



10.2478/topling-2020-0010

Clause and predicative constituents in an Austronesian language: Lampung language

Afrianto,^{1,2*} Eva Tuckyta Sari Sujatna,¹ Nani Darmayanti,¹ Farida Ariyani,³
Jessamine Cooke-Plagwitz⁴

Universitas Padjadjaran,¹ Universitas Teknokrat Indonesia,² Universitas Lampung,³ Indonesia,
Northern Illinois University,⁴ USA

Abstract

This research is conducted qualitatively and aimed at patterning and describing clause and sentence structure in Lampung language through the configuration of its constituents. Regarding the constituents, Lampung has two types of clause: minor and major clauses. A minor clause is indicated by only one constituent, which is commonly a subject, predicate or adjunct. Regarding its function, it can be classified as vocative, shown by exclamation (*Wuy!*, *Huy!*); a greeting, as shown by an expression (*tabikpun ngalam pukha*); and an Arabic greeting (*assalamualaikum*). On the other hand, a major clause minimally consists of a subject and predicate, and apart from these there can also be an object, complement and adverbial. Furthermore, this research finds various categories that can act as predicative constituents: they are a verb/verbal phrase, adjective/adjective phrase, and noun/nominal phrase. Additionally, a copular verb (*iyulah*) and existential marker (*wat*) can also be the predicate. This research also reveals that in a sentence two or more clauses are connected by a conjunction, and then this conjunction becomes an indicator of dependent clauses. Also, a dependent clause can be found after the subject or the object of the independent clause.

Key words

Clause, dependent, independent, Lampung, predicative constituent

1. Introduction

Aimed at endangered language preservation, this research presents an exploration of Lampung language. The language is unpopular with people living in Lampung province. This is caused by two factors: 1) Lampung language is situated in a society which has heterogeneous cultures and languages; and 2) the Indonesian language is more popular and the only alternative language for communication among people with a different language background. This situation has led to Lampung language becoming endangered. Moreover, Ethnologue (2020) notes that this language is categorized as a threatened language. Therefore, this research is intended to explore Lampung language and to capture linguistic features that are different from other languages. The linguistic features explored cover configuration of constituents, predicative constituents structured in clauses, and the construction of dependent and independent clauses in sentences.

According to Walker (1976) and Satun, Arif, Lamsari, Kasmansyah, and Erhamma (1985), linguistically Lampung language operates on several levels: morpheme, word, phrase, clause and sentence. This research focuses on clause and sentence. A clause can consist of a subject, predicate, object, complement and adverbial, but a clause can also have a subject and a predicate only. In a certain

* Address for correspondence: Afrianto, Universitas Padjadjaran, Jalan Raya Bandung-Sumedang KM 5, Sumedang, Indonesia. E-mail: afrianto@teknokrat.ac.id

configuration, a clause can be classified as a sentence. Deterding and Poedjosoedarmo (2001: 85) argue that a sentence has to consist of a subject and predicate (indicated by a verb), and then this sentence can be regarded as a clause. Along with this, Wiratno (2018) states that a clause and a sentence can consist of the same structure: subject and predicate. Furthermore, Alwi, Dardjowidjojo, Lapoliwa and Moeliono (2014: 319) and Chaer (2015) posit that both clause and sentence are syntactical units which have a predicative constituent, but hierarchically a clause is between a phrase and sentence.

This research, in this case, uses the terms clause and sentence. ‘Clause’ refers to a configuration of a subject, predicate, object, complement and adjunct. This is in line with Carter and McCarthy (2006), who argue that a clause has various phrases fulfilling the function of subject, predicate, object, predicative complement, and object. Meanwhile, ‘sentence’ defines a syntactical unit consisting of more than one clause. Along with this, Börjars and Burridge (2010) and Carter and McCarthy (2006) posit that two or more clauses can form a sentence, for example;

- (1) They came to my house when I was cooking dinner.
- (2) A little boy played around the playground which was made of bamboo.

Each sentence (1 and 2) has two clauses; sentence (1) consists of “They came to my house” and “I was cooking for dinner” and conjunction (when). Here, the conjunction connects both clauses. And then sentence (2) also consists of two clauses: “A little boy played around the playground” and “which was made from bamboo”. The word “which” is also a conjunction and it connects the second clause to the first clause. Berry (2015) calls it a relative word, which means that it indicates a relative clause as found in clause (2). Indicated by a relative word, a clause is then classified as a dependent clause. On the other hand, the other clause (A little boy played around the playground) is an independent clause since it can stand alone and consists of a subject (A little boy), a predicate (played around), and an object (the playground). It is noted that each clause has a predicate realized by a verb, e.g. “came”, “was cooking”, “played” and “was made”. This is characteristic of clauses, and it can also be found in Lampung clauses, for example;

- (3) *Tiyan ngakuk durian sai wat di lamban ni tamong.*
They take durians which are in home suffix grandfather
‘They took durians which were stored in grandfather’s home.’
- (4) *Apak ngemik sepida motor sai dibeli di dealer Honda.*
Father have bicycle bike which bought in dealer Honda
‘Father has a bike which was bought in the Honda showroom.’

Sentence (3) has two clauses; they are “*Tiyan ngakuk durian*” and “*sai wat di lamban ni tamong*”. Both clauses have verbs functioning as a predicate (“*ngakuk*” and “*wat*”), and a conjunction (*sai*). Furthermore, clause (4) also consists of two clauses; they are “*apak ngemik sepida motor*” and “*dibeli di dealer Honda*” and then both are connected by a conjunction (*sai*). Here, the function of this conjunction is to connect the clauses. A clause starting with a conjunction is categorized as a dependent clause. Regarding its function, “*sai*” can be called a relative word. Furthermore, “*sai*” appears after a noun (*durian* and *sepida*) functioning as an object. In this configuration, the dependent clause indicated by “*sai*” modifies the object. Apart from a dependent clause, clauses (3) and (4) also consist of an independent clause which consists of a subject, predicate and noun. It is noteworthy that both English and Lampung have a similar construction, and their predicates are fulfilled by a verb. Moreover, the verb does not always refer to doing, sensing, saying and behaving, but it also can construe a relation between subject and complement. Such a verb acts as a copula. It is also called a linking verb (Deterding and Poedjosoedarmo 2001), for example;

- (5) Covid-19 is a dangerously contagious virus.
- (6) Each nation’s flag represents the wisdom of the country.

Clauses (5) and (6) display the copular verbs; they are “is” and “represent”. These verbs link the complements (a dangerously contagious virus and the wisdom of the country) to the subjects (Covid-

19 and Each nation's flag) and they are thus the predicate. Compared to this configuration, Lampung clauses have as such a copular verb too, for example;

- (7) *Salah sai adat ulun Lampung Saibatin yaddolah Hippun.*
Wrong one custom people Lampung Saibatin is hippun
'One of the customs in Lampung culture from the *Saibatin* clan is *hippun*.'

This clause (7) employs a copular verb (*yaddolah*) which functions as the predicate, while the constituent (*Hippun*) is a complement that modifies the subject (*Salah satu adat ulun Lampung Saibatin*). This is a common structure found in English and Lampung; however, the predicate in Lampung can be fulfilled by another word category, for example;

- (8) *Pumandangan ni helau nihan.*
scenery suffix beautiful very
'The scenery is very beautiful.'

