely passive sentences whose initial constituent is S-sufferer and passive sentences whose initial constituent is P-passive verb. Passive sentences whose initial constituent is S-verb are called ordinary passive sentences or passive sentences with SP or SV structure and passive sentences whose initial constituent is P-passive verb are called inverted passive sentences or passive sentences with PS or VS structure.

Ordinary passive sentences have the following structure.

(40) S-sufferer ---P-passive verb

An example is presented below.

(41) *Cincin itu dilepas.*

The ring was removed.

(42) *Lukisan itu kuambil.*

I took the painting.

(43) *Keranjang itu diambilnya.*

He took the basket.

Sentence (4) consists of the ring as the S-sufferer and released as the passive P-verb. Sentence (42) consists of The painting as S-sufferer and I took it as P-passive verb. Sentence (43) consists of the Basket as the S-actor and it is taken as the P-passive verb.

Category fillers for S-sufferers are descriptive nouns (example (44)) and free personal pronouns (example (45)).

(45) *Anak itu terus kudekati.*

I kept approaching the child.

(46) *Mereka diseret.*

They were dragged away.

The child constituent in example (45) is a descriptive noun and they in example (46) is a free personal pronoun.

Category fillers for passive sentence predicates can be divided into three groups as follows.

a. di-+(per-)+lexeme+(-kan/-i)

(47) *Kambing itu kemudian disembelih.*

The goat was then slaughtered.

(48) *Kedua anak catur itu didekatkan.*

The two chess children were brought closer.

(49) *Sayurnya belum digarami.*

The vegetables have not been salted.

(50) *Talinya diperpendek.*

The rope is shortened.

(51) *Mobil saya sedang diperbaiki.*

My car is being repaired.

(52) *Gerak-geriknya diperhatikan si tawanan.*

The prisoner watched his movements.

b. personal pronoun+per-+original word+(-kan/-i)

(53) *Suratnya baru dia terima.*

He just received the letter.

(54) *Gagasan Mamanua itu segera is dilaksanakan.*

Mamanua's idea was immediately implemented.

(55) *Persoalan itu harus kita hindari.*

We must avoid this problem.

(56) *Makalah ini belum kita perbanyak.*

We have not reproduced this paper.

(57) *Sepeda ini sudah kuperbaiki.*

I have repaired this bicycle.

(58) *Laporan keuangannya mereka permasalahankan.*

They disputed the financial statements.

c. in-+origin word+(-kan/-i)+

(59) *Potongan tebu yang sudah dikupas itu dihisapnya.*

He sucked the peeled pieces of sugar cane.

(60) *Saya dibangunkannya.*

He woke me up.

(61) *Muka si tawanan disorotinya.*

He focused on the prisoner's face.

Passive sentences where the P is a verb-in-as seen in examples (47-52), it is also called the di-passive sentence (Bambang Kaswanti Purwo, 1989), the canonical passive sentence (Chung, 1990), or the true passive sentence (Cartier, 1989). In the passive sentence di-, some constituents of the actor are mentioned and some are not mentioned. The actor constituent is not mentioned in the passive sentence di- because it cannot be identified (example (62)), (ii) it is common knowledge (example (63)), and (iii) it is implied in the verb (example (64)), and (iv) has been mentioned previously (example (65c)).

(62) *Rumahnya sudah dibingkar.*

The house has been broken into.

(63) *Pelaku pengeboman di Jalan Hayam Wuruk sudah ditangkap.*

The perpetrator of the bombing on Jalan Hayam Wuruk has been arrested.

(64) *Bukunya sudah dicetak.*

The book has been printed.

(65) *a. Secepat kilat Mamanua melemparkan tombaknya ke tubuh Binatang itu dan kena. b. Babi hutan itu lalu ia bawa ke tempat pohon wasian itu berada. c. Babi itu kemudian disembelih....(PRB: 11)*

a. As quickly as lightning Mamanua threw his spear at the Beast's body and it hit. b. He then took the wild boar to where the wasian tree was. c. The pig was then slaughtered....(PRB: 11)

In sentence (62), the perpetrator constituent is not mentioned because the perpetrator reference cannot be identified, who is the perpetrator of the house demolition. In example (63), the perpetrator's constituents are not mentioned because the perpetrator's referent is already known to the public, namely the police. In example (64), the constituent actor is not mentioned because the referent actor can be interpreted from the verb, namely printer. In sentence (65c), the constituent actor is not mentioned because it has been mentioned previously, namely it is in correlation with the constituent ia in sentence (65b) and Mamanua in sentence (65a).

