



Contrastive analysis of negation in Indonesian and Korean

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ABSTRACT

This study aims to analyze the Korean language learning in a content of This study analyzes the comparison of negation in Indonesian and Korean languages to understand the difficulties Indonesian learners face when learning negation in Korean. Indonesian and Korean share several similarities, such as the use of free morphemes for basic negation forms, which can aid Indonesian learners in grasping the fundamental structure of Korean negation. For instance, Indonesian uses the free morphemes "tidak", "bukan", and "jangan" while Korean utilizes "an(안)[not]", "mot(못)[cannot]", and "anida(아니다)[not (to be)]. However, this study identifies fundamental differences in morphological and syntactic aspects, such as the placement of long-form negation using bound morphemes at the end of clauses in Korean, namely "-ji anhta(-지 않다)[not] and "-ji motada(-지 못하다)[cannot]. Additionally, Korean has a specific prohibitive form "-ji malda(-지 말다) [do not]" and a double negation concept "-ji aneumyeon an dweda(-지 않으면 안 되다) [it must not be if not]", which results in affirmative meaning, contrasting with Indonesian. These differences often lead to errors in negation usage by Indonesian learners due to negative transfer from their native language structures. Through a contrastive analysis approach, this study concludes that a deep understanding of the differences and similarities in negation between the two languages can help learners reduce errors and improve mastery of Korean negation.

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1. INTRODUCTION

Linguistic errors in second language learning are often triggered by negative transfer from the mother tongue. Tarigan (1988), Chaer (1994), and Dendy (1989) emphasize that learners tend to use native language structures that may not align with the target language, potentially leading to grammatical errors. In this context, Selinker (1972), the originator of the Interlanguage theory, asserts that mother tongue transfer is a primary source of errors in second languages. Second language acquisition expert Krashen (1982) also highlights that over-reliance on the mother tongue structure can hinder progress in mastering the target language. Corder (1967), a linguist specializing in analyzing second language errors, reveals that many errors stem from inappropriate application of native language rules in the second language context through his analysis of learner errors.

Such learner errors due to negative transfer can be minimized by thoroughly understanding the differences and similarities between the learner's mother tongue and the target language through a contrastive analysis approach (Choi, 2010; Chaer, 2009; Dardjowidjojo, 2003; Kim, 2014; Krashen, 1982; Lado, 1957; Park, 2018; Selinker, 1992; Suhartono, 1997). Suhartono (1997), Dardjowidjojo (2003), and Chaer (2009) stress that a contrastive analysis approach is essential to help learners avoid mother tongue interference in second language learning. Lado (1957), Krashen (1982), and Selinker (1992) also support that recognizing similarities and differences between the two languages can reduce errors during language acquisition. Meanwhile, Korean linguists, namely Choi (2010), Kim (2014), and Park (2018), emphasize that comparative analysis between the mother tongue and Korean is highly effective in helping learners understand the correct structure, thereby significantly reducing negative transfer.

Indonesian belongs to the Austronesian language family (Blust, 2009; Dyen, 1965), whereas Korean is part of the Koreanic language family (Lee, 2000; Sohn, 1999). Blust (2009), in his book *The Austronesian Languages*, and Dyen (1965), in *The Austronesian Language Family*, both assert that Indonesian is part of the Austronesian family, encompassing many languages across Southeast Asia and Oceania. Meanwhile, Sohn (1999), in *The Korean Language*, and Lee (2000), in *An Introduction to Korean Linguistics*, state that Korean belongs to the Koreanic family, an isolated language group limited to the Korean Peninsula.

Based on this family distinction, syntactic and morphological differences are assured. Syntactically, Indonesian typically follows a Subject-Verb-Object (SVO) structure (Li and Thompson, 1981), whereas Korean follows a Subject-Object-Verb (SOV) pattern (Sohn, 1999). This difference often causes errors in verb placement for Indonesian learners of Korean. Morphologically, Indonesian is simpler and agglutinative with limited prefixes and suffixes (Blust, 2009), whereas Korean has a more complex morphology involving case particles, honorific markers, and verb modifications based on social context (Sohn, 1999). This complexity frequently leads to grammatical errors in Korean mastery by Indonesian learners due to negative transfer from their native language structures.

Negation in Indonesian and Korean shows striking differences in both syntax and morphology. In Indonesian, negation is expressed by the words “*tidak*” or “*bukan*,” which always precede the negated word and remain unchanged regardless of context or grammatical function (Chaer, 2009). In contrast, Korean negation is realized in two main ways: *an*(안) and *-ji anhta* (-지 않다). The particle *an*(안) generally appears before the verb, while *-ji anhta* (-지 않다) is placed at the end of a clause and can vary according to politeness level and applicable conjugation rules (Sohn, 1999).

This complexity often becomes a source of errors for Indonesian learners accustomed to a simpler negation structure in their language, resulting in frequent negative transfer. Understanding

these differences can help minimize errors in Korean negation usage, as learners can more readily recognize the fundamental distinctions between the two languages. Therefore, an in-depth contrastive study of negation in Indonesian and Korean is necessary.

2. THEORITICAL FRAMEWORK

2.1. Contrastive Analysis

Foreign language learners generally face difficulties when learning linguistic forms of a foreign language, particularly if those forms bear little resemblance to their native language (Chaer, 2007; Ferguson, 1959; Krashen, 1981; Lado, 1957; Hu, 2015; Sudaryanto, 1993; Ullah, 2011). Western linguists identified these challenges as early as the 1950s, leading to the development of the Contrastive Analysis theory, which is believed to help identify similarities and differences between a foreign language and the learner's native language. Contrastive Analysis was first formulated and developed by Lado in 1957. Lado posited that by comparing the native language (L1) and the foreign language (L2), the difficulties encountered by learners could be predicted. According to Lado (1957), significant differences between two languages can lead to negative transfer, a phenomenon that results in errors in the usage of forms or structures of the foreign language being learned.

