

## CAUSATIVE CLAUSE CONSTRUCTION OF WEWEWA LANGUAGE: A MORPHOSYNTACTIC STUDY

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### Abstract

This research aimed to find out the causative construction on the clauses of Wewewa language either on formal and semantic parameters. This was classified as qualitative research. The object of this research was the Wewewa language on Southwest Sumba regency in East Nusa Tenggara province. The data were collected through observation and interview with some informants. The result of this research showed that based on formal parameter; there are three categories to form causative construction. The first is analytic causative that use the causative word *tuka* “ask; the second is morphological causative construction that use the copy pronoun *pa-* to be added onto the root of a verb or on an adjective to make it to a causative verb; the third is lexical causative that use some causative lexicons such as *todi* ‘close’, etc. Based on the semantic parameter, it was found that true causative and permissive causative are seen from the control given by the agent. Semantic parameter also has the same pattern but has different in meaning.

**Keywords:** *causativ clause construction, Wewewa language, morphosyntactic study*

### Abstrak

Penelitian ini bertujuan untuk menjelaskan konstruksi kausatif pada klausa bahasa Wewewa baik pada parameter formal dan semantis. Penelitian ini merupakan penelitian jenis kualitatif. Objek penelitiannya yaitu bahasa Wewewa yang terletak di kabupaten Sumba Barat Daya di provinsi Nusa Tenggara Timur. Data dikumpulkan melalui observasi dan wawancara dengan beberapa informan. Adapun hasil penelitian ini menunjukkan bahwa berdasarkan parameter formal, ada tiga kategori untuk membentuk konstruksi kausatif. Kategori yang pertama yaitu kausatif analitik dengan menggunakan kata kerja *tuka* ‘meminta’, yang kedua yaitu kausatif morfologis dengan menggunakan kata awalan *pa-* yang ditambahkan pada akar kata kerja atau kata sifat untuk membuatnya menjadi kata kerja; yang ketiga yaitu kausatif leksikal dengan menggunakan leksikon kausatif seperti *todi* ‘menutup’, dan lainnya. Berdasarkan parameter semantis, ditemukan kausatif sejati dan kausatif permisif yang terlihat dari kontrol yang diberikan oleh agen. Parameter semantis juga memiliki pola yang sama, namun memiliki makna yang berbeda.

**Kata Kunci:** *konstruksi kausatif, bahasa Wewewa, studi morfosintaksis*

### 1. Introduction

Wewewa tribe is a group of people who lives on the island of Sumba, West Sumba, and Southwest Sumba in East Nusa Tenggara Province. Southwest Sumba District has eight subdistricts: Kodi, Kodi Bangedo, North Kodi, Laura, West Wewewa, South Wewewa, East Wewewa, and North Wewewa. The language which is used as a lingua franca is called Wewewa language (WL).

WL has its uniqueness. The uniqueness can be seen from the morpho-syntactic behavior of the use of copy

pronoun (CP) which always follows the elements of the subject, which is attached to the verb and adjective slot. Subject *yauwa* ‘I’ is followed by the CP *-ku*, *wo’u* / *yo’u* ‘you’ followed by the CP *-mu*, and so on. For more details, see the examples below:

(1) *Yauwa ku-malle*  
1SG CP-run  
‘I run’

(2) *Wo’u mu-malle*

2SG CP-run

'You run'

In the examples above (1) and (2), copy pronoun (CP) is used as a subject position that is -ku, of yours, -ma coupled with intransitive verbs *malle* 'run' and an element of cohesion markers reflection subject *yauwa*, *wo'u* and *yamme* in WL.

Causative construction itself implies a relationship between cause and effect. Or, in other words, the causative construction is stating "X causes Y into Z". Generally, such a relationship is due to the placement of the causative conjunctions contained in a construction clause/sentence, as the word because, because of, therefore, and so forth. However, in this study, the researchers did not examine the use of conjunctions of these causatives but just looked at the presence of causative verbs and causative meaningful only. This can be seen in the following examples

(3) *Yauwa ku-palu na'i ata.* (lexical causative)

1SG CP-hit the person.

'I hit the person'

(4) *Joni na-pa-karodukka ate ina-na.*

Nama CP-pref-hurt heart mother-his

'Joni hurt his mother'

(Morphological causative)

(5) *Ina na-pa-tuka-wa Delsi wo'i mei.*

Mother CP-CAUS-order-PART Name buy salt

'Mother asked Delsi to buy salt'

(Analytic causative)

The word *palu* 'hit' in the sentence (3) is a lexical causative because where no elaborate a result, readers will immediately know that *na'i ata* 'the man' pain by the action performed by the agent. In sentence (4) *karodukka ate*, the word 'hurt' is a phrase which, if constructed in the form of the causative, it requires affixation, prefix *pa-*, in this case, becomes *pakarodukka ate* 'hurt'. While the sentences (5) for the use of causative verbs *tuka* 'make'. It is engaged two components in construction. They are the component "*Ina na-pa-wa-tuka Delsi*" and the component serves as a result of the "*Delsi wo'i mei*".

Regarding the lingual facts mentioned above, the problems that need to be solved in this research are that the basic clause structure of WL; the type of causative contained in WL; and how the mechanism of formation of causative constructions is in the WL. This paper attempts to solve the above problems by using a causative approach raised by Comrie (1989) and a lexical grammar approach proposed by Bresnan (2001), Dalrymple (2001), and Falk (2001).

The term is used here to describe the causative situations contained in a causative construction, while the process of formation of the causative construction itself

termed causativization. The main theory in this study is the theory proposed by Comrie (2011) dealing with the aspects of causative. Causative construction involves two components or elements, namely the element of cause and effect. According to Comrie (2011), based on the formal parameters (morphosyntactic parameters), the causative is divided into three types, namely the type of lexical causative, which is expressed by a lexicon without going through the process of productive morphological causative, the causative is formed through a process of affixation, and analytic causative, the causative using causative verbs, such as to cause, ask (tell), etc.