Clause (8) demonstrates a structure which has no verb or copula functioning as the predicate. It just has two phrases; a nominal phrase (*pumandanganni*) and an adjectival phrase (*helau nihan*). Compared to Indonesian grammar, this adjectival phrase can act as the predicate (Alwi, Dardjowidjojo, Lapoliwa and Moeliono 2014: 33). Furthermore, Chaer (2015) calls it an adjectival clause because the predicate is an adjective/adjectival phrase. This structure is not found in English and is characteristic of Malayan language and Nusantara language – Indonesian local languages which come under the umbrella of Austronesian (also including Lampung language). This case makes Lampung different from English and is the fundamental theory in this research. Therefore, this research presents an attempt to configure clause structure based on its constituents and other word categories acting as the predicate (predicative constituents). What is more, this research attempts to provide a contemporary study of Lampung language, since it is noted that the study of this language is limited. There have only been 9 studies from 335 studies on local languages in Indonesia from 1975 to 2007 (Arka 2013). Four of them are Walker (1976), Satun et al. (1985), Udin et al. (1992), and Wety et al. (1992). This research employs them as basal studies since they discuss grammar.

It is noted that Walker (1976) took a specific sub-dialect (Way Lima) which is part of the *Pesisir* dialect and then took a native speaker's speech as the basis of his data. To discuss sentence structure, Walker employed topic-comment construction towards each constituent in a sentence. Compared to Walker's work, the current research discusses clauses and sentences by considering syntactic function such as subject, predicate, object, complement and adjunct and then analyses both spoken and written forms. In this way, both issues differentiate the current research from Walker's.

In contrast with Walker, Satun et al. (1985) conducted research to identify the characteristics of sentence types in Lampung language by considering their functional use in communication such as declarative, interrogative, imperative and exclamative. Along with this, Udin et al. (1992) also did research on Lampung sentences in *Pesisir* dialect. They also found that there are four types of sentences; declarative, interrogative, imperative and exclamative. Moreover, Udin et al. investigated the function of clauses in a sentence. Further, Wety et al. (1992) investigated the configuration of clause and sentence by identifying each constituent. Wety et al. also discussed types of verb based on the presence of an object; they are transitive, ditransitive and intransitive. Regarding the research objective, the current research has the same goal of dealing with the investigation of clause and sentence structure. What makes both different is the object; the current research explored *Pesisir* dialect while Wety et al. investigated *Abung* dialect. Furthermore, compared to Udin et al. and Satun et al., the current research delves deeper than both of them because it does not only identify constituents in clauses and sentences, it also patterns the configuration of each constituent and then investigates the realization of each constituent by considering parts of speech. Moreover, the current research explores the configuration of independent and dependent clauses in a sentence, which both Udin et al. and Satun et al. did not do.

2. Data and method

This research is conducted using an exploratory and descriptive method (Croker, 2009 and Cresswell 2014) and then configures and describes any possible structures of clauses and sentences found in the data; therefore, this research can be said to be conducted using a qualitative method (Stake, 2010).

To have an authentic and original source for the Lampung clauses and sentences, the researchers took data from utterances spoken by a person in charge of a cultural ceremony, through a recording (Silverman, 2015). The session recorded was a performance of a “*pepancokh*”. A *pepancokh* is a musicalized poem. The recordings archived in mp3 file (Clandinin 2007) were transcribed orthographically (Sudaryanto, 2015; Liddicoat, 2007; and Mishler, 1991). Before being examined, the transcription was verified through a *member checking* technique by a native speaker who is an expert in *pepancokh*, in order to make the transcription valid and reliable (Morse 2018). Additionally, this research also has another data source: a Lampung language course book. The use of a Lampung language course book as a data source was in order to have natural and real data (Silverman 2015). It should be noted that the course book is written in a standardized form of Lampung since it is used for educational purposes. However, not all parts of the book were used: only certain passages were examined. Through a documentary search (Atkinson and Coffey 2004), the transcription and passages are examined to set clauses and sentences apart, and then the clauses and sentences are ordered and numbered with numeric notation. The numeric notation consists of three parts: part 1 refers to the order of clauses collected; part 2 shows which data source they’re from (“I” refers to the *pepancokh* and “II” refers to the course book); and part 3 refers to the order of the parts in the *pepancokh* or the passages in the class book; so, for example, in 10/II/V, “10” refers to the tenth clause, “II” shows that the clause was taken from the course book, and “V” refers to the fifth passage.

Both forms of data (clause and sentence) are intended to discuss different configurations. As a note, the term ‘clause’ is used to discuss minor and major clauses, while the term ‘sentence’ is employed to discuss independent and dependent clauses. The relation between independent and dependent clauses can be configured in the form of a sentence. These divisions are based on theoretical frameworks which posit that a sentence can consist of more than one clause (Carter and McCarthy 2006, Börjars and Burridge 2010, Carter and McCarthy 2006, and Osborne 2019).

Furthermore, each clause was investigated to configure its constituents, and then these constituents were patterned based on their configuration and syntactic functions. Another thing that this research projected is to configure predicative constituents in order to investigate the realization of predicates based on parts of speech. Simply put, this research applied three steps of analysis: identifying elements in clauses and sentences; analysing and characterizing their configuration; and then patterning their structure based on these characteristics.

3. Findings and discussion

This part presents the findings and discussion. The discussion is divided into three parts; they deal with minor clauses, major clauses, and independent and dependent clauses. The discussion of minor clauses covers two types: vocative and greeting. The second discussion (on major clauses) presents the configuration of constituents in clauses such as subject, predicate, object, complement and adjunct. It also discusses parts of speech which realize predicative functions. Finally, the third discussion highlights the structures of sentences which have more than one clause, by configuring the connection between clauses and connecting devices (conjunction or relative words).

3.1 Minor clauses

A minor clause is indicated by an incompleteness of constituents. This means that the clause does not have the constituents normally required for a clause. It is noteworthy that this kind of clause is found in conversation, and commonly it is a response or answer to a speaker’s question. According to Alwi, Dardjowidjojo, Lapoliwa and Moeliono (2014: 371), such a clause is called “*klausu tak lengkap*” (incomplete clause) in which it has no subject or predicate. Clauses (1) to (4) perform the configuration of minor clauses.

1. 1612/II/VII *Niku haga mit dipa? Haga mit sekula.*
You want to where? Want to school
'Where do you want to go? Go to school.'
2. 1613/II/VII *Niku jak dipa? Jak lamban.*
You from where? From home
'Where are you from? From home.'
3. 1614/II/VII *Dipa lamban mu? Di kampung baghu.*
Where home your? In kampung baghu
'Where is your house? In Kampung baghu.'
4. 1627/II/VII *Niku jak dipa? Jak Jakarta.*
You from where? From Jakarta
'Where are you from? From Jakarta.'
5. 2465/II/XIII *Sapa sai haga ghatong jemoh pagi? Kemaman jama minan.*
Who who want come tomorrow morning? Uncle and aunt
'Who will come tomorrow morning? Uncle and aunt.'
6. 2391/II/XIII *Kunpa pusikam mulang? Jemoh*
When you go home? Tomorrow
'When will you go home? Tomorrow.'