Morphologically, Indonesian is classified as an analytic language (Hudson, 1996), whereas Korean is an agglutinative language (Ball et al., 2013). In analytic languages like Indonesian, grammatical forms are typically realized through separate words and word order rather than inflections or complex endings. Hudson emphasizes that in analytic languages, grammatical functions are often expressed through standalone words. Korean, as an agglutinative language, conveys grammatical and structural aspects through morphemes that must attach to the root word. Trask (1993) adds that Korean relies on a system that allows the sequential addition of affixes to convey more complex grammatical meanings. Sentence endings in Korean can be appended with other endings to express further grammatical meanings.

The distinction between analytic and agglutinative languages is also evident in their negation structures. While negation in Indonesian and Korean carries similar meanings, there are significant differences in sentence placement. In Korean, negation is realized as part of the sentence ending, a feature not present in Indonesian.

Given these distinctions, it is essential to examine both the similarities and differences in negation between the two languages to identify the areas where Indonesian learners of Korean may struggle with understanding and applying Korean negation. Consequently, Contrastive Analysis serves as a robust theoretical foundation for identifying the similarities and differences in negation in these two languages.

In addition to Contrastive Analysis, this study also draws on morphological and syntactic theories. The study relates to morphology because negation generally manifests in morphemes, whether bound or free (Tanda & Neba, 2020; Cho & Whitman, 2019; Arikunto, 2019, as cited in Ariadne et al., 2024). It also relates to syntax, as negation transforms affirmative sentences into negative ones, impacting the entire sentence structure (Dudschig et al., 2021).

2.2. Negation

Negation is a way to state that something is not true or to reject a statement. In language, negation transforms a sentence or idea into its opposite. For instance, by adding the words 'no' or 'not,' we can indicate that something did not happen or does not align with what was expected. Horn (2001), a linguist, explains that negation plays an important role in logic and communication, providing people with the ability to clearly express rejection or disagreement.

Several grammar experts from various countries have also discussed negation and its usage. Zanuttini (2001) demonstrates that negation is applied in different patterns across languages worldwide. She explains that languages have unique ways of forming negation, involving diverse sentence structure or syntactic rules. Kiparsky and Condoravdi (2006) discuss how forms of negation in a language can undergo historical and gradual changes, often following a specific cycle.

Forms of negation vary widely across countries, highlighting unique methods for expressing rejection or disagreement in language. In English, negation is often marked by the word 'not' placed after an auxiliary verb, as in the sentence "I do not like it." In French, negation is constructed with two elements, 'ne' and 'pas,' surrounding the verb, such as in "*Je ne sais pas*" (I do not know). In Japanese, negation is indicated by adding the suffix '-nai' to the verb, as in '*tabenai*', meaning "not eat". Arabic uses the word '*laa*' before a verb to indicate negation, as in "*laa afham*" (I do not understand). Meanwhile, in Indonesian, negation is often expressed with the word '*tidak*' for verbs or adjectives, as in "*tidak suka* (do not like)", and '*bukan*' for denying nouns, as in "*bukan guru* (not a teacher)". In Korean, negation is usually formed by adding '*an*(안)' before verbs or adjectives, as in "*an mogoyo*(안 먹어요)(do not eat)", or by adding the ending '*-ji antha*(-지 않다)' after the verb root, such as in "*meokji anhayo*" (먹지 않아요), meaning "do not eat". These various forms of negation reflect the diverse structures and rules that have developed according to the characteristics of each language.

Negation is a linguistic unit used to express denial in a sentence. Horn (2001) and Kridalaksana (2008) state that negation is a feature present in almost all languages, used to convey something negative within a sentence. Negation can appear in the form of free or bound morphemes. Payne (1997) and Ramlan (2001) note that, in many languages, negation often appears as an auxiliary word, prefix, or suffix. Therefore, syntactically, negation can function as an auxiliary verb or sentence suffix. Additionally, it generally becomes part of the predicate element in a sentence (Chomsky, 1981) and provides the main information in a clause to express denial (Chaer, 2009).

When compared in terms of meaning, Indonesian uses the negators '*tidak*' and '*bukan*.' In Korean, negation includes '*an*(안)', '*mot*(못)', '*-ji antha*(-지 않다)', and '*anida*(아니다)'. The negator '*tidak*' corresponds to '*an*(안)', '*mot*(못)', and '*-ji antha*(-지 않다)', while '*bukan*' corresponds to '*anida*(아니다)'. Beyond these, additional negation forms in both languages can be analyzed morphologically and syntactically.

3. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This study employs a descriptive qualitative approach, exploring aspects of negation in Indonesian and Korean through textual analysis. The research utilizes contrastive analysis and morphological-syntactic analysis techniques. Contrastive analysis is a comparative approach used to predict learning difficulties by examining the linguistic structures of two or more languages, typically focusing on phonological, morphological, and syntactic aspects (Corder, 1973). Morphological-syntactic analysis is an approach in linguistics that examines the relationship between morphology (word structure) and syntax (sentence structure). This study applies morphological and syntactic analysis because negation falls within these aspects. Negations formed through morphological

processes and those influencing sentence structure and types in Indonesian and Korean are analyzed and then compared using a contrastive analysis approach. This comparative result is then described as the findings and outcomes of the study.

4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.1. Negation in Indonesian

Until 1973, Indonesian linguists categorized Indonesian negation into 17 forms (Sudaryono, 1993), including *tak*, *tiada*, *tidak*, *bukan*, *bukannya*, *jangan*, *mustahil*, *belum*, *mana*, *manakan*, *mana boleh*, *masa*, *masakan*, *masa dapat*, *tidak mungkin*, *usahkan*, and *tak usah*. Hadidjaja (1964) identified Indonesian negation forms as *tak*, *tiada*, *tidak*, *jangan*, *usahakan*, and *tak usah*. Mees (1953) included *tak*, *tiada*, *tidak*, *bukan*, *bukannya*, *jangan*, *mustahil*, *mana boleh*, and *masa*. Poedjawijatna (1964) recognized *tak*, *tiada*, *tidak*, and *jangan*. Slametmuljana (1969) listed *tak*, *tiada*, *tidak*, *bukan*, *bukannya*, *jangan*, *mustahil*, *belum*, *mana*, *manakan*, *mana boleh*, *masa*, *masakan*, and *masa dapat*. Sofioedin (1973) classified negation as *tidak*, *bukan*, *jangan*, *mustahil*, *belum*, and *tidak mungkin*.