In addition to the formal parameters, the other parameter also used in causative construction is semantic (Comrie, 2011). With these parameters, the causative is distinguished by the level of control that is received by the caused and the closeness of the relationship between the components of cause and effect in the macro or the situation of causative itself.

Based on the degree of control that is received by causee, Comrie (2011) distinguishes true causative and permissive causative. In the second construction, the component "because", in this case, the agent, has control over whether or not the component occurs as a result. In true causative, because the components (causer) can affect, whereas in the permissive causative because the component or agency can prevent the occurrence of a result. Consider the examples (6) and (7) below.

In example sentence (6), the cause of John cannot do anything to avoid due to his broken arm, while on the other hand, John in the sentence (7) can prevent the ball from the rolled result.

Furthermore, based on the closeness of the relationship between cause and effect components, he distinguishes direct causative and indirect causative. The direct causative component is the cause and effect relationship that is very close, while the latter is far away. Although the cause is always followed by a component, components result in an indirect causative component due to the occurrence of sometime after the component occurs.

(6) Sister dropped the ball.

(7) Mother heated water for sister.

The closeness of the relationship between the components because the sister did something to the ball and the ball fell component due to the sentences (8) is straightforward, because the ball fell occur immediately after the brother did something to the ball. Meanwhile, the sentences (9) component because the hot water does not occur as quickly as the ball fell. Maternal action to do something about the water-heat your-not directly make into hot water.

## 2. Research Method

Method used in this research was descriptive qualitative. Moleong, (2018) defines qualitative research as research used for understanding the phenomenon that

happened to subjects or objects of the research. The phenomena in this research is the causative construction on Wewewa language clauses.

Data of this research are taken from observation and interview with some informants. Data were analyzed with several stages such as: 1) collecting data, 2) transcribing data, 3) classifying data, 4) analyzing data, 5) making conclusion. Data are made in gloss to give true meaning on each clause. All data presented on this paper are validated to answer the research problems

## 2.1 Literature Review

### 2.1.1 Clause

A clause is a sentence consisting of only a verb or verbal phrase accompanied by one or more constituents that are syntactically related to the verb (Verhaar, 1996: 162). A clause is also a syntactic unit consisting of two or more words that contain elements of predication (Alwi, et al., 2000: 312).

Not much different from Verhaar and Alwi, et al., Kroeger (2009: 53) also defines a clause as a grammatical unit that requires a predicate and argument. Meanwhile, Chalker, et al (1994) said that a clause is a grammatical unit whose level is in the structure above the phrase and below the sentence.

In this study, the concept of a clause is aligned with the concept of a sentence because the clause that is meant here is a sentence consisting of a predicate, either a simple predicate, namely a predicate which only consists of a verb or other category as a filler of the predicate function, or a complex predicate, namely a predicate which is filled with more than one verb.

### 2.1.2 Complex Predicate

Basically, a complex predicate is a term that refers to a predicate which morphologically can consist of a verb but its semantic impression is complex or consists of several verbs which also have a complex meaning. Baker (1997: 247) argues that the term complex predicate refers to any complex predicate semantically, syntactically, and morphologically. Meanwhile, Alsina (1997: 1) argues that complex predicates are defined as multi-head predicates, consisting of more than one grammatical element (both morpheme and words).

The term complex predicate cannot be separated from the term serialization of verbs because predicates are verbs that determine the number of agents in a clause. Verb serialization, as stated by Matthews (1997: 339), is one of two or more verbs that are consecutive without being associated with particles, clitics, and other connectors. In terms of the structure of serial verbs, Verhaar (1996: 188) explains that the structure of serial verbs is a predicative structure with more than one main verb (usually two), such that no verb is dependent on other verbs.

### 2.1.3 Causative

The main theory in this study uses the theory proposed by Comrie (1989) which deals with the causative aspect. Causative construction involves two components or elements, namely the elements of cause and effect. According to Comrie (1989), based on formal parameters (morphosynchronous parameters), causative is divided into three types, namely lexical causative type, causative expressed by a lexicon without going through a productive process, morphological causation, namely causative that is formed through the affixation process, and causative analytic, namely causative by using causative verbs, such as cause (to cause), ask (to order), and so on.

Shaitani (1976), in this case, only differentiates causative formation into two types, namely productive causative and lexical causative. Productive causative (similar to analytic causative in Comrie) is a causative that is formed with a causative verb, such as in English cause and make or by using a morphological marker in the form of an affix, for example the suffix {-kan} in Indonesian. The use of causative verbs or affixes really depends on the morphological type of a language, isolation languages tend to use causative verbs, while the affixation process tends to occur in agglutinated languages which are rich in morphological elements. However, it is possible that the two processes can be applied to one language.

In Indonesian, for example, a causative construction is formed by using the verb causative *membuat* (make) or by using the confix {me-kan}. Consider the following examples (2-16) and (2-17) in Bahasa Indonesia.

(2-16) Toni membuat orang itu datang.

(2-17) Toni *mendatangkan* orang itu

Meanwhile, what is meant by lexical causative is a causative which is expressed by a lexicon without going through the production or addition of any causative verbs. The lexicon can independently express causal relationships simultaneously. See examples (2-18) below.

(2-18) A robber kills that man.

Without explaining the consequences, it will be illustrated in the reader's mind *that man* dies due to the activity of the *kill* verb performed by the perpetrator (*a robber*).

In this study, the type of causative offered by Comrie (1989) is applied, namely the analytic causative type, the morphological causative type and the lexical causative type because this type has a firmer meaning and reference. Although Comrie clearly distinguishes causative typology, this linguist himself admits that not all languages can properly be grouped into any of the above types.