The minor clauses are shown in bold, and these clauses are responses to the speakers' questions. It is demonstrated that incompleteness is characteristic; for instance, clause (1) "*haga mit sekula*" consists of a modal (*haga*) and a prepositional phrase (*mit sekula*), and then both of them form the predicate. However, it has no subject. Pragmatically, "*niku*" in the question "*niku haga mit dipa?*" is a personal pronoun used to refer to the addressee, and then to respond to the question, the addressee does not use any pronoun to refer to himself/herself. So, grammatically, the structure is missing a subject, but pragmatically the speaker can understand the person whom the addressee means. To make it complete, a personal pronoun (*sikam* – I) can be added as the subject; "*sikam haga mit sekula*". Another minor clause is also presented in (2); "*jak lamban*". This clause just has a prepositional phrase consisting of a preposition (*jak*) and a noun (*lamban*) and functioning as a predicate, but it does not have a subject. Here a personal pronoun also can assume a subject, for instance "*sikam jak lamban*". Furthermore, clauses (3) and (4) also perform the same configuration. Apart from by a predicate, a minor clause is also realized by a subject, as presented in clause (5). It has the nominal phrase (*kemaman jama keminan*) functioning as a subject, and it does not have a predicate. Regarding the question, the predicate can be "*haga ghatong jemoh pagi*". Furthermore, it is also noted that a minor clause can be in the form of an adjunct, as in clause (6). This minor clause is realized by an adverb (*jemoh*). Therefore, all clauses presented in (1) to (6) are categorized as minor clauses because they are produced as responses to questions, and the addressee tends to omit a personal reference that refers to him/herself.

It is noteworthy that a minor clause in Lampung is indicated by an incompleteness of constituents because of the language-use factor. This factor defines that when a speaker and an addressee have a conversation, they tend not to use an agent (subject) because it directly refers to them and they know the context. Along with this, Alwi, Dardjowidjojo, Lapoliwa and Moeliono (2014: 21) posit that people tend to use language variation which contextually fits with the particular environment and situation in which they communicate and interact, and they can also use a particular variation based on speakers' status and social condition. In this case, it can be stated that language use or language user is a factor in minor clause production.

Compared to Lampung, the Indonesian language also has such a configuration as explained by Alwi, Dardjowidjojo, Lapoliwa and Moeliono (2014: 372), for example:

- Amir : *Kamu tinggal di mana, Min?*
you live in where proper noun
Where do you live, Min?
- Amin : *di Kampung Melayu.*
in Kampung Melayu
in Kampung Melayu.'

Amin's answer (*di Kampung Melayu*) is a minor clause because it just consists of a predicate (the preposition "di" and the name of the place "*Kampung Melayu*"). Regarding Amir's question, the complete structure can be "*Saya tinggal di Kampung Melayu.*" Thus, this structure has similarities to Lampung, moreover, it proves that a minor clause is produced when a conversation takes place and the speakers know each other and know the context. According to *Kamus Besar Bahasa Indonesia* (KBBI, v1.1, 2010 – the Great Indonesian Dictionary), a minor clause or minor sentence is structured and used limitedly, such as with a nickname, title, credo, proverb, and messages in a telegram.

Furthermore, a minor clause can be categorized based on its function in communication. This research found two categories, these are vocative and greeting.

3.1.1 Vocative

A vocative minor clause is found in the form of an exclamation functioning to attract the listener's attention. Regarding the composition of *pepancokh*, this utterance is the opening of a story or message and a caesura between two stanzas, as in excerpt (1).

Excerpt (1)

150. *Sikindua ji kena kayin*
151. *Khappa kidah hani khekhilah*
152. *Di kayin sai patut ngayin*
153. *Sikindua ngatukhkon sembah*
154. *Mahaf pai yu pekhwatın*
155. *Kattubang ajo salah.*

156. **Wuy!!!...**
157. *Tung gertung-gertung*
158. *Bebbai nutu gelepung*
159. *Nak ninak ninak nikkung*
160. *Bunyi ni gamolan*
161. *Tanda ni nikhkham Lampung*
162. *Haga yu wat guwayan*

163. *Temon do kik ya tumbai*
164. *Ganta hino maklagi*
165. *Hinno so khadu lecai*
166. *Andah ni tehnologi*

167. **Huy!!!... wuy!!!...**
168. *Kebayan budaduwai*
169. *Kumpul minak muakhi*
170. *Mulli mekhanai nyambai*
171. *Ketutuk dalih nakhi*
172. *Babbay tuha hukhak hakhai*
173. *Ingok ya lagi mulli*
174. *Khagah ngukha ni mit duwai*
175. *Nyepok iwa yu gulaini*

176. **Huy!!!...**
177. *Temon do kik ya tumbai*
178. *Tinggal bitiyān goh lagi*

The utterances in lines (156, 167 and 176) can be categorized as minor clauses: they are *Wuy!!!*, *Huy!!!*, *Wuy!!!*, and *Huy!!!*. These utterances do not have a subject and predicate, however, they have a function to attract listeners' attention and strengthen the message delivered by the utterer of the *pepancokh*. Furthermore, these utterances are also exclamations indicated by a rising tone/intonation and symbolized with exclamation marks (!). According to Wignel and Gerot (1994), a characteristic of

a minor clause is that it consists of a word or more and has a particular function in a conversation, such as showing surprise, fear or happiness in a particular way. For example *Wow!*, *Oh my God!*, and *Great!*. These expressions are categorized as vocative minor clauses. Along with Wignel and Gerot, it can be stated that based on the characteristics they have, the utterances (156, 167 and 176) are vocative minor clauses. Moreover, it is also in line with Walker (1976) who posits that other exclamations classified as vocatives are ‘*nah*’ (well), ‘*oh*’ (surprise), ‘*awas*’ (watch out!), ‘*aduh*’ (disgust), and ‘*ah*’ (mild disgust).

3.1.2 Greeting

This kind of minor clause is found at the beginning of every *pepancokh*. In excerpts (3 and 4) there are two greetings; they are “*assalamualaikum, alaikummussalam*” in lines (66 and 286) and “*Tabikpun ngalam pukha*” in lines (67 and 287). As a note, “*assalamualaikum, alaikummussalam*” is a greeting in Arabic which is usually used to open a speech or a conversation, and this greeting is also usually followed by a Lampung greeting (*Tabikpun ngalam pukha*). In Lampung culture this greeting is used to show respect to the listener/audience, and it is usually at the beginning before delivering the content of a speech or a talk formally at a particular cultural event.

Excerpt (2)

66. *Assalamualaikum, alaikummussalam*
67. *Tabikpun ngalam pukha*
68. *Ngelawan nikhkham khuppok sai khamik*
69. *Pekhinatin sai mulya*

Excerpt (3)

286. *Assalamualaikum, alaikumsalam*
287. *Tabik pun ngalam pukha*
288. *Ngelawan nikhkham khuppok sai khamik*
289. *Pekhwatin sai mulya*

Each excerpt (2 and 3) was taken from a different *pepancokh* performance. The form of the greeting and where it is used is identified. Furthermore, the utterance (*Tabikpun ngalam pukha*) is also found in excerpt (4), but it is not at the beginning. It is in the middle of the *pepancokh*, and it follows a vocative minor clause (“*Wuy...*”), which is in this case a device to bridge one part to another part in the discourse as explained in the previous point. Regarding the structure of the *pepancokh*, this is a kind of variation of the opening made by the conductor to open and start the performance.