However, according to the *Indonesian Standard Grammar* by Moeliono et al., (2017), the commonly used negation forms in modern Indonesian are *tidak*, *belum*, *bukan*, *tanpa*, and *jangan*. All these forms, based on word class, function as verbs, adjectives, adverbs, and nouns. They can appear in declarative, interrogative, imperative, and exclamatory sentences and function as adverbial phrases, prohibitive verb phrases, and denial verb phrases in negative sentences.

In Indonesian, negation is formed using free morphemes such as *tidak*, *bukan*, *jangan*, and *belum*, each with distinct functions and contexts. Indonesian linguists (Alwi et al., 2001; Ewing, 2005; Kridalaksana, 2001; Muslich, 2010; Sneddon et al., 2010) agree that these morphemes do not change form and are placed at the beginning of the phrase, depending on the type. *Tidak* is used to negate verbs and adjectives, while *bukan* negates nouns. *Jangan* is used for prohibitive sentences, and *belum* indicates a temporary lack of achievement. These morphemes play a crucial role in Indonesian sentence structure, creating negative meanings without morphological changes. Below are examples illustrating the function of each negation type in expressing denial.

(1) Negation with *'Tidak'* (Verbal Sentences)

- a. Heri datang hari ini. (Heri is coming today.)
- b. Heri *tidak/tak* datang hari ini. (Heri is not coming today.)
- c. Apa Heri *tidak/tak* datang hari ini? (Is Heri not coming today?)
- d. Ahza *tidak/tak* mungkin datang. (Ahza is unlikely to come.)
- e. Ayah *tidak/tak* ingin pergi ke puncak.
(Father does not want to go to the mountain top.)
- f. Adik *tidak/tak* boleh ikut ke mal.
(Little sibling is not allowed to go to the mall.)
- g. Nenek *tidak/tak* mau makan. (Grandmother does not want to eat.)
- h. Kamu *tidak/tak* perlu/usah datang besok. (You do not need to come tomorrow.)

In sentences a to c, the negation *'tidak'* is used to indicate factual actions—something that happens or does not happen in reality, particularly in the context of presence, whether someone comes or does not come. Here, *'tidak'* functions as a direct negation of statements or questions related to someone's presence on that particular day.

In contrast, in sentences d to h, the negation '*tidak*' not only negates an action but also conveys nuances of modality or emphasis related to intent, possibility, permission, desire, and obligation. For instance, in sentence d, '*tidak mungkin*' implies impossibility as a modality, while in sentence e, '*tidak ingin*' expresses an absence of desire or intention. In sentence f, '*tidak boleh*' is used as a prohibition or restriction, whereas in g, '*tidak mau*' conveys unwillingness or reluctance. Sentence h with '*tidak perlu*' or '*tidak usah*' indicates a lack of necessity or obligation to do something.

Thus, the primary difference between sentences a to c and d to h lies in the more diverse functions of '*tidak*' in sentences d to h, where it involves modality aspects beyond merely negating an action or fact.

From this, we can conclude that the usage of the negation word '*tidak/tak*' in Indonesian serves various functions depending on the sentence context. In sentences that are factual or straightforward statements like sentences a to c, '*tidak*' functions as an assertion to negate a specific action or event. However, in sentences involving modality like sentences d to h, '*tidak*' not only negates an action but also adds nuances such as prohibition, desire, obligation, or possibility. This shows that '*tidak/tak*' has flexibility in expressing negation in a more nuanced way, encompassing aspects related to attitude, permission, and necessity, depending on the context of its usage in the sentence.

(2) Negation with '*Tidak*' (Adjectival Sentence)

- a. Rara sibuk setiap hari.
- b. Rara *tidak/tak* sibuk setiap hari.
- c. Apa Rara *tidak/tak* sibuk setiap hari?

If the sentences in (1) are verbal sentences, then the sentences in (2) are adjectival sentences. Sentence c is an interrogative adjectival sentence that contains negation. Like the adverbial sentences in (1), these adjectival sentences can also be followed by additional modalities after the negation '*tidak*'.

(3) Negation with '*Bukan*'

- a. Mereka karyawan. (They are employees.)
- b. Mereka *bukan* karyawan. (They are not employees.)
- c. Apa mereka *bukan* karyawan? (Are they not employees?)
- d. Rumahnya *bukan* hanya satu, *bukan?* (Their house is not only one, right?)
- e. Perempuan itu ramah, *bukan?* (That woman is friendly, isn't she?)
- f. Kamu sudah mandi, *bukan?* (You have already bathed, right?)
- g. Mereka berangkat *bukan* hari ini melainkan besok.
(They are not leaving today but tomorrow.)
- h. Kami ingin menolong, *bukan* menyakiti. (We want to help, not hurt.)
- i. Kami ingin menolong, *bukannya* menyakiti. (We want to help, not hurt.)

In sentence (3) above, the negation '*bukan*' is used to deny or refute something related to identity, ownership, quality, or time. In sentences a to c, '*bukan*' contrasts or negates identity or status, in this case, as an employee. In sentences d to f, "*bukan*" emphasizes aspects of ownership, quality, or condition, often as a form of reinforcement or an expectation of agreement from the interlocutor (for example, '*bukan?*' at the end of a sentence seeking confirmation). Meanwhile, in

sentences g to i, '*bukan*' contrasts choices or actions, clarifying that the intention is not a particular action or time but rather something else (for example, not today but tomorrow, or not to harm but to help). Thus, '*bukan*' functions not only as a simple denial but also as a tool to clarify and contrast information or choices within a sentence.