The actor's constituents are mentioned in the passive *in*-usually occupies a non-core part, namely occupying the function of an adverb. These constituents can be called actor-adverbs. Actor-adverbs are usually expressed with a preposition followed by a non-definitive noun (example (66)), a descriptive noun (example (67)), or a third person pronoun (example (68)).

(66) *Kedua orang tuanya dibunuh dengan sadis oleh perampok.*

Both of his parents were brutally murdered by robbers.

(67) *Dia ditabrak (oleh) pemuda itu.*

He was hit (by) the young man.

(68) *Saya diolok-olok oleh dia/*ia/beliau/mereka/-nya.*

I was made fun of by him/her/her/they/her.

If the P-passive constituent is immediately followed by the agent-adverb, that is, it is not interrupted by a particular constituent, the preposition *by* is not obligatory to use (example (69)). If a certain constituent is inserted between the P-passive constituent and the agent-adverb, the preposition *by* must be used (example (69a)).

(69) *Kedua orang tuanya dibunuh (oleh) perampok.*

Both his parents were killed (by) robbers.

(69a) *Kedua orang tuanya dibunuh dengan sadis *(oleh) perampok.*

Both of his parents were brutally murdered *(by) robbers.

The personal pronoun that is the constituent of the actor in the passive sentence *di-* is the third person pronoun (Verhaar, 1978) (Bambang Kaswanti Purwo, 1989). This is because the burden of the act is not only on the constituents who act as third person actors (Bambang Kaswanti Purwo, 1989). The affix *di-* is diachronically a pronoun, that is, it is proleptic for the role of the third person actor. Historically, the affix *di-* comes from *dia* (read comes from he read) (Muljana, 1968; Verhaar, 1978).

Passive sentences with verb predicates that contain personal pronouns as actors as seen in examples (53-58) are hereinafter referred to as personal passive sentences. Personal passive sentences are also called zero passive sentences (*zero passive*) (Bambang Kaswanti Purwo, 1989; Verhaar, 1978), object preposing passive sentences (Chung, 1990), passive sentences where the verb undergoes diathesis fading (de-voiced transitive verb), or persona aneksi (Mees, 1954). The actor constituent in a personal passive sentence does not occupy a separate function, but is related to the verb that fulfills the predicate function.

From a pragmatic perspective, because the sufferer's constituent is in a leading position, passive sentences are usually limited to sentences that highlight or put the sufferer

first. This is also used to differentiate it from active sentences, namely sentences that highlight the perpetrator because in active sentences, the perpetrator is in the earliest position.

Inverted passive sentences have a Predicate-Subject structure. The predicate in an inverted passive sentence is a passive verb and the subject is filled with the role of the sufferer. Thus, the structure of the inverted passive sentence is as follows.

(69) *P-verb pasif—S-penderita.*

P-verb passive—S-sufferer.

The following is an example.

(70) *Dia cium kaki ibunya.*

He kissed his mother's feet.

Sentence (70) consists of the constituent He kissed as P-passive verb and his mother's feet as S-sufferer.

Category fillers for inverted passive sentence predicates can be divided into three groups as follows.

(1) di-+original word+(-kan)

(71) *Dibangun gedung olah raga.*

Built a sports hall.

(72) *Dibutuhkan tenaga kerja Wanita untuk pramuwisma.*

Female workers are needed for homelessness.

(2) personal pronoun+origin word+(-kan/-i)

(73) *Kupenggal setangkai bunga pegunungan.*

I cut off a sprig of mountain flower.

(74) *Dia picingkan matanya.*

He narrowed his eyes.

(75) *Dia hampiri tawanan itu.*

He approached the prisoner.

(3) in-+origin word+(-kan/-i)+-nya

(76) *Dipandangnya cincin berlian di jari manisnya.*

He looked at the diamond ring on her ring finger.

(77) *Diembuskannya asap rokok.*

He exhaled cigarette smoke.

(78) *Dilompatinya pematang sawah itu.*

He jumped over the rice field embankment.

Category fillers for the subject of an inverted passive sentence are non-rate nouns (example (79)), descriptive nouns (example (80)), or free personal pronouns (example (81)).

(79) *Dijual tanah pekarangan.*

Yard land for sale.

(80) *Dibersihkannya tempat itu.*

He cleaned the place.

(81) *Aku panggil dia.*

I called him.