Excerpt (4)

378. *Bismillahirohmannirohim*
379. *Mulani bukak balah*
380. *Lain ulih ni sangkin*
381. *Api lagi kik unggah*
382. *Sikindua ji kena kayin*
383. *Dikayin sai hibul hajah*

384. *Kik injuk ni Muslehuddin*
385. *Haga ngejalankon sunnah*
386. *Khanno yu pekhwatin*
387. *Maksud ni pubalah*
388. *Khanno de pun*

389. *Hi ... Wuy ...*
390. *Tabikpun ngalam pukha*
391. *Ngelawan nikhkham khuppok sai khamik*
392. *Pekhwatin sai muli ya*
393. *Puakhi jak Pekhdasuka*
394. *Khanno munih sai jak Ambarawa*

395. *Sai madang ya seunyin*
 396. *Khanno muneh sai jak ipa-ipa*

In this excerpt (4), the beginning part reveals the reason why the conductor was performing. After that, he went on to the main content of the *pepancokh*. It thus shows that the utterance “*Tabik pun ngalam pukha*” is also a device to open a story/discourse.

3.2 Major clause

In contrast with minor clauses, a major clause in Lampung has a configuration in which it minimally consists of a subject and predicate. These constituents are characteristic of a major clause. Therefore, analysis of constituents is a way to identify a major clause, as in clauses (7) to (9).

7. (088/I/II) *Beliyau hammatkon hadra.*
 8. (235/I/IV) *Sikam mak dapok ngebalos ya.*
 9. (322/I/V) *Sikam khadu nyusahkon tian.*

In clause (7), “*Beliyau*” is a subject while “*hammatkon*” assumes the predicate, and then “*hadra*” is a noun functioning as an object because it is affected by the predicate which is perpetrated by the subject. Regarding their constituents, all clauses (7) to (9) are presented in table 1. In this case, this research provides an attempt to focus more on the word categories functioning as a subject, predicate, object or complement in a clause.

Table 1. Major clauses with a transitive verb as predicate

Clause	Subject	Adjunct	Predicate	Object
7	<i>Beliyau</i> he ‘He plays the drum.’		<i>hammatkon</i> Play	<i>hadra</i> drum
8	<i>Sikam</i> I ‘I can’t even do the same thing to him.’		<i>mak dapok ngebalos</i> not – can – return	<i>Ya</i> him
9	<i>Sikam</i> I ‘I made it difficult for them.’	<i>khadu</i> Have	<i>nyusahkon</i>	<i>tian</i> them

SUBJECT – PREDICATE (verb/verbal phrase)
 SUBJECT – ADJUNCT – PREDICATE (verb/verbal phrase)

Table 1 displays the configuration of complete clauses which minimally consist of a subject and predicate. Furthermore, each constituent employed in those clauses can be categorized based on their word categories. The subject is represented by a pronoun (*sikam*), proper noun (*beliyau*), and compound word (*minak muakhi*). This compound word is categorized as a noun. While the predicate is represented by a verb (*hammatkon*, *mak dapok ngebalos*, and *nyusahkon*), the object is represented by a noun (*hadra*) and pronoun (*ya* and *tian*). Moreover, the predicate in clause (6) is a verbal phrase consisting of a negation marker (*mak*), a modal (*dapok*), and a verb (*ngebalos*). Aside from that, there also is an adverb (*khadu*) found in clause (9), and it signifies an action has been done; therefore it has the function of modifying the predicate (*nyusahkon*). This adverb is usually found before a verb and in this case, this research classifies it as an adjunct (Carter and McCarthy 2006). Compared to bahasa Indonesia, this adverb has the same function as ‘*sudah*’. The adverb ‘*sudah*’ indicates a temporal matter showing an action that has been completed. (Chaer 2015; Alwi, Dadjowidjojo, Lapoliwa and Moeliono 2014; Sneddon, Adelaar, Djenar and Ewing 2010).

It can be seen that a predicate realized by a verb is sometimes followed by an object. In this case, this verb is categorized as transitive. According to Berry (2015), Herring (2016) and Barrett (2016) a transitive verb is indicated by the presence of an object as a recipient of an action construed by a verb. Furthermore, it is also found that in Lampung language a predicate realized by a verb has a configuration of two objects: a direct object and indirect object, as in clauses (10) – (13).

10. (1842/II/XIII) *Mamak nyaniko nakan mainan.*
11. (2634/II/XIII) *Pemeghintah ngeni ya gelagh Pahlawan Nasional.*
12. (3347/II/XIII) *Bapak ghik inai ni ngusungko buku-buku guwai tiyan ghuwa.*
13. (2578/II/XIII) *Akukko nyak wai!*

It is noteworthy that clauses (10) and (11) have a similar configuration; they consist of subjects (*Mamak* and *pemeghintah*) which are nouns, predicates (*nyaniko* and *ngeni*) which are in the form verbs, and objects (*nakan – mainan* and *ya – gelagh Pahlawan Nasional*). Compared to this configuration, clause (12) has a constituent which does not appear in clauses (10) and (11); it is a preposition (*guwai*). This preposition can be an indicator to differentiate an indirect object from a direct object. It can also be applied to clauses (10) and (11); for instance, clause (10); “*Mamak nyaniko mainan guwai nakan*”. Here, “*nakan*” is an indirect object; and then clause (11) “*Pemeghintah ngeni gelagh Pahlawan Nasional guwai ya*” – in this case “*ya*” is also an indirect object. Furthermore, the configuration of direct and indirect objects is also found in imperative clauses, as in clause (13). This clause has a verb (*akukko*) functioning as a predicate. This verb is followed by two objects; “*nyak*” and “*wai*”. To determine the indirect object, applying the preposition “*guwai*” can be an alternative method: “*akukko wai guwai nyak*”. Here, “*nyak*” is an indirect object. Each constituent of these three clauses is presented in table 2.

Table 2. Major clauses with a ditransitive verb as predicate (IO – DO)

Clause	Subject	Predicate	I – Object	D – Object
10	<i>Mamak</i> Uncle	<i>nyaniko</i> buy	<i>nakan</i> niece	<i>mainan</i> toys
	‘The uncle bought toys for his niece.’			
11	<i>Pemeghintah</i> Government	<i>ngeni</i> give	<i>ya</i> him	<i>gelagh Pahlawan Nasional</i> title National Hero
	‘The government awarded him the title of National Hero.’			
13		<i>Akukko</i> Take	<i>nyak</i> me	<i>wai</i> Water
	‘Bring me water!’			

SUBJECT – PREDICATE (verb/verbal phrase) – OBJECT (Indirect Object and Direct Object)
 PREDICATE (verb/verbal phrase) – OBJECT (Indirect Object and Direct Object)

Table 2 displays a configuration of a predicate which is realized by a ditransitive verb. Such a verb can configure direct and indirect objects in a clause. In addition, the position of the indirect object is after the predicate, and it receives something, namely the direct object, while the direct object construes an entity given to the indirect object. This is in line with Wallwork (2016); he argues that a direct object is the thing given or received; on the other hand, an indirect object refers to a thing that the direct object is given to or received by. It is found that applying the preposition (*guwai*) is a way to differentiate a direct object from an indirect object. It can be seen in both tables; table 2 demonstrates a configuration of object without “*guwai*” while table 3 displays “*guwai*”, which is followed by an indirect object.

Table 3. A major clause with a ditransitive verb as the predicate (DO – IO)

Clause	Subject	Predicate	D-Object	I-Object
12	<i>Bapak/ghik/ inai/ ni</i> Father/and/mother/suffix	<i>ngusungko</i> bring	<i>buku / buku</i> book-book	<i>guwai – tiyan/ghuwa</i> for – they/both
‘Their father and mother brought books for them.’				