(4) Negation with '*Jangan*'

- a. Masuk ke dalam. (Enter inside.)
- b. *Jangan* masuk ke dalam. (Do not enter inside.)
- c. *Jangan* malas belajar. (Do not be lazy to study.)

In sentence (4) above, the negation '*jangan*' is used as a form of prohibition or negative command. In sentence b, '*jangan*' negates or prohibits the action 'to enter', implying an instruction not to perform that action. Similarly, in sentence c, '*jangan*' prohibits or discourages the characteristic of laziness in the context of studying. From this, it can be understood that '*jangan*' is not always attached to verbs but can also be attached to adjectives. The negation '*jangan*' can appear in adjectival sentences.

(5) Negasi with '*Belum*'

- a. Dia sudah berangkat. (He/She has already left.)
- b. Dia *belum* berangkat. (He/She has not left yet.)

The negation in (5), namely '*belum*', is used to indicate an action that will occur in the future. This means that the action is 'not' yet performed. In sentence a, '*sudah*' indicates that the action '*berangkat* (to depart)' has been completed by the subject. Meanwhile, in sentence b, '*belum*' negates or states that the action '*berangkat*' has not been performed, but there is a possibility that it will happen later. Thus, '*belum*' conveys a denial that is not absolute but rather postpones the possibility of the action occurring at a later time.

(6) Negation with '*Tanpa*'

- a. Menghilang *tanpa* bekas. (Disappear without a trace.)
- b. Kami berangkat *tanpa* ditemani orang tua.
(We left without being accompanied by parents.)

(7) Negasi with '*Mustahil*'

- Sofia *mustahil* makan makanan itu. (Sofia is unlikely to eat that food.)

Sentence (6) a is an affirmative sentence followed by the negation '*tanpa*'. The negation '*tanpa*' functions as an adverb, allowing it to be directly followed by a noun, as in sentence a, a noun phrase, a verb, or a verb phrase, as seen in sentence b. Meanwhile, in sentence (7), there is the negation '*mustahil*', which is an adjective. '*Mustahil*' is an adjective meaning 'impossible' or 'not likely', indicating that an action is unlikely to occur or that a state is denied. Therefore, '*mustahil*' functions as a type of negation.

In addition to the negations mentioned above, there are other forms of negation indicated by prefixes such as 'a-', 'awa-', 'de-', 'dis-', 'in-', 'im-', 'i-', 'non-', 'tan-', 'nir-', and 'tuna-', as seen in

words below (Syafar, 2016). Syafar explains that these forms are not originally from the Indonesian language but are borrowed from English.

- **Negation with Prefixes**

amoral, awahama, deregulasi, desintegrasi, disorientasi, inkonsisten, impersonal, ilegal, nonprofit, nirlaba.

4.2. Negation in Korean

In Korean grammar, negation serves as a way to create either partial or complete negation of a sentence's content. Korean negative sentences are typically formed by adding negation words such as (1) 'ani(아니)', shortened to 'an(안)', (2) 'mot(못)', (3) '-ji antha(-지 않다)', (4) '-ji mothada(-지 못하다)', and (5) '-ji malda(-지 말다)' (Kim et al., 2018; Martin, 1992). 'An(안)' is placed before verbs and adjectives, while 'mot(못)' is also placed before verbs. Additionally, negation can be created by adding suffixes such as '-ji antha(-지 않다)', '-ji mothada(-지 못하다)', or "-ji malda" (-지 말다) to the end of a verb. Another method is to use the word "aniyo" (아니요) at the beginning of a sentence to indicate negation.

'An(안)' is a basic word functioning as an independent adverb in Korean. In Indonesian, 'an(안)' can be equivalent to 'tidak (no/not)'. It shows negation by simply being placed before a verb to express denial, as in 'an gada(안 가다)', meaning 'tidak pergi(do not go)'. 'An(안)' negates 'gada(가다)(to go)' without forming a compound word. 'An(안)' is a free morpheme, capable of standing alone as an adverb for negation, and can be placed directly before verbs, conveying a clear negative meaning.

'Anida(아니다)' is a base form used as an independent adverb. In Indonesian, 'anida(아니다)' corresponds to 'bukan(not to be)'. It conveys a negative meaning and can be placed in front of nouns to express denial. For example, in "hwesawon anida(회사원 아니다)", which means "bukan karyawan(not an employee)", 'anida(아니다)' negates 'hwesawon(회사원)' (employee) without forming a compound word. 'Anida(아니다)' is a free morpheme that stands alone as an adverb to express negation, allowing it to be directly positioned before nouns with a clear negative meaning.

'Mot(못)' is another basic word functioning as an adverb, meaning 'cannot' or 'not able to'. When placed before a verb, 'mot(못)' indicates an inability to perform an action. For instance, "mot gada(못 가다)" means "tidak bisa pergi(cannot go)". 'Mot(못)' negates the meaning of 'gada(가다)(to go)' without requiring any additional morphological changes. Like 'an(안)', 'mot(못)' is a free morpheme that can stand alone as an adverb to express inability, maintaining a complete negative meaning when placed before verbs without additional morphemes.

'-Ji antha(-지 않다)' is a compound form that creates a derived negative structure. Here, '-ji(-지)' connects with a verb or adjective and is followed by 'antha(않다)' to convey a negative meaning. For example, '-gaji antha(가지 않다)' means 'tidak pergi(do not go)'. '-Ji(-지)' combines with 'gada(가다)(to go)' to form a more formal negation or emphasize the negative meaning. '-Ji antha(-지 않다)' consists of the bound morpheme '-ji(-지)' and '-antha(-않다)'. The morpheme '-ji(-지)' has no meaning on its own and must be attached to a verb, followed by '-antha(-않다)' to fully convey negation.