Apart from the formal parameters, another parameter used by Comrie (1898) is the semantic parameter. With this parameter, causation is distinguished based on the level of control received by the causee and the closeness of the

relationship between the cause and effect components in the macro or causative situation itself.

Based on the level of control received by causee, Comrie (1989) distinguishes causative into true and permissive causative. In both constructs, the causal component, in this case the agent, has control over whether or not the effect component occurs. In true causative, the causer component has the ability to cause an effect, whereas in permissive causative, the cause or agent component has the ability to prevent the occurrence of an effect. Consider the examples (2-19) and (2-20) below.

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(2-19) John broke his arm.

(2-20) John let the ball rolled.

On example (2-19), the causer *John* cannot do something to avoid the effect of *his arm is broken*, while on the other side, *John* on sentence (2-20) is able to prevent *the ball rolled*. The terms true causative and permissive causative are equated with the terms used by Shaitani (1976) which is *directive* and *manipulative causative*.

Furthermore, based on the closeness of the relationship between the occurrence of cause and effect components, Comrie distinguishes causative into direct causative and indirect causative. Direct causative is a causative whose component of cause and effect has a very close relationship, while indirect causative has a further relationship. Although the causal component is always followed by the effect component, in indirect causative the effect component occurs some time after the causal component has occurred.

(2-21) My brother drop the ball.

(2-22) Mother warm the water for my brother.

The closeness of the relationship between the causal components *my brother does something toward the ball* and the effect component *the ball drop* on sentence (2-21) is directly, because the ball fell occurred immediately after *my brother do something toward the ball*.

While, on sentence (2-22) the effect component *warm water* does not happen as quick as *the ball drop*. The action *mother does something toward the ball – to warm –* not directly make *the water becomes warm*. The terms direct and indirect causation used by Comrie can be compared with the terms point and extent of causation used by Shaitani (1976).

#### 2.1.4 Valence

Valence is a syntactic relationship between the verb and the elements around it, including transitivity and mastery of the verb and its surrounding elements, including transitivity and verb mastery over the arguments around it (Kridalaksana, 2008: 252). In simple terms, valence can be defined as the number of arguments required by a verb to build a sentence (Mayani, 2004: 22).

Haspelmath (2002: 210-211) states that the valence of a verb is the information carried by a verb other than the word class and meaning. The information in question is a syntactic function that is closely related to the role of semantics. In other words, valence consists of two structural parts, namely the syntactic structure (syntactic valence or the so-called function structure) and the semantic valence semantic role structure or argument structure). Haspelmath also saw a link between syntax and morphology in the mechanism of valence change. Valence change is indeed a syntactic phenomenon, but when the change is characterized by certain morphological patterns, the mechanism for changing the valence is a morphological phenomenon (2002: 219).

The change in valence in noncausative constructs and causative constructs will clearly affect the syntactic functions in sentences, namely the function of the subject and the object. In addition, the change in valence can affect the semantic function or the semantic role of arguments in a proposition, namely the arguments of the agent and the patient. Changes in valence in the causative construction are caused by the emergence of new arguments that act as agents (Winarti, 2009: 32)

#### 2.1.5 Grammatical Function Structure (Str - f)

Grammatical functional structure or f-str is a structure that regulates grammatical (and semantic) relations which are considered to be more consistent and contain properties that are constant across languages (Arka, Dalrymple in Kosmas, 2000). The grammatical relation meant here is the relation of syntactic functions, namely the relation of subject, object, oblique. Functions (grammatical) in TLF are associated with the conception that grammatical relations (such as SUBJ, OBJ, etc.) can be modeled with a matrix structure with grammatical relations and other information forming pairs of attributes and values in formal



structures, which are called functional structures (Arka, Alsina, Bresnan, in Kosmas, 2000).

### 2.1.6 Constituent Structure (Str - k)

Constituent structure or c-str is a structure that functions to regulate a more real word order expression relationship (Arka, Alsina, Dalrymple, in Kosmas, 2000). This constituent structure is built on the basis of phrase structure rules that govern the various possible linear and hierarchical word orders in each clause or sentence. The rule of phrase structure conceptually follows the universal rules in X-bar theory, for example, the concept of structure is endocentric; meaning that there is always an axis (head) (Alsina, Arka, in Kosmas, 2000).

### 2.1.7 Lexical-Functional Grammar (TLF)

TLF was first discovered in the 1970s, but a detailed description was only done in 1982 by Ronald M. Kaplan and Joan Bresnan. The two experts were the pioneers of the emergence of the TLF. TLF was built by combining several ideas related to computational considerations and linguistic investigations conducted in 1970 (Dalrymple, et al., 1995: 1; Kaplan and Bresnan, 1995: 30; Bresnan, 2001: 4; Falk, 2001: 3).

Lexical Grammar - Functional belongs to the non-transformational generative grammar based on lexicons (Bresnan, Dalrymple, Falk in Kosmas, 2000). As part of the generative theory, TLF refers to the basic concept of generative, namely grammar consists of a set of modules, certain principles, and certain constraints that form a mechanism capable of producing an unlimited number of language expressions (Arka, 2007: 7).

In contrast to transformational grammar, TLF does not assume the existence of transformation, namely the conversion of "inner structure" to "physical structure" by means of movement mechanisms. Various alternations of birth expressions, such as active-passive which are analyzed as a result of transformation by GB (Government Binding), are analyzed as lexical processes by TLF. The lexical process in question includes differences in the mapping process (see Arka, 2003: 61).