SUBJECT – PREDICATE (verb/verbal phrase) – OBJECT (Direct Object and Indirect Object)

Along with the configuration of an object, Osborne (2019:7) defines a direct object as an entity which is acted upon while an indirect object as an entity that receives the direct object from the action. As well as a direct or indirect object, a clause can also be structured without an object when the predicate realized by a verb/verbal phrase does not act upon any entities; in other words, it does not have an object. A verb which does not act upon an object is categorized as an intransitive verb. Furthermore, Barrett (2016) posits that an intransitive verb may be followed by an adjective, adverb, preposition or other part of speech.

14. (1410/II/XIII) *Kerita na ratong jam lima.*
15. (855/II/XIII) *Neram kanah pedom di tenda.*
16. (342/I/VI) *Kumpul minak muakhi*

Clauses (14) – (16) demonstrate a configuration of subject, predicate and adjunct. It can be noted that the subjects are realized by nominal phrases (*kerita na* and *minak muakhi*) and pronoun (*neram*). The predicates are realized by verbs (*ratong*, *pedom*, and *kumpul*) and no object is found. Furthermore, adjuncts are found in clauses (14) and (15); those are “*jam lima*”, “*kanah*” and “*di tenda*”.

Table 4. Major clauses with an intransitive verb as the predicate

Clause	Subject	Adjunct	Predicate	Adjunct
14	<i>Kerita na</i> He		<i>ratong</i> come	<i>jam / lima</i> hour / five
‘The train would come at 5.’				
15	<i>Neram</i> We	<i>kanah</i> later	<i>pedom</i> sleep	<i>di / tenda</i> in / tent
‘We will sleep in a tent later.’				
16	<i>Minak muakhi</i> relatives		<i>kumpul</i> gather	
‘All the relatives gathered.’				
SUBJECT – PREDICATE (verb/verbal phrase) – ADJUNCT				
SUBJECT – ADJUNCT – PREDICATE (verb/verbal phrase) – ADJUNCT				
PREDICATE (verb/verbal phrase) – SUBJECT				

Table 4 demonstrates predicates realized by verbs which do not require any recipients of actions (objects) and it is also seen that adjuncts are configured in the middle and at the end of clauses. In this case, a verb which does not require an object is categorized as intransitive. Simply put, Berry (2016) argues that such a verb does not require the presence of an object.

In addition to word categories, an inverted structure is also found in clause (16). Here, the predicate (*kumpul*) is placed at the beginning of the clause and then followed by the subject (*minak muakhi*). Regarding the composition of the *pepancokh*, it is revealed that this structure was intentionally created by the *pepancokh* writer to pattern the same rhyme in a stanza, as shown in excerpt (5).

Excerpt 5

13. *Mulli mekhanai nyambai ketuyuk dalih nakhi*
14. *Kebayan buda duwai, **kumpul minak muakhi***
15. *Babbai tuha hukhak hakhai, ingok ya lagi mulli*

In lines (13 to 15), the rhyme is produced with sound /i/, and then in line (14) the subject (*minak muakhi*) is inverted to the end to have the same rhyme. Besides, in another line as in excerpt (6), this structure is found in a configuration of subject and predicate.

Excerpt 6

20. *Khanno muneh kak haga ngedok guwai*
21. *Kik injukni nanom pakhi*
22. ***Minak muakhi kumpul** yu jadi sai*
23. *Bebatok yu gelakhni*

In line (22), clause (*Minak muakhi kumpul*) has a subject (*minak muakhi*) and predicate (*kumpul*). This structure is commonly found in the data and it means that the clause in line (14) is intentionally inverted for patterning the same rhyme. Furthermore, it is noteworthy that a predicate in a Lampung clause is not always in the form of a verb, but it is also represented by other word categories as in clauses (17 – 20).

17. (480/II/VII) *Raden Intan II pahlawan tanoh Lampung.*
18. (2415/II/XIII) *Sinalah pengalaman hikam waktu ghani libur.*
19. (1014/II/XIII) *Ujianni bulan hadap.*
20. (451/I/VI) *Hinji sekedar renunganni dikhi.*

The predicate in clause (17) is a nominal phrase (*pahlawan tanoh Lampung*). A nominal phrase assuming the role of predicate is also found in clauses (18), (19), and (20); they are “*pengalaman hikam*”; “*bulan hadap*”; and “*renungan dikhi*”. Each constituent of these clauses is presented in tables 5a and 5b.

Table 5a. Major clauses with a predicative constituent “noun/nominal phrase”

Clause	Subject	Predicate	Adjunct
17	<i>Raden Intan II</i> Raden Intan II	<i>Pahlawan-tanoh-Lampung</i> hero-land-Lampung	
	‘Raden Intan II is a hero from Lampung.’		
18	<i>Sinalah</i> That	<i>pengalaman hikam</i> experience-my	<i>waktu ghani libur</i> time-day-holiday
	‘That was my experience on holiday.’		
19	<i>Ujian-ni</i> Test-suffix	<i>bulan hadap</i> month-next	
	‘The test will be next month.’		

Table 5b. A major clause with an adjunct between subject and predicate

Clause	Subject	Adjunct	Predicate
20	<i>Hinji</i> This	<i>sekedar</i> just	<i>renunganni-dikhi</i> contemplation-self
	‘This is just self-contemplation.’		
	SUBJECT – PREDICATE (nominal phrase) – ADJUNCT		
	SUBJECT – ADJUNCT – PREDICATE (nominal phrase)		

Tables 5a and 5b display major clauses with a predicate represented by a nominal phrase. In this pattern, these clauses can also be classified as nominal clauses. Along with this, Chaer (2015) and Alwi, Dadjowidjojo, Lapoliwa and Moeliono (2014) label this clause as a nominal clause, since it contains a noun/nominal phrase functioning as a predicate. Kroon (1998) also found this structure in *Lamaholot* language (another local language of Indonesia). It is also shown that a subject is not only represented by a personal pronoun and a noun phrase, but it is also represented by demonstratives (*hinji* and *sina*). The demonstrative (*sina*) is added by a particle (*lah*), and here this particle is intentionally used by the speaker to strengthen the information. Furthermore, this demonstrative functions as a determiner (Walker 1976 and Börjars and Burridge 2010). What is more, both tables show the position of adjuncts – after and before the predicate.

On the other hand, clause (21) has a copular verb (*iyulah*) operating as the predicate while the nominal phrase (*sekura sai kecah*) is the complement modifying the subject (*sekura kecah/betik/helau*). Hence, this clause demonstrates a different word category for its predicate.

21. (528/II/IX) *Sekura Keca/betik/helau iyulah sekura sai kecah.*

Table 6. Major clauses with a copular verb as the predicate

Clause	Subject	Predicate	Complement
21	<i>Sekura kecah-betik-helau</i> Sekura kecah-betik-helau	<i>iyulah</i> is	<i>sekura-sai-kecah</i> sekura-which-kecah
‘Sekura kecah is sekura which is good.’			
SUBJECT – PREDICATE (copula)			

The copular verb (*iyulah*) functionally relates the subject and the complement. Besides, there are also other word categories acting as predicates, as in clauses (22 to 26). For example, clause (22) has a verb (*wat*) functioning as the predicate and construing the existence of an entity that is signified by the subject (*sughat-sughat hinji*). Other than a subject and predicate, this clause also has an adjunct (*di museum Jakarta*) which in this case modifies the subject by providing information about where the entity exists.