'-Ji mothada(-지 못하다)' is also a compound form that denotes inability or impossibility. '-ji(-지)' combines with a verb and '-mothada(못하다)', meaning 'cannot', to add a sense of inability. For example, '-haji mothada(하지 못하다)' means "tidak bisa melakukan(cannot do)". Together,

‘-ji(-지)’ and ‘-mothada(못하다)’ clearly express inability. ‘-ji mothada(-지 못하다)’ includes the bound morpheme ‘-ji(-지)’ and the additional morpheme ‘-mothada(못하다)’. As with ‘-ji antha(-지 않다)’, the morpheme ‘-ji(-지)’ must combine with a verb and be followed by ‘-ji mothada(-지 못하다)’ to convey the meaning of inability.

‘-ji malda(-지 말다)’ is another compound form used for prohibition or commands. ‘-ji(-지)’ connects with a verb, and ‘-malda(말다)’ means ‘do not’. For instance, “gaji malda(가지 말다)” means “jangan pergi(do not go)”. Together, ‘-ji(-지)’ and ‘-malda(말다)’ create a prohibitive meaning. ‘-ji malda(-지 말다)’ consists of the bound morpheme ‘-ji(-지)’ and ‘-malda(말다)’. The morpheme ‘-ji(-지)’ must connect to a verb and be followed by ‘-malda(말다)’ to indicate prohibition or a request to refrain from doing something.

In summary, ‘an(안)’ and ‘mot(못)’ are free morphemes, whereas ‘-ji antha(-지 않다)’, ‘-ji mothada(-지 못하다)’, and ‘-ji malda(-지 말다)’ are compound forms involving bound morphemes.

The negation ‘anida(아니다)’ is used to negate sentences with the pattern ‘myeongsa(명사) + ida(이다)(noun + to be)’. In Indonesian, this structure is equivalent to ‘nomina + adalah(noun + to be)’. The ‘nomina + adalah’ functions as the predicate in a sentence. However, when ‘anida(아니다)’ is used, the subject particle ‘ilga(이/가)’ is added to the noun, and ‘ida(이다)’ is replaced with ‘anida(아니다)’ to express negation. An example of this pattern can be seen in sentence (6). If the predicate is a verb or adjective, then the adverb ‘an(안)’ or the expression ‘-ji antha(-지 않다)’ is used to form a negative sentence.

(8) Negation with *-ilga anida(이/가 아니다)* > In Indonesian "*Bukan*"

- a. *Jeo geonmureun hakyoida.* (저 건물은 학교이다.) (That building is a school.)
- b. *Jeo geonmureun hakyogga anida.* (저 건물은 학교가 아니다.)
(That building is not a school.)

Sentence (8) a is a sentence where the predicate is ‘noun + to be’, indicating that the subject *Jeo geonmul(저 건물)* ‘has certain attributes, one of which is being a *byeongwon(병원)*’ or ‘hospital’. The negative sentence in (8) b can be interpreted in two ways. First, it may reject the attribute of the subject, indicating that *Jeo geonmureun(저 건물)* [that building] is not a *hakyoo(학교)* [school], but may serve another purpose, such as a hospital, office, or mall. Second, it could imply that the building referred to is not *Jeo geonmureun(저 건물)* [that building], but perhaps a different building. In this case, ‘anida(아니다) [not]’ is used to indicate that the attribute of the subject does not match what is stated, whether in terms of its characteristics or the subject itself.

As explained earlier, if the predicate is a verb or adjective, the adverb ‘an(안)’ or the expression ‘-ji antha(-지 않다)’ is used to create a negative sentence. This is done by adding ‘an(안) [not]’ in front of the predicate or by adding ‘-ji antha(-지 않다) [not]’ at the end of the predicate.

(9) Negation with *-an(안)* and *-ji antha(-지 않다)* [*Tidak*] in Verbal Sentences

- a. *Minsuga sagwareul meokneunda.* (민수가 사과를 먹는다.)
[Minsu eats an apple.]
- b. *Minsuga sagwareul an meokneunda.* (민수가 사과를 안 먹는다.)

[Minsu does **not** eat an apple.]

- c. *Minsuga sagwareul meokji **aneunda**.* (민수가 사과를 먹**지 않는다**.)
[Minsu does **not** eat an apple.]

(10) Negation with *-an* (안) and *-ji antha* (-지 않다) [*Tidak*] in Adjectival Sentences

- a. *Gaeul haneuri Yeupeuda.* (가을 하늘이 예쁘다.)
[The autumn sky is beautiful.]
b. *Gaeul haneuri **an** Yeupeuda.* (가을 하늘이 **안** 예쁘다.)
[The autumn sky is **not** beautiful.]
c. *Gaeul haneuri Yeupeuji **antha**.* (가을 하늘이 예쁘**지 않다**.)
[The autumn sky is **not** beautiful.]

In sentences (9) b and c, we see negative sentences for a positive sentence with the verb ‘eat’. Meanwhile, in sentences (10) b and c, we have negative sentences for a positive sentence with the adjective ‘beautiful’. Sentences (9) b and (10) b are examples of short-form negation created by adding ‘*an*(안)[not]’ before the predicate, while sentences (9) c and (10) c are examples of long-form negation created by adding ‘*-ji antha*(-지 않다)[not]’ at the end of the predicate.

In long-form negation, ‘*-ji antha*(-지 않다)’ can be used after a verb to function as a verb or after an adjective to function as an adjective. This can be understood through the use of ‘*meongneunda*(먹는다)[to eat]’ and ‘*meokji anheunda*(먹지 않는다)[not eat]’ in (9), and ‘*yepeuda*(예쁘다)[beautiful]’ and ‘*yepeuji antha*(예쁘지 않다)[not beautiful]’ in (10).