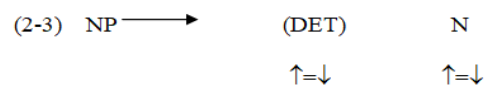
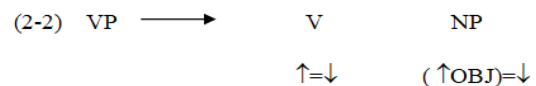
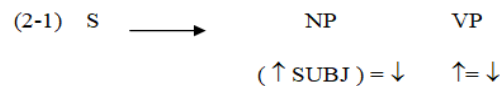
It is further explained that the word 'lexical' in TLF implies a meaning that implies a very important role for lexical information and processes. This means that apart from containing lexical entries that show various information carried by lexical units (words and affixes), lexicons are also a place for various processes of forming words or new lexical units based on various principles and systemic constraints (Kosmas, 2000).

TLF makes lexical entries as a basis, with the basic assumption that an element can be combined with or can present other elements to build a construction, very much

depending on the lexical element itself (Kaplan and Bresnan, Sells, Wescoat and Zaenen, in Kosmas 2000). That means that the lexical element plays a very important role as a determining factor for building a linguistic construction, including sentence construction.

Apart from the word "lexical" as explained above, it is also necessary to explain the meaning of the word "functional" in this theory so that it can be distinguished from functional terms in other theories. The word "functional" in TLF is used in the sense of "mathematical function". Functions in TLF are associated with the conception that grammatical relations, such as SUBJ, OBJ, and so on, can be modeled in a matrix structure with grammatical relations and other information forming pairs of attributes and values in a formal structure, called structure-functional (str-f). Hence, SUBJ, OBJ, and OBL are grammatical functions in TLF.

In relation to the role, TLF expresses it in the form of a functional schema which is connected by an arrow ( $\rightarrow$ ) which is placed in the right position. Examples are as in (2-1), (2-2), and (2-3) below.



The expression ( $\uparrow$  SUBJ) =  $\downarrow$ , and ( $\uparrow$  OBJ) =  $\downarrow$  they

In the example above, it can be seen that each lexical entry contains three things, namely a representation of the unit form, the syntactic category included in that unit, and a list of functional schemas.

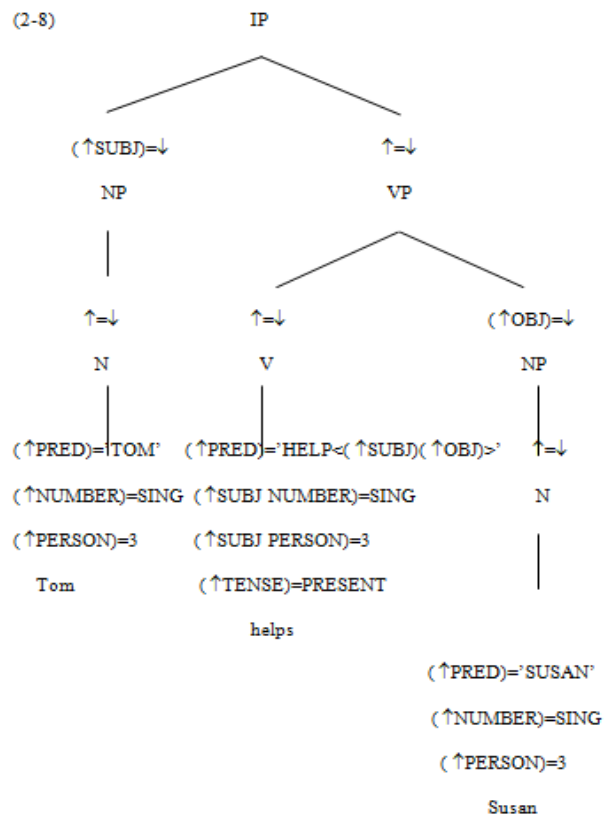
Initially, in TLF theory, grammar was conceived as a system consisting of parallel structures. The most important parallel structure in classical TLF to describe sentences in every language in the world consists of two parallel structures, namely the constituent structure (str-k) and the functional structure (str-f). The idea behind the separation of the two parallel structures is to capture the typological nature of language. Each type of representation born of syntactic relations (str-k and str-f) carries a different type of information: str-k contains information about dominance, precedence, and constituent relations; whereas str-f contains syntactic functional information about notion, such as syntactic argument structure and adjuncts. So, str-f

contains a combination of grammatical function names, semantic forms, and special symbols (Kaplan and Bresnan, 1995: 31).

Furthermore, Arka, in Kosmas, 2000, reveals the fact that there is a diversity of birth expressions (for example the order and morphological complexity) of languages in the world on the one hand, the results of linguistic research also show that languages in the world have many similarities on the side. other, so that generalizations and the universality of language can be conceptualized. TLF captures diversity and universality through str-k and str-f. Str-k functions to regulate word order expressions that are more real and can vary greatly from one language to another, while str-f manages grammatical (and semantic) relations which are more consistent and contain properties that are constant across languages.

Even though the str-k and str-f representations differ from one another, the two structural representations are still an integral part of the TLF data analysis. The formulation of str-f will feel easier, if it is done through the str-k compiler first, although the two things are not always done sequentially or step by step. Not always do str-f after working on str-k.