- 22. (494/II/VII) *Sughat-sughat sinji wat di museum Jakarta.*
- 23. (525/II/IX) *Topengni kamak.*
- 24. (2411/II/XIII) *Hati hikam temon-temon seneng.*
- 25. (3059/II/XIII) *Penggaghis hinji meccong.*
- 26. (574/II/XIII) *Nyak betik-betik bugawoh.*

Clauses (23) – (26) demonstrate a predicate which is performed by different word categories. For example, in clauses (23) and (25), the predicates are adjectives (*kamak* and *meccong*), while clauses (24) and (26) employ adjectival phrases (*temon-temon seneng* and *betik-betik bugawoh*). The researchers use the term ‘phrase’ to refer to a configuration which consists of more than one word. This research uses different categories for an adjective and adjectival phrase in order to show variation. An adjectival phrase is a combination of minimally two words in which the adjective is the head (Chaer 2015, Börjars and Burridge 2010, and Udin, Akhyar, Rejono and Sanusi 1992). It is also noteworthy that all subjects in these clauses are nominal phrases and each consists of a different configuration: “*sughat-sughat sinji*” and “*penggaghis hinji*” (both consist of nouns “*sughat*” – “*penggaghis*” and demonstratives “*sinji*” – “*hinji*”); “*topengni*” (has the noun ‘*topeng*’ and suffix *-ni*); and “*hati hikam*” (consists of the noun ‘*hati*’ and possessive pronoun ‘*hikam*’). Otherwise, the subject in clause (26) is a personal pronoun or first-person singular ‘*nyak*’. Each constituent is presented in table 7.

Table 7. Major clauses with the predicative constituent “existential verb” (existential marker), “adjective/adjectival phrase”

Clause	Subject	Predicate	Adjunct
22	<i>Sughat – sughat – sinji</i> Letter – letter - this	<i>wat</i> is	<i>di – museum – Jakarta</i> in – museum – Jakarta
	‘These letters are archived in the Jakarta Museum.’		
23	<i>Topeng – ni</i> Mask – suffix -ni	<i>kamak</i> ugly	
	‘This mask is ugly.’		
24	<i>Hati – hikam</i> Heart – my	<i>temon – temon – seneng</i> very – very – happy	
	‘I feel truly happy.’		
25	<i>Penggaghis hinji</i> Ruler – this	<i>meccong</i> oblique	
	‘This ruler is oblique.’		
26	<i>Nyak</i> I	<i>betik – betik – gawoh</i> fine – fine – just	
	‘I am just fine.’		
SUBJECT – PREDICATE (existential marker: <i>wat</i>) – ADJUNCT			
SUBJECT – PREDICATE (adjective/adjective phrase)			

It is thus shown that a subject and a predicate in a clause can be represented by various word categories. It is noteworthy that word categories that can act as a predicative constituent are the verb/verbal phrase, noun/nominal phrase, and adjective/adjective phrase, while the subject is represented by the pronoun and noun/nominal phrase; and the complement is found in the form of a noun phrase.

Furthermore, clauses can be configured in a sentence and are connected by a conjunction. Regarding the relation between clauses in a sentence, a clause can be categorized into two types; they are the independent clause and the dependent clause. In Lampung grammar, it is found that the major clause is automatically categorized as an independent clause. Here, to differentiate an independent clause from a dependent clause this research provides data in the form of sentences consisting of at least two clauses.

3.3 Independent and dependent

An independent clause is defined as a major clause which has a complete idea or subject-predicate structure and is not dependent on another clause. The complete idea means that the subject and predicate are connected directly.

27. (436/I/VI) *Khanno muneh sai penghepak kaban sai ngatukh dunia ji.*
28. (503/II/VIII) *Tiyan sai ghadu diken i pandai lamun haga wat begawi adat dapok ghatong guwai nyimah jama sai ngedok gawi.*
29. (504/II/VIII) *Di lom kesempatan sina munih ulun sai ngedok begawi adat kilu dua ghik dukungan pегhwatin sai diundang jeno.*
30. (483-1/II/VII) *Beliau bejuwang ngelawan penjajah sai wat di tanoh Lampung,*

Table 8. Configuration of sentences with three to four clauses

S	IC	DC 1	DC 2	DC 3
27	<i>Khanno-muneh</i> is-also	<i>sai-penghepak-kaban</i> which-	<i>sai-ngatukh-dunia-ji</i> which-manage-word-this	
	‘There is also the greatest one who ... and control this world.’			
28	<i>Tiyan-dapok-ghatong-guwai-nyimah</i> They-can-come-for-help	<i>sai-ghadu-dikeni-pandai</i> which-have-tell-know	<i>lamun-haga-wat-begawi-adat</i> If-want-is-party-custom	<i>sai-ngedok-gawi</i> which-have-work
	‘Those who have been told about the cultural ceremony can come to help the one who will conduct it.’			
29	<i>Di-lom-kesempatan-sina-munih-ulun-kilu-dua-ghik-dukungan-peghwatin¹</i> In-inside-chance-that-also-person-ask-prayer-and-support-pekhwatin	<i>sai-ngedok-begawi-adat</i> which-have-party-custom	<i>sai-diundang-jeno</i> which-invite-later	
	‘At that moment, the person who will conduct the cultural ceremony also can ask the <i>pekhwatin</i> ’s prayers and support, especially the <i>pekhwatin</i> who will be invited.’			
30	<i>Beliau-bejuwang-ngelawan-penjajah</i> He-fight-against-colonizer	<i>sai-di-tanoh-Lampung</i> which-in-land-Lampung		
	‘He fought against the colonizers in Lampung.’			

Note: S is for Sentence. IC is for Independent Clause. DC is for Dependent Clause.

Sentence (27) has three clauses: they are “*Khanno muneh*”, “*sai penghepak kaban*”, and “*sai ngatukh dunia ji*”. “*khanno moneh*” is a clause indicating the existence of the entity and this existence is indicated by “*khanno*” which in this case is an existential marker functioning as the predicate. As a note, this clause does not have an entity functioning as the subject; it just has an adverb (*muneh*) which construes an additional and same thing. Regarding the discourse (data source), the entity (subject) has been mentioned and discussed in the previous sentences, therefore in this sentence (27), there is an existential marker used to refer to the entity. On the other hand, the second clause (*sai penghepak kaban*) consists of a conjunction (*sai*) which is categorized as a relative word (Berry 2016), and a nominal phrase (*penghepak kaban*) functioning as the predicate. The conjunction connects this clause to the first clause, and it makes this second clause a dependent clause. Meanwhile, Carter and McCarthy (2006: 271) classify such a clause as a subordinate clause and the conjunction as a subordinating conjunction. Furthermore, this conjunction is also found in the third clause (*sai ngatukh dunia ji*). Other than a conjunction, this third clause consists of a verb (*ngatukh*) functioning as the predicate, and a nominal phrase (*dunia ji*) as the object. Starting with a conjunction, the third clause is classified as a dependent clause as well. In such a relation, the first clause is an independent clause which is modified by two other clauses, and then the second and the third clause are also called relative clauses. This is in line with Chomsky (2002), Carter and McCarthy (2006), and Börjars and Burridge (2010); they posit that

¹ *Pekhwatin* is a group of people or local organization that manages and rules a clan or a particular society in a particular area of Lampung (Irham 2013).

a relative clause is indicated by ‘who’, ‘which’ and ‘that’. It is noteworthy that an independent clause has a configuration of subject, predicate and object; while a dependent clause is configured by a subordinating conjunction (relative word) and predicate. Here, this configuration is an indicator to differentiate a dependent clause from an independent clause. Furthermore, from the perspective of Functional Grammar, a configuration of independent and dependent clauses forms a complex sentence (Thompson 2014, and Deterding and Poedjosoedarmo 2001).