When the predicate is a derived or compound verb, the use of ‘*an*(안)’ is not allowed. In this case, the type of predicate determines that only the long-form negation is permitted, while the short-form negation is not. This rule also applies to the negation form ‘*mot*(못)’, which will be explained later.

(11) Negation with *-an* (안) and *-ji antha* (-지 않다) [Not] for words ending with the suffix *-ha* (하)

- a. *Naneun busaneuro isaheta.* (나는 부산으로 이사했다.)
[I moved to Busan.]
b. *Naneun busaneuro **an** isaheta.* (나는 부산으로 **안** 이사했다.)
[I did **not** move to Busan.] (×)
c. *Naneun busaneuro isahaji **anhata**.* (나는 부산으로 이사하지 않았다.)
[I did **not** move to Busan..] (○)

(12) Negation with *-an* (안) and *-ji antha* (-지 않다) [Not] for Words with Prefixes.

- a. *Seohae badaneun saeparatha.* (서해 바다는 새파랗다.)
[The western sea is blue.]
b. *Seohae badaneun **an** saeparatha.* (서해 바다는 **안** 새파랗다.)
[The western sea is **not** blue.] (×)
c. *Seohae badaneun saeparat**ji antha**.* (서해 바다는 새파랗**지 않다**.)
[The western sea is **not** blue] (○)

(13) Negation with *-an* (안) and *-ji antha* (-지 않다) [Not] for Words with Other Suffixes.

- a. *Ge yojaneun areumdapta.* (그 여자는 아름답다.)
[That woman is beautiful.]
- b. *Ge yojaneun an areumdapta.* (그 여자는 안 아름답다.)
[That woman is not beautiful.] (×)
- c. *Ge yojaneun areumdapji antha.* (그 여자는 아름답지 않다.)
[That woman is not beautiful.] (○)

(14) Negation with *-an*(안) and *-ji antha*(-지 않다) [Not] for Compound Words

- a. *Minsuga geu ireul mamurijiota.* (민수가 그 일을 마무리지었다.)
[Minsu completed that work.]
- b. *Minsuga geu ireul an mamurijiota.* (민수가 그 일을 안 마무리지었다.)
[Minsu did not complete that work.] (×)
- c. *Minsuga geu ireul mamurijitji antha.* (민수가 그 일을 마무리짓지 않았다.)
[Minsu did not complete that work.] (○)

In examples (11), (12), and (13), words such as ‘*isahada*(이사하다)[move]’, ‘*saeparatha*(새 파랗다)[blue]’, and ‘*areumdapta*(아름답다)[beautiful]’ are derived words, while in example (14), ‘*mamurijita*(마무리짓다)[complete]’ is a compound word. Additionally, in (14) c, there is a past tense suffix ‘-at(-았)’ attached to the negation ‘-*ji antha* (-지 않다)[not]’.

It’s important to note that when the past tense suffix is used in a negative sentence with the long-form negation ‘-*ji antha*(-지 않다)[not]’, the suffix must come after the negation, not before it. It is incorrect to say ‘*mamurijitji antha*(마무리지었지 않다)’ instead, it should be ‘*mamurijitji anthata*(마무리짓지 않았다)’.

Generally, derived and compound words used as predicates allow the use of the long-form negation, as seen in (11) c through (13) c, but do not allow the short-form negation, as in (11) b through (13) b. Below is a list of verbs and adjectives for which the short-form negation cannot be used (Kim et al., 2018).

- a. **Derived verbs with the ‘-hada (하다)’ suffix**, such as *gongbuhada* (공부하다) [to study], *yongguhada* (연구하다) [to research], *undonghada* (운동하다) [to exercise], *yakhada* (약하다) [to be weak], *chulbarada* (출발하다) [to depart], *noraehada* (노래하다) [to sing], *chucheonhada* (추천하다) [to recommend].
- b. **Derived adjectives formed with prefixes**, such as *hwigamta* (휘감다) [to wrap around], *bitnagada* (빚나가다) [to miss], *jitbalta* (짓밟다) [to trample], *eokseda* (억세다) [to be strong], *jaepareuda* (재빠르다) [to be quick].
- c. **Derived adjectives formed with suffixes**, such as *giutgeorida* (기웃거리다) [to peek], *kalbagida* (갈박이다) [to blink], *jeongdapta* (정답다) [affectionate], *seulgiropta* (슬기롭다) [wise], *jarangsereopta* (자랑스럽다) [proud].
- d. **Adjectives formed from the combination of two words or free morphemes**, such as *apseoda* (앞서다) [to go ahead], *ogada* (오가다) [to go back and forth], *gapsada* (값싸다) [cheap], *ireumnada* (이름나다) [famous].

The following are examples of using the negations ‘*mot*(못)’ and ‘-*ji mothada*(-지 못하다)’ in sentences. The examples (13) and (14) below illustrate the use of both.

(15) Negation ‘-*Mot*(못)’ and ‘-*ji mothada*(-지 못하다)’ [Cannot] in Verbal Sentences

- a. *Ije deo georeulsu ita.* (이제 더 걸을 수 있다.)
[Now I can walk even more.]
- b. *Ije deo mot geonneunda.* (이제 더이상 못 걷는다.)
[Now I cannot walk.]
- c. *Ije deo geotji mothanda.* (이제 더이상 걸지 못한다.)
[Now I cannot walk.]

Sentences (15) b and c show that the speaker cannot walk any further due to exhaustion. In (15) b, the short negation ‘*mot*(못)’; is used, while in (15) c, the long negation ‘-*ji mothada* (-지 못하다)’ is used. Both of these negations serve only to deny the action. Therefore, they are generally attached only to verbs. The rule for ‘-*ji mothada*(-지 못하다)’ is similar to the negation ‘-*ji antha*(-지 않다)’ in that, when combined with the past tense ending ‘-*at/eot*’(-았/었), it must be attached after the negation, not before it. Another rule for the use of ‘-*ji mothada*(-지 못하다)’ is that it can also be attached to certain adjectives, even though it was previously stated that ‘-*ji mothada*(-지 못하다)’ is generally only used with verbs (Lee, Ramsey, 2000; Sohn, 1999). Some adjectives commonly used with ‘-*ji mothada*(-지 못하다)’ can be seen in example (16) below.