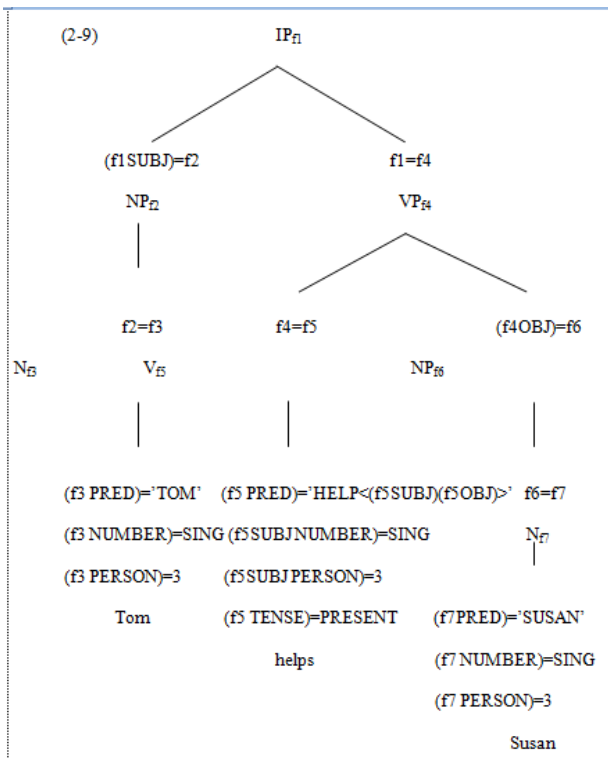
A str-k is defined by a grammar that characterizes all surface structures in a language, not deep structures. The grammar is expressed in a context of free or formally modified formalism such as recursive transitional networks. In the example above, *Tom helps Susan* as shown in diagram (2-8) below.



The functional structure has a matrix of attributes and values, both of which are written horizontally on the same line. Each attribute is associated with a single value. Thus, each attribute may only have a value (Dalrymple, Kaplan and Bresnan, in Kosmas, 2000).

There are three primitive values, namely (1) simple symbols, (2) semantic forms that dominate the semantic interpretation process, and (3) functional structure parts, a number of pairs of sequences that describe the multi-layered complexity of internal functions (Kaplan and Bresnan, 1995)

Furthermore, metavariable *SELF* ( ↓ ) and metavariable *MOTHER* ( ↑ ) function as functional equation on str-k (8) above, is modified to the real variable function symbolized with f (f stands for function). Thus, diagram (2-9) appears as a result of the modification of the constituent structure representation (2-10).

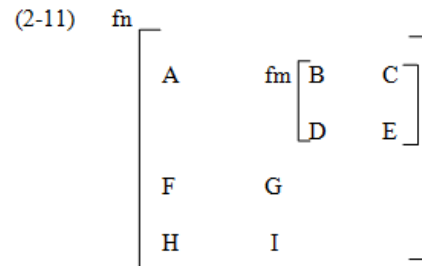


The overall functional equations contained in the constituent structure representation chart, as shown in the diagram above, are called functional descriptions. To facilitate the preparation of str-f, the functional descriptions contained in the chart above are rearranged successively as shown in (2-10) below.

- (2-10) a. (f1SUBJ)=f2  
 b. (f2=f3)  
 c. (f3 PRED)='TOM'  
 d. (f3 NUMBER)=SING  
 e. (f3 PERSON)=3  
 f. (f1=f4)  
 g. (f4=f5)  
 h. (f5 SUBJ NUMBER)=SING  
 i. (f5 SUBJ PERSON)=3  
 j. (f5 TENSE)=PRESENT  
 k. (f5 PRED)='HELP<(f5 SUBJ)(f5 OBJ)>'  
 l. (f4 OBJ)=f6  
 m. (f6=f7)  
 n. (f7 PRED)='SUSAN'  
 o. (f7 NUMBER)=SING  
 p. (f7 PERSON)=3

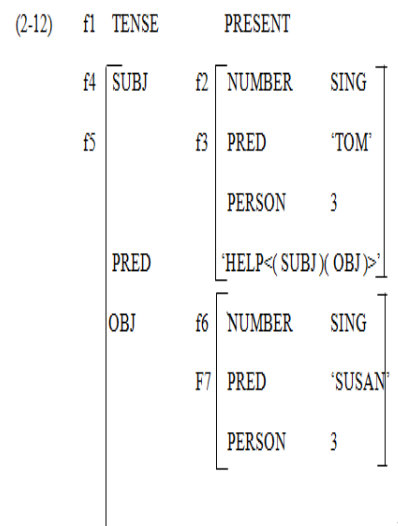
Each str-f contains two lanes, namely the left lane and the right lane, all of which are grouped in square brackets. The left row contains attributes and the right column contains values. Outside the brackets in str-f, the name str-f is written optionally (Wescoat and Zaenen, in

Kosmas, 2000). For clarity, consider the following example (2-11).



The str-f model consists of three elements, namely the name str-f, namely fn and fm; attribute symbols in the form of simple symbols, namely A, F, H, B and D; and values, namely fm, G, I, C and E. Attribute B on str-fm has a value of C, and attribute D has a value of E. All attributes in the f-structure are placed horizontally in pairs with their respective values. F and G in str-f fn means that the functional equation (fn F) = G. Likewise H and I. Str-f fn is the value of attribute A in str-f fn.

By paying attention to the representation of the constituent structure (str-k) in the diagram and functional description, as well as the str-f formation pattern, str-f sentences can be compiled *Tom helps Susan* like on the following (2-12).



In the str-f in figure (2-12) above, there is a symbol for the TENSE attribute which is a simple symbol that has a PRESENT value, alongside other types of values that describe syntactic features. The grammatical function SUBJ has the value str-f as illustrated in Example (2-13) and the grammatical function OBJ in (2-14) below.