In addition, sentence (28) has four clauses; they are 1) “*sai ghadu dikenai pandai*”, 2) “*lamun haga wat begawi adat*”, 4) “*dapok ghatong guwai nyimah*”, and 5) “*jama sai ngedok gawi*”. Here, “*Tiyan*” is the subject of clause (4) “*dapok khatong guwai nyimah*”, which has a configuration of subject, predicate and adjunct. Therefore, this is an independent clause. Otherwise, clause (2) is inserted in the independent clause and employed to modify the subject (*tiyan*). Considering its conjunction and function, it is a dependent clause. Furthermore, the clause (2) begins with another conjunction (*lamun*). This conjunction projects the word “*pandai*” in clause (4) by providing more detailed information. In bahasa Indonesia, the equivalent is ‘*bahwa*’. According to Chaer (2015:95), it is used to connect two clauses in which one clause explains another; and Sneddon, Adelaar, Djenar and Ewing (2010) label it as a ‘*bahwa* clause’. Furthermore, clause (5) consists of two conjunctions (*jama* and *sai*). It is noteworthy that clauses which begin with a conjunction, such as ‘*sai*’, ‘*lamun*’ and ‘*jama*’, are classified as dependent clauses, which function to modify a constituent in an independent clause.

The next sentence (29) has three clauses; they are 1) “*sai ngedok begawi adat*”, 2) “*kilu dua khik dukungan pekhwatin*”, and 3) “*sai diundang jeno*”. This sentence also has other constituents which are categorized as adjuncts; they are a prepositional phrase (*di lom kesempatan sina*) and an adverb (*munih*). Furthermore, this sentence demonstrates an independent clause (*ulun kilu dua khik dukungan pekhwatin*) which consists of subject (*ulun*), predicate (*kilu*), and object (*dua khik dukungan pekhwatin*) while two other clauses are initiated by a conjunction (*sai*). Regarding the construction, clause (1) modifies the subject (*ulun*) about someone who will conduct a cultural ceremony while clause (3) modifies the object (*dukungan pekhwatin*) about people who will be invited. Considering the conjunction and their function, both clauses (1) and (3) are categorized as dependent clauses. From this sentence (29), it can be stated that a dependent clause can modify either subject or object.

Furthermore, sentence (30) has two clauses; they are 1) “*Beliau bejuwang ngelawan penjajah*” and 2) “*sai wat di tanoh Lapping*”. Clause (1) has complete constituents: a subject (*Beliau*), predicate (*bejuwang ngelawan*), and object (*penjajah*). It has a complete idea without needing another clause, so it is an independent clause. On the other hand, clause (2) consists of a conjunction (*sai*), a predicate (*wat*), and adjunct (*di tanoh Lapping*) and thus functions to modify the object (*penjajah*). Therefore, it is a dependent clause.

Regarding their position, the dependent clauses come after noun/nominal phrases functioning as subject (as in 28 and 29) and object (as in 28, 29, and 30). Three more sentences feature dependent clauses too.

31. (301/I/V) *Kattu ku sekhahkon lawan Tuhan Sai Maha Bijaksana.*
32. (484/II/VII) *Tentara Belanda sai dikighim mit Lapping selalu gawoh kalah.*
33. (2321/II/XIII) *Beliyau segha-ghanini nyepok nafkah guna nyukupi api sai dipeghluko keluarga.*

Table 9. Configuration of a sentence with two clauses

S	IC	DC 1
31	<i>Kattu-ku-sekhahkon-lawan-Tuhan</i> now-I-surrender-to-God 'Now, I just surrender it to God who is the Wise.'	<i>sai-Maha-Bijaksana</i> which-the greatest-wise
32	<i>Tentara-Belanda-selalu-gawoh-kalah</i> Troop-Dutch-always-just-defeat 'The Dutch troops who were sent to Lampung were always defeated.'	<i>sai-dikighim-mit-Lampung</i> which-send-to-Lampung
33	<i>Beliau-seghani-ghani-ni-nyepok-nafkah-guna-nyukupi</i> He-day-day-suffix-take-income-for-fulfil 'Every day he works to fulfil the family's necessities.'	<i>api-sai-dipeghluko-keluarga</i> what-which-need-family

Sentence (31) has two clauses; they are 1) “*Kattu ku serahkon lawan Tuhan*” and 2) “*sai Maha Bijaksana*”. It is found that the second clause begins with a conjunction (*sai*) followed by the predicate (*Maha Bijaksana*); it is therefore a dependent clause and modifies the object (*Tuhan*). On the other hand, the first clause is independent because it has a complete idea and a configuration of subject (*ku*) – predicate (*sekhahkon*) – object (*lawan Tuhan*) and thus can stand alone without the second clause.

To differentiate a dependent clause from an independent clause, the appearance of conjunction (*sai*) is an indicator, as seen in sentence (32). This conjunction initiates the clause “*dikighim mit Lampung*”. Regarding its function, the clause modifies the subject (*tentara Belanda*) in the independent clause, which consists of a subject (*Tentara Belanda*), adjunct (*selalu gawoh*), and predicate (*kalah*). Moreover, this configuration is also demonstrated in sentence (33). Here, a dependent clause is at the end of the sentence and modifies the word (*api*). The combination of “*api*”, “*sai*”, and “*dipeghluko keluarga*” can also be categorized as a nominal clause functioning as the object for the clause “*Beliyou seghanini nyepok nafkah guna nyukupi*”. Along with this explanation, Alwi, Dardjowidjojo, Lapoliwa and Moeliono (2014: 400) posit that a nominal clause can act as an object. This configuration can be compared to English, for example “Father works every day to fulfil what the family needs.” Here “what the family needs” is a nominal clause functioning as the object (Deterding and Poedjosoedarmo 2001 and Börjars and Burridge 2010).

It is noteworthy that a dependent clause is defined as a clause which does not have a complete idea or meaning because it functions to modify or elaborate or attribute a particular constituent in an independent clause. Commonly, the subject and object are modified constituents. Furthermore, a dependent clause is indicated by a conjunction (“*sai*” and “*lamun*”) followed by a predicate in the form of a verb/verbal phrase, noun/nominal phrase, or adjective/adjective phrase. Furthermore, the configuration of dependent and independent clauses in a sentence can be patterned based on their position.

- 1) The first pattern: a dependent clause can be in the middle between the subject and the predicate of the independent clause;
subject + conjunction + dependent clause + predicate.
- 2) The second pattern: a dependent clause can be at the end of the independent clause;
subject + predicate + object + conjunction + dependent clause.
- 3) The third pattern: a dependent clause can be at the beginning and at the end of the independent clause at the same time;
subject + conjunction + dependent clause + predicate + object + conjunction + dependent clause.