(16) Negation ‘-*Mot*(못)’ and ‘-*ji mothada*(-지 못하다)’ [Cannot] in Adjectival Sentences

- a. *Jo haksengi toktokhaji mothada.* (아이가 똑똑하지 못하다.)
[That student does not have intelligence.]
- b. *Jo siktang eumsigi uri emsikmankeum masitji mothada.*
(저 식당 음식이 우리 음식만큼 맛있지 못하다.)
[The food at that restaurant cannot be as delicious as the food at our restaurant.]

‘-*ji mothada*(-지 못하다)’ is attached to the adjectives ‘smart’ and ‘delicious’. The negation ‘-*ji mothada*(-지 못하다)’ can be used with certain adjectives that indicate an ability to achieve that state. The following is an example of using the negation ‘-*ji malda*(-지 말다)’.

- (17) a. *Younghwareul boara.* (영화를 보아라.)
[Watch the movie.]
- b. *Younghwareul boji mar.* (영화를 보지 말아.)
[Do not watch the movie.]
- c. *Younghwareul boji malja.* (영화를 보지 말자.)
[Let's not watch the movie.]

The expression ‘-*ji malda*(-지 말다)’ means ‘to prohibit’. As a negative constituent, ‘-*ji malda*(-지 말다)’ differs from ‘-*an*(안)’ and ‘-*ji antha*(-지 않다)’, which are used in declarative sentences, whereas ‘-*ji malda*(-지 말다)’ appears in imperative or command/request sentences. In commands and requests, ‘-*malda*(말다)’ changes to ‘-*ji malda* (-지 말다)’. This form ‘-*ji malda*’ indicates the speaker's intent or desire. A limitation to keep in mind when using the negation ‘-*ji malda*(-지 말다)’ is that the past tense suffix ‘-*at/eot*’(-았/었)’ cannot be attached before it.

(18) Double Negation

-*an* -(*eu*)*myeon an dweda*(-안 -(으)면 안 되다)[not allowed if not]

-*ji aneumyeon an dweda*(-지 않으면 안 되다)[not allowed if not]

-*ji aneulsuopta*(-지 않을 수 없다)[cannot not]

a. *I yageul an mogeumyeon an dwenda.*

(이 약을 안 먹으면 안 된다.)

[It is **not** allowed if you do **not** take this medicine.]

b. *I yageul mokji aneumyeon an dwenda.*

(이 약을 먹지 않으면 안 된다.)

[It is **not** allowed if you do **not** take this medicine.]

c. *Saram-eun yangsimeul jikhiji aneulsu opta.*

(사람은 양심을 지키지 않을 수 없다.)

[A person **cannot** help but protect their conscience.] (Kim et al., 2018)

Double negation is a negation that contains two forms of negation in a single verb or adjective. Sentences a to c above are examples of double negation, and these sentences convey a strong affirmative meaning.

4.3. Contrastive Analysis of Negation in Indonesian and Korean

4.3.1. Similarities in Negation in Indonesian and Korean

A. Morphologically:

1. Using Free Morphemes for Some Forms of Negation. Both languages use free morphemes as the basis for negation. In Indonesian, negation is expressed through free morphemes like '*tidak*(not)', '*bukan*(not for nouns)', and '*jangan*(don't)'. Meanwhile, in Korean, negation is conveyed through free morphemes such as '*an*(안)[not]', '*mot* (못)[cannot]', and '*anida*(아니다)[not for nouns]'.
 2. Having Adverbial Negation Placed Before Verbs or Verb/Adjective Phrases. Both languages include negations that function as adverbials and are always placed in front of verbs or verb phrases or adjectives. An example of such negation in Indonesian is '*tidak*(not)', and in Korean, it is '*an*(안)'. Both function as adverbs that can be placed before verbs/adjectives to negate the action or state.

B. Syntactically:

1. For the negations '*tidak*' in Indonesian and '*an*(안)' in Korean, both are placed in front of verbal or adjectival phrases, making them consistently positioned within verbal or adjectival sentences.
2. Negation in both Indonesian and Korean can be used in various types of sentences, including statements, questions, commands, prohibitions, and exclamations.
3. Both languages have negations specifically for prohibiting or negating imperative verbal and adjectival sentences.
4. Both languages have negation forms to express inability, which are either placed in front of or attached to the end of verbal phrases.

4.3.2. Differences in Negation between Indonesian and Korean

A. Morphologically:

1. Indonesian has prefixes such as ‘nir-’, ‘non-’, and ‘tan-’ that form negation for nouns and adjectives, whereas Korean does not have similar prefixes to mark negation.
2. Korean uses bound morphemes to form long-form negation, such as ‘-*ji antha*(-지 않다) [not]’ and ‘-*ji mothada*(-지 못하다)[cannot]’, whereas Indonesian does not have bound morpheme combinations for negation; its negation forms remain free-standing (e.g., ‘*tidak*’ or ‘*bukan*’, which can stand alone).

B. Syntactically:

1. Korean has long-form negation placed after verbs or adjectives, such as ‘-*ji antha*(-지 않다)[not]’ and ‘-*ji mothada*(-지 못하다)[cannot]’. In Indonesian, negation always appears at the beginning of the phrase, not at the end or separated from the verb or adjective.
2. In Korean, the negation for prohibition is ‘-*ji malda*(-지 말다)[do not]’, a combination of two bound morphemes that must be attached directly to the end of a verb phrase. In contrast, Indonesian uses ‘*jangan*’, a free morpheme that is placed before the verb phrase.
3. To express ‘inability’ in Indonesian, an adverbial phrase ‘*tidak bisa*(cannot)’ is used, with ‘*bisa*(can)’ following the negation ‘*tidak*(not)’. In Korean, long-form negation is used, as it involves a bound morpheme combination (-*ji/-지*) with the verb (*mothadal* 못하다), and it attaches directly to the verb phrase.
4. Negation in Nouns with Subject Markers in Korean: Korean uses ‘*anida*(아니다) [not]’ with a subject particle ‘*ilga*(이/가)’ for nouns (e.g., “*bakyoga anida*(학교가 아니다) [not a school]”), while Indonesian simply uses ‘*bukan*’ without additional markers (e.g., “*bukan sekolah*[not a school]”).