(2-13)	<table style="border-collapse: collapse; width: 100%;"> <tr> <td style="padding: 2px 10px;">NUM</td> <td style="padding: 2px 10px;">SING</td> </tr> <tr> <td style="padding: 2px 10px;">PRED</td> <td style="padding: 2px 10px;">‘TOM’</td> </tr> <tr> <td style="padding: 2px 10px;">PERSON</td> <td style="padding: 2px 10px;">3</td> </tr> </table>	NUM	SING	PRED	‘TOM’	PERSON	3
NUM	SING						
PRED	‘TOM’						
PERSON	3						

(2-14)	<table style="border-collapse: collapse; width: 100%;"> <tr> <td style="padding: 2px 10px;">NUMBER</td> <td style="padding: 2px 10px;">SING</td> </tr> <tr> <td style="padding: 2px 10px;">PRED</td> <td style="padding: 2px 10px;">‘SUSAN’</td> </tr> <tr> <td style="padding: 2px 10px;">PERSON</td> <td style="padding: 2px 10px;">3</td> </tr> </table>	NUMBER	SING	PRED	‘SUSAN’	PERSON	3
NUMBER	SING						
PRED	‘SUSAN’						
PERSON	3						

The values quoted from the PRED attribute are semantic forms. Semantic forms usually appear in the lexicon and are carried away by syntactic components as elements that cannot be analyzed like simple symbols. When str-f is interpreted semantically, this form is treated as a pattern to compose a logical formula that signifies the meaning of the sentence. Furthermore, the interpretation of the meaning for this sentence is obtained from the value of its PRED attribute as in the following example (2-15).

(2-15) ‘help < (↑SUBJ), (↑OBJ)>.’

It is an argument-predicate expression containing the semantic predicate designation ‘help’ followed by a specified list of arguments placed inside the tag angle brackets. The argument list specification maps the thematic or logical arguments to the two places of the ‘help’ predicate such as experiencer and patient and the grammatical functions of the functional structure. The expression in parentheses indicates that the position of the first argument of the predicate is generated from the interpretation of the sentence’s SUBJ function, and the position of the second argument is that of the interpretation of the OBJ function.

In terms of the relationship or correspondence between str-k and str-f, Bresnan (2001: 44-46) argues that there are three general principles in designing a formal TLF model, namely variability, universality, and monotonicity. The principle of variability implies that cross-linguistically the external structure differs. The formal model of external structure in TLF is str-k. Thus, the expression of str-k from the point of view of TLF varies or varies from one language to another. Meanwhile, the principle of universality implies that in general the internal structure does not vary across languages. The formal model of internal structure in TLF is known as str-f. Thus, the cross-linguistically conception of str-f is the same. This str-f expresses grammatical relations that are universal, which in the theoretical vocabulary are not connected from external structures. Thus, the conceptions of the subject (SUBJ), object (OBJ), predictor (PRED), and other functions emerge at this str-f level. Finally, the

principle of monotonicity states that the features assigned to a clause constituent, whether grammatical functions, such as SUBJ, OBJ, KOMP, or other constituents, should not be changed. For example, if the SUBJ argument has been marked with the [-r] feature, then the [-r] feature cannot be changed with other features, for example [+r]. If there are other features that are added as a specification of the SUBJ function, for example with the [-o] feature, then that additional feature cannot change the existing [-r] feature. Thus, the grammatical function SUBJ has monotonous features, namely the features [-r] and [-o]. Likewise, the OBJ grammatical function has monotonous features, namely the [-r] and [+o] features. Then, in relation to the correspondence between str-k and str-f, this monotonicity principle is important to observe in determining the structural position of grammatical functions in str-k and in terms of determining features in str-f. Thus, the mappings of str-k to str-f are perfectly matched.

### 3. Findings and Discussion

The findings and discussion of the causative construction in Wewewa language are discussed as follow:

#### 3.1 Causative Clause Construction

WL Causative construction is divided into two parts based on formal parameters and parameters based on semantic.

##### 3.1.1 Formal Parameter Based Causative

Based on the formal parameters, the causative is divided into three types: analytic causative type, morphological causative type, and lexical causative type

##### 3.1.1.1 Analytic Causative

WL analytic causative can only be established using *tuka* verb ‘send’. While other causative verbs such as *make* and *cause* are not found in this language. Disclosure of these verbs used in another way so that is not included in the analytic causative construction. Consider the following examples.

(5-5a) *Hidda ata a-keketa na ondi.*  
 3JM people CP-take DET grave  
 ‘The people took the grave’

(5-5b) *Rato Ndima na-tuka-wi hidda ata barra uppu bonnu*  
 NAME CP-ask-PART 3JM people near edge sea  
*a-keketa na ondi*  
 CP-take DET grave  
 ‘Rato Ndima ordered the people near the seafront to take the grave’

(5-5c) *\*Rato Ndima na-tuka-wi a-keketa na ondi hidda ata*  
 NAMA CP-order-PART CP-take DET grave 3JM people



*barra uppu bonnu*  
 near edge sea  
 'Rato Ndima ordered to take the grave close to the  
 seafrent'

(5-6a) *Inana na-susa*  
 Ibunya CP-sad  
 'His mother was sad'

(5-6b) *\*Ndelo na-rai inana na-susa*  
 NAMA CP-make mother his CP-sad  
 'Ndelo made his mother sad'

(5-6c) *Ndelo pa-susa-wa inana*  
 NAMA AF-sad-PART mother his  
 'Ndelo made his mother sad'

With respect to the data (5-5b) above, it appears that by adding "tuka" analytic causative verbs 'tell' in the example clause (5-5a) impact on the addition of a predicate verb form so that this clause (5-6b) has two predicates or two verbs. With the presence of these verbs, the subject "Rato Ndima" acts as a cause (causer) against *hidda ata* 'the people' as cause to perform an activity in a *na-on-di keketa* 'lifted the tomb'. The grave was appointed a result of the actions causer and causee.

Unlike the case with *tuka* verb 'send', the use of verbs *rai* 'make' in the example above (5-6b) it is not acceptable in the clause. In WL, verbs *rai* is not an analytic causative verb. So to change the clause *Ndelo make difficult mother*, just give affixation -PA at *susa* adjective 'hard' (5-6c). In other words, the use of the analytic causative verbs will only be seen and implemented by morphological causative construction and not the analytic causative construction. It will be discussed at the next point. The predicate of components due to causative verbs accompanying *tuka* not only transitive verbs categorized as in example (5-5b) but also can be intransitive verb categories. We can see in the following example.