Pragmatically, because the passive P-verb constituent that expresses the action is in the front position, inverted passive sentences are commonly identified as sentences that highlight actions or events (Ramlan, 1977) (Poedjawijatna & Zoetmulder, 1955).

Comparison of Active Voice and Passive Voice

Based on the description in 2.2, you can compare the complexity between active sentences and passive sentences. Judging from the form of the verb, it appears that active verbs are simpler than passive verbs. Active verbs always have affixes *me(N)-as* as can be seen in rule (13), while passive verbs are not only verbs with the affix *di-*, but also verbs that are in the form of actor connections both at the beginning (for example, I took) and at the end

of the original word (for example, took). In terms of the actor, the actor in the active sentence is always a free-form descriptive noun that fills in the subject, while the actor in the passive sentence is not only a personal noun or pronoun that becomes an adverb, but also a personal pronoun that is linked to the verb, and can also be unstated.

Because the rules for forming passive sentences are more complex, the frequency of using passive sentences is also lower than using active sentences. This has been shown by (Alisjahbana, 1994), (Dardjowidjojo, 2013), and (Bambang Kaswanti Purwo, 1989) as shown in table 2 below.

Table 2 Frequency of Use of Passive Sentences in Indonesian

Indonesian 1930s	20%
Indonesian 1970s	25%
Indonesian 1970s	30-40%

(Waugh & Lafford, 1994) state that active sentences are simpler than passive sentences so that active sentences are easier to produce than passive sentences. This productivity can be seen from the frequency of its use in discourse. Active sentences have a higher frequency of use than passive sentences. (Givon, 1979), for example, has shown the frequency of use of active sentences and passive sentences in English in non-fiction, fiction, news and sports discourse as shown in table 3 below.

Table 3 Frequency of Use of Active Voice and Passive Voice in English

No	Types of Discourse	Active Sentence	Passive sentences
1	Not Fiction	49 (82%)	11 (18%)
2	Fiction	177 (91%)	18 (9%)
3	News	45 (92%)	4 (18%)
4	Sport	64 (96%)	3 (4%)

According to (Verhaar, 1978), languages that have alternative active sentences and passive sentences, the active diathesis is the "primary" or "canonical". This means that what is usually used is the active sentence and there must be a special reason to use the passive sentence, for example to direct the perspective of the perpetrator's argument, or to background or even diminish the perpetrator's argument.

Active sentences are included in what (Taylor & Taylor, 1990) calls SAAD (*simple/simple*)—affirmative (affirmative)—active (active)—declarative (declarative)). SAAD sentences, according to (Taylor & Taylor, 1990), are easy for speakers to understand, remember and produce. Passive sentences, a type of sentence not included in SAAD, are more difficult to understand, remember, and produce. This is because passive sentences are more complex than active sentences.

Judging from its universality, active sentences are more universal than passive sentences. It appears that there are a number of languages in the world that do not have passive constructions. For example, (Klamer, 1996) stated that there are a number of Central Polynesian Malay languages in eastern Indonesia that do not have passive constructions, such as Leti and Roti languages used by speakers in the Timor region and Kambera languages used by speakers in the Sumba region.

CONCLUSION

In Indonesian, active sentences are unmarked sentences, while passive sentences are marked sentences. This significance can be seen from four aspects, namely (i) complexity, (ii) productivity, (iii) sensitivity to context, and (iv) universality. In terms of complexity, the rules for forming active sentences are relatively simpler than the rules for forming passive sentences. In terms of productivity, active sentences are relatively more productive than passive sentences. Active sentences are more "primary" in nature, while passive sentences are more "secondary" in nature. In terms of sensitivity to context, active

sentences are relatively less context sensitive than passive sentences which are more context sensitive. In terms of universality, active sentences are relatively more universal, while passive sentences are more particular.

The importance of active sentences and passive sentences above has implications for grammar preparation and language learning. In constructing grammar, unmarked constructions become the basis for explaining marked constructions. Thus, the active sentence must be the basis for explaining the passive sentence.

The importance of active sentences and passive sentences also has implications for determining the order of learning materials for active sentences and passive sentences in Indonesian. Active sentences as unmarked constructions are sentences that are easier to learn, while passive sentences as marked constructions are sentences that are more difficult to learn. Therefore, in accordance with the principle that the learning process is sequential from things that are easy to learn to things that are difficult to learn, active sentences need to be studied first, and then passive sentences are studied.

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