Double Negation in Korean. In Korean, double negation places two forms of negation in a single phrase to create an affirmative meaning, as in “-*ji aneumyeon an dweda* (-지 않으면 안되다)[must be done]”. This differs from Indonesian, where double negation typically appears independently without creating an affirmative meaning.

5. DISCUSSION

The similarities in negation placement between Indonesian and Korean, where negation is placed before verbs or verb phrases, such as ‘*tidak*’ in Indonesian and ‘*an*(안)’ in Korean, can help Indonesian learners understand the basic structure of Korean negation. Additionally, both languages allow the use of negation in various sentence types, such as statements, questions, commands, prohibitions, and exclamations, providing a familiar foundation for learners to understand its contextual use. Moreover, the concept of negation to express inability, like ‘*tidak bisa*’ in Indonesian and ‘*mot*(못)’ in Korean, is also similar, making comprehension easier since both languages use negation to indicate inability.

On the other hand, Korean has long-form negation, such as ‘-*ji antha*(-지 않다)’ and ‘-*ji mothada*(-지 못하다)’, which is placed after verbs or adjectives. Unlike Indonesian, which places negation at the beginning of the phrase, this placement may be challenging for Indonesian learners,

especially since Korean long-form negation uses bound morphemes. Additionally, prohibitive forms in Korean are often expressed with ‘-*ji malda*(-지 말다)’; a combination of bound morphemes that must attach to the end of a verb phrase. This differs from Indonesian, where ‘*jangan*’ is simply placed at the beginning of a verb phrase, potentially causing confusion for learners when they need to combine bound morphemes for prohibitive sentences in Korean.

Negation with nouns in Korean is often accompanied by a subject particle, as in the phrase “학교가 아니다(*hakyoga anida*)[not a school]”, which involves a particle not present in Indonesian. In Indonesian, only the word ‘*bukan*’ is placed before the noun, making this a possible challenge for Indonesian learners. Additionally, Korean has the concept of double negation, which can result in an affirmative meaning, as in the phrase “-*ji aneumyeon an dweda* (-지 않으면 안 되다)[must be done]”. This structure is different from double negation in Indonesian, which does not produce an affirmative meaning, so learners may need time to understand the logic behind this double negation and its impact on sentence meaning.

Just as Indonesian learners face challenges, learners from other countries also encounter unique difficulties in mastering Korean negation. [Sohn \(1999\)](#) and [Brown \(2010\)](#) show that English speakers face certain challenges in learning negation in Korean. One of the main difficulties is the difference in negation placement, especially with long forms such as ‘-*ji antha* (-지 않다)’ and ‘-*ji mothada*(-지 못하다)’. These forms require speakers to place the negation morpheme after the verb, which contrasts with English, where negation is typically placed before the verb. This difficulty often requires learners to adjust their understanding of Korean negation structure, which is not always intuitive for native English speakers.

Similarly, understanding ‘-*ji mothada*(-지 못하다)’, which indicates inability, poses challenges. For English learners, this concept is typically expressed with a single word, ‘cannot’, without the need for a strict separation of meanings. This requires a deeper understanding of the context for negation use in Korean, as learners need to pay attention to the nuanced meanings and functions of each negation form to avoid miscommunication ([Brown, 2010](#); [Sohn, 1999](#)).

[Kimura and Park \(2012\)](#) compared negation in Korean and Japanese to identify the challenges Japanese learners face when learning Korean negation. Their research found that the morphological structure of the two languages is quite similar, making it easier for Japanese learners to understand Korean negation. However, despite the similarities, differences in usage context can confuse Japanese learners. To understand the challenges faced by Chinese learners, [Zhou and Kim \(2014\)](#) studied how Mandarin speakers learn Korean negation. The two languages share some similarities in long and short negation forms, but there are significant grammatical differences, especially in particle use. This makes it challenging for Mandarin learners to grasp Korean negation. For Southeast Asian learners, such as those from Vietnam, [Le \(2016\)](#) examined the difficulties Vietnamese learners face in learning Korean negation. While the two languages have similar negation forms, the prohibitive form in Korean, such as ‘-*ji malda*(-지 말다)’ with bound morphemes, is a specific challenge for Vietnamese learners who are accustomed to a simpler prohibitive structure.

6. CONCLUSION

Based on the above explanation, it can be concluded that negation in Indonesian and Korean has some similarities, particularly in the use of free morphemes like ‘*tidak*’ and ‘*an* (안)’ which are placed before verbs. This similarity can assist Indonesian learners in understanding the basic structure of negation in Korean. However, there are also significant differences, especially in

Korean's long-form negation, such as '-*ji antha*(-지 않다)' and '-*ji mothada*(지 못하다)', which are placed after verbs or adjectives. For Indonesian learners, the placement of negation at the end of clauses and the use of bound morphemes often present difficulties, as it differs from the simpler negation structure in Indonesian.

Furthermore, Korean has specific prohibitive forms such as '-*ji malda*(지 말다)' and the concept of double negation, which can result in an affirmative meaning, both of which are not found in Indonesian. These differences highlight the need for a deep understanding of Korean negation structure to avoid negative transfer from Indonesian. By understanding these differences and similarities through a contrastive analysis approach, learners can more easily adapt to the negation rules in Korean and reduce the likelihood of errors.

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