(5-7a) *Na ata manairo na-kako bali we'e.*  
 DET man farm CP-go next water  
 'The farmer went to the other country'

(5-7b) *Ina kaweda na-pa-tuka-wa na ata manairo*  
*kako bali we'e.*  
 Woman old CP-AF-order-PART DET man  
 farm go next water  
 'Grandmother asked the farmer to go to the  
 other country'

(5-7c) *\*Ina kaweda na-pa-tuka-wa kako bali we'e*  
*na ata manairo.*  
 Woman old CP-AF-order-PART go next water  
 DET man farm  
 'Grandmother asked to go to the other country'

In addition to causative verbs, the argument structures in a causative construction also play an important role. The role of argument structure in the analytic causative construction can be reflected in the causative construction of unacceptability (5-5c) and (5-7c). This means that the causative verb predicate broadcaster should not necessarily be placed after the verb but must be preceded by a noun phrase slot fillers (NP). Based on the structure of the argument constituent category, the language Wewewa, analytic causative construction consists of [NP - VPCaus - NP -VPT<sub>r</sub>/ITR] derived from the basic intransitive verbs by argument structure [FN - FV<sub>Itr</sub>] and monotransitive basic verb argument structure [FN - FV - FN].

In a causative construction, the components of cause and effect is important. Nevertheless, the presence of an argument which acts as the cause is the most important thing in this construction. For example, the subject argument *na ata Manairo* 'farmers' on intransitive verbs in construction noncausative (5-7a), with the presence of a new subject as the cause of the argument that *Ina kaweda* 'grandmother' in (5-7b) resulted in the construction noncausative subject (5-7a) turned into a direct object. This is because the function slot has been filled by the subject cause arguments and make an advanced function of the direct object slot is empty and needs to be filled out by the subject of the construction noncausative earlier. It also occurs on the subject of the new argument *Rato Ndima* on the construction of monotransitive causative verbs in the examples (5-5b) to replace the subject argument *hidda ata* 'those people' on clause construction noncausative (5-5a). But here *hidda ata* has a different position that functions as an indirect object because the object function charger moves the position directly fixed on *on-di na* 'tomb'.

Judging from noncausative construction constituted in the language of analytic causative construction of WL, if the predicate construction of noncausative category transitive verbs, intransitive and adjectives, can be formulated as follows:

[do (X)] CAUSE [do (Y) BECOME predicate (Z)]

### 3.1.1.2 Morphological causative

As already mentioned previously that WL has causative affixes as markers, are minimal. Most of derivative words obtained from the copy pronoun are a reflection of the function of the subject. Causative affixes as markers that can be found only {pa-}. These markers can be attached to the word category of verbs, adjectives, nouns, and adverbs. Consider the example data below.

(5-8a) *Inana na-karodukka ate.*  
 Mother his CP-hurt heart  
 'His mother was hurt'

(5-8b) *Ndelo na-pa-karodukka atena inana.*

NAME CP-AF-hurt heart her mother his  
'Ndelo hurt his mother'

The example (5-8b) shows that the causative marker {pa-} attached to adjectives has changed karodukka ate non-causative construction (5-8a) to be a causative construction. Sticking the causative marker causes additional arguments cause, Ndelo who did something that caused her heartache. To form the causative construction, markers {pa-} are also followed by a particle (PART) {-wa}, {wi}, {-ge} which is attached to the end of the verb/adjective/noun as a complement. Generally, -wa particles {} used for single objects, -wi {} used for plural objects or the passive construction, while -ge {} as a confirmation. Apart from that, it is important in forming the predicate of a clause is a pronoun placement copy (CP) which is always attached before the verb/adjective base or derived. Copy pronoun placement is tailored to the subject argument.

[do (X)] CAUSE [ BECOME predicate (Z)]

### 3.1.1.3 Lexical causative

Lexical causative is described by a lexicon without any production. The lexicon can independently express causal relationships simultaneously. Consider the following examples.

(5-12a) *Binna na-ma-todi*

Door CP-AF-close  
'The door was closed'

(5-12b) *Ina kaweda na-todi binna.*

Woman old CP-close door  
'Grandmother closed the door'

Micro situations that build on the examples of causative constructions (5-12b) above consist of an event that consists of two components, namely Ina kaweda causative na-todi Binna 'grandmother closed the door' as a component of an explicit cause and Binna na-ma -todi 'closed-door' as a result of components is implicitly stated.

Looking at the micro situations in which lexical causative construction is shown in one instance it can be ascertained that the logical structure of the lexical causative construction together with the morphological causative construction

[do (X)] CAUSE [BECOME predicate (Y)].

### 3.1.2 Semantic Parameter Based Causative

Based on semantic parameters, the causative divided into two terms, ie based on the level of control (control) received causee and closeness between the components cause and effect in the macro or causative situation itself. Based on the degree of control that received causee, differentiated into true causative (true causative)

and causative permissive (permissive causative). While based on proximity between components of cause and effect, can be divided into direct and indirect causative.

#### 3.1.2.1 True Causative and Permissive Causative

Basically, true causative (true causative) and causative permissive (permissive causative) components because, in this case agent, has control/control over whether or not the component occurs as a result. In true causative, because is the component has the ability to cause and effect. While the causative permissive, because the components have the ability to prevent the occurrence of a result.