4. Conclusion

It can be reported that a Lampung clause normally minimally consists of subject and predicate. On the other hand, there is also another type of clause that only has one constituent (usually a subject or a predicate or a predicative constituent) and then it is called a minor clause. It is found that a Lampung minor clause can be distinguished from its function; there are two types of minor clause found – vocative and greeting. A vocative (minor clause) can be in the form of exclamation (*Huy!*, and *Wuy!*). It is

noteworthy that such a clause is indicated by a rising tone and is used to attract the audience's attention (in the context of a *pepencokh* performance) and give a caesura or a bridge between two stanzas in which each stanza presents different content or story. Otherwise, the greeting (another minor clause) is used to greet and open a stanza or a story or a speech. It is usually found at the beginning of a *pepencokh*. There are two utterances classified as greetings – they are '*assalamualaikum*' (derived from the Arabic expression) and '*Tabikpun ngalam pukha*'. Compared to Walker (1976), this research presents a new finding besides '*assalamualaikum*': it is '*Tabikpun ngalam pukha*'. It is used to greet and respect audiences and it is used after '*assalamualaikum*'.

In contrast with the minor clause, the configuration of major clause is also found in Lampung language. Such a clause is indicated by a complete configuration which consists of a subject, predicate, object, complement and adjunct. It is found that a subject and object are represented by a pronoun, proper noun and noun/nominal phrase. A predicate in Lampung clauses can be represented by three categories, namely the verb/verbal phrase, adjective/adjective phrase, and noun/nominal phrase. Furthermore, it is also found that a copular verb (*iyulah*) and an existential marker (*wat*) can act as the predicate. The copular verb is used to relate a complement to the subject. The complement can be a noun/nominal phrase. An existential marker indicates the existence of an entity, which is in this case the subject. In addition, it can be reported that the adjunct construes spatial and temporal information which can be either in the form of a prepositional or adverbial phrase and can be in some positions; at the beginning, in the middle, and at the end.

This research also reveals that two or more clauses can be connected in a configuration of a sentence. The connection is indicated by the conjunction and thus the connection and the conjunction distinguish a dependent clause from an independent clause. Thus, it is exposed that a dependent clause is begun with the conjunction (relative word). The most common conjunction found is '*sai*'; there is also another conjunction found – '*lamun*'. In other words, both conjunctions configure the relative clause. In this case, a dependent clause modifies a constituent in the independent clause; it can be subject or object.

Regarding the findings, this research presents detailed information of the realization of constituents functioning syntactically in clauses in the form of specific parts of speech. Furthermore, the findings of the position of adjuncts in clauses and dependent clauses in sentences enrich the study of Lampung language. Besides discussing predicative constituents, this research is intended to show a different perspective of the predicate to English and it can be a representation of bahasa nusantara in Indonesia, especially austronesian languages.

Acknowledgment

Special thanks to *Dirjen Dikti RI* for their financial support and *Direktur Sumberdaya* and all their staff for the sandwich-like programme. We would also like to thank our fellow native speakers for the transcription checking and consultation.

References

- Alwi, H., Dardjowidjojo, S., Lapoliwa, H., and Moeliono, A. M., 2014. *Tata bahasa baku bahasa Indonesia*. Jakarta: Balai Pustaka.
- Arka, I.W., 2013. Language management and minority language maintenance in (Eastern) Indonesia; Strategic Issue, *Language Documentation and Conservation* vol. 7, pp. 74-105.
- Atkinson, P. and Coffey, A., 2004. Analysing documentary realities. In: David Silverman, *Qualitative research: theory, method, and practice*. London: Sage Publications, pp. 56-75.
- Barrett, G., 2016. *Perfect English Grammar: the Indispensable Guide to Excellent Writing and Speaking*. California: Zephyrus Press.
- Berry, R., 2015. *From Words to Grammar: Discovering English Usage*. London and New York: Routledge.
- Börjars, K. and Burridge, K., 2010. *Introducing English grammar* (2nd Ed). London: Hodder Education.
- Carter, R. and McCarthy, M., 2006. *Cambridge grammar of English*. UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Chaer, A., 2009. *Sintaksis bahasa Indonesia: pendekatan proses*. Jakarta: Rineka Cipta.
- Chomsky, N., 2002. *Syntactic structures*. Paris: Mouton Publishers.
- Clandinin, J. D., 2007. *Handbook of narrative inquiry: mapping a methodology*. California: Sage Publication, Inc.

- Creswell, J. W., 2014. *Research Design: Quantitative, Qualitative, dan Mixed Method*. California: Sage Publication Inc.
- Crocker, R. A., 2009. An introduction to qualitative research. In: Heigham, Juanita & Crocker, Robert A. (eds.), *Qualitative research in applied linguistics: A practical introduction*. London: Palgrave Mcmillan, pp. 3-24.
- Deterding, D. H., Poedjosoedarmo, G. R., 2001. *Grammar of English*. Singapore: Prentice Hall.
- Ethnologue – Languages of the world. 2020. A language of Indonesia. [Accessed 26 September 2020]. Available at: [https:// www.ethnologue.com/language/ljp](https://www.ethnologue.com/language/ljp)
- Gerot, L. and Wignell, P., 1995. *Making sense of functional grammar* (2nd ed). Sydney: Gerd Stabler.
- Herring, P., 2016. *The Farlex Grammar Book: Complete English Grammar Rules*. Ireland: Farlex International.
- Irham, M. A., 2013. Lembaga Perwatin dan Kepunyimbangan dalam masyarakat adat Lampung: analisis antropologis. *Analisis*, vol. XIII, no. 1, pp. 155-172.
- Kroon, Y. B., 1998. *Syntactic description of Lamaholot: sentence structure and grammatical relations*. Master Thesis. University of Melbourne.
- Liddicoat, A. J., 2007. *An introduction to conversation analysis*. London: Continuum.
- Mishler, E. G., 1991. Representing discourse: the rethoric of transcription. *Journal of Narrative and Life History*, vol. 1, pp. 255-280.
- Osborne, T., 2019. *A Dependency Grammar of English: an Introduction and beyond*. Amsterdam/Philadelphia: John Benjamin Publishing Company.
- Satun, A. R., Arif R. M., Lamsari, K. and Erhamma, 1985. *Struktur bahasa Lampung*. Jakarta: Pusat Pembinaan dan Pengembangan Bahasa, Departemen Pendidikan dan Kebudayaan.
- Silverman, D., 2015. *Interpreting qualitative data*. London: Sage Publication Ltd.
- Sneddon, J. N., Adelar, A., Djenar, D. N. and Ewing, M. C., 2010. *Indonesian reference grammar* (2nd ed). Crow's Nest, New South Wales: Allen and Unwin.
- Stake, R. E., 2010. *Qualitative research - studying how things work*. New York: the Guilford Press.
- Sudaryanto, 2015. *Metode dan Aneka Teknik Analisis Bahasa*. Jogjakarta: Duta Wacana Universitas Press.
- Udin, N. et al., 1992. *Tata bahasa bahasa Lampung dialek Pesisir*. Jakarta: Pusat Pembinaan dan Pengembangan Bahasa, Departemen Pendidikan dan Kebudayaan.
- Walker, D. F., 1976. *A grammar of Lampung language: the Pesisir dialect of Way Lima*. Jakarta: Badan Penyelenggara Seri Nusa.
- Wallwork, A., 2016. *English for Academic Research: Grammar, Usage and Style*. New York: Springer.
- Wety, N., 1992. *Struktur Bahasa Lampung Dialek Abung*. Jakarta: Departemen Pendidikan dan Kebudayaan.
- Wiratno, T., 2018. *Pengantar ringkas linguistik sistemik fungsional*. Yogyakarta: Pustaka Pelajar.