(5-14a) *Ngetana kakona.*

Quick walk his  
'He walked quickly'

(5-14b) *Ndelo pa-ngetawe kakona ka na-letto dukki ne ummana.*

NAMA AF-quick walk his so CP-soon arrive  
DET house his  
'Ndelo accelerated his path so that he quickly reached his house'

In the example above (5-14a and 14b), because the component, Ndelo has the strength or ability to prevent the occurrence of components due, namely kakona Ndelo 'way Ndelo', ate Inana 'his mother', karodukka na Rato kabisu 'disease kabisu Rato'. This is in contrast with the following examples:

(5-18a) *Na buamane na-karana*

DET child boy CP-burnt  
'The boy was burnt'

(5-18b) *Pamilakka na-wena-wa na buamane nyaka na-karana*

Lightning CP-strike-PART DET child boy  
so CP-burnt  
'A flash of lightning struck the boy and burned him'

In the example (5-18b) above, the components of the construction of pamilakka 'flash' cannot cause components due. This is because the animate feature [ $\pm$  animate] in components cause. If the component causes the animate feature [+animate], then the cause has control of components due. Conversely, if the component has the features of a lifeless cause [-animate], because the component is not able to control or no control over the result. The cause of the sample (5-18b) pamilakka cannot affect that it produces because it has features lifeless [-animate].

Observing the meaning of the features [ $\pm$  animate] on the components because the causative construction, it can be interpreted that if the components for a feature [+animate], the action/treatment is done tend to be intentionally [+accident], whereas if the component features for [-animate]

, then the action/treatment is not accidentally done [-intentionally].

Meaning intentionally [ $\pm$  intentionally] can be seen in the analytic causative constructions, morphological, and analytic.

Consider the following examples.

(5-19a) *Na ondi na-bibakka*  
 DET grave CP-shine  
 'The grave was shiny'

(5-19b) *Hidda ata a-pa-bibakka-wa na ondi waina nu'u pa-paruta*  
 3JM person AF-shine-PART DET grave with coconut PAS-shred  
 'The people polished the grave with shredded coconut'

In example (5-19b), the cause of the *na ondi bibakka* 'tomb was shiny' is *hidda ata* 'those people'. *Hidda ata* 'those people' are intentionally causing [+ accident] and becoming the source because of the impact. Or, in other words, the source causes the appearance of components due to.

Associated with the feature [ $\pm$  animate] and [ $\pm$  intentionally], other semantic features of the morphological causative cause is human or nonhuman [ $\pm$  human]. This can be seen in the following examples.

(5-20a) *Oma-na na-masaikara*  
 Garden-POSS CP-destroy  
 'His garden was destroyed'

(5-20b) *Hidda karambo a-pa-masaikar-a oma-na.*  
 3JM buffalo CP-AF-destroy-DET garden-POSS  
 'The buffalos destroyed his garden'

In the example above, the cause of the morphological causative *hidda wawi* 'pigs' has the properties [-human]. The cause of the nature of [-human] does not have control over the damage caused by his garden. The cause that has the properties [-human] which led to the meaning [+ accident] also does not appear on the morphological causative. The nature of [ $\pm$  animate] and [ $\pm$  human] can not be used in the construction of the analytic causative WL, because the verb, *tuka* 'told' just wants something that animate [+ animate] and [+ human] as the cause and causee. In addition to the nature of [ $\pm$  intentionally], [ $\pm$  animate] and [ $\pm$  human], other parameters, namely the presence or absence of semantic properties of [ $\pm$  contact] is physically between the causer (the cause) and the causee. Consider the following example.

(5-21) *Ng'i'ona na lakawa rara na-pa-kedde-wa Rato Ndima*  
 Cry POSS DET child red DET-AF-wake-PART NAME  
 NAME

*mono ole umana*

and friend house POSS

'The baby's crying woke up Rato Ndima and his wife'

(5-22) *Tundana ne ponulakona na-pa-katatakka na ata manairo*

Pat his DET shoulder his CP-AF-shock DET man farm

'The pat on his shoulder shocked the farmer'

From the above example it can be seen that the relationship between cause and causee on morphological causative (5-21), are indirect, meaning that the cause of action, the baby cries, not directly on causee, Rato Ndima and his wife, in a physical form that does not directly wake them up. By contrast, with examples (5-22) where the cause, a pat on the shoulder, directly on causee, farmers, physically and create a result, farmers were shocked.

### 3.1.2.2 Direct and Indirect Causative

Based on the proximity of the components close relationship of cause and effect, there are two kinds of causatives: direct and indirect causative. Direct causative (causative component) is a clause whose cause and effect are very close. In contrast, indirect causative is a clause whose cause and effect relationship is far away.

The closeness of the relation of cause and effect depends on the duration ranges between cause and effect components. If closer, then there is a direct causative relation with, otherwise if it is far, it is not a direct relation to causative. However, the range of duration cannot be determined absolutely in a causative construction. Sometimes, the range of cause and effect duration component of a construction causative verb derived from the base is faster than the causative derived from basic adjectives and this situation applies vice versa. Consider the following example.

(5-23a) *Omana na-masaikara*  
 Garden his CP-destroy  
 'The garden was destroyed'

(5-23b) *Hidda karambo a-pa-masaikara omana.*  
 3JM buffalo CP-AF-destroy garden his  
 'The buffalos destroyed his garden'

In comparing examples (5-23b) and (2-24b), the process of emergence until the cause and effect, damaged his garden, which takes longer than the process of waking his wife. Comparison of the range of the duration component of cause and effect in the WL causative construction can also be seen through morphological causative (using affixation) and analytic causative (using causative verbs). Consider the examples below.

(5-27a) *Wadha na-mandi'i*  
 DET NAMA CP-sit

‘Wadha sat’

(5-27b) *Amana na-pa-mandi'i-wa na Wadha*  
Father his CP-AF-sit-PART DET NAME  
‘His father asked Wadha to sit’

(5-27c) *Amana na-pa-tuka-wa na Wadha mandi'i*  
Father his CP-AF-order-PART si NAME sit  
‘His father asked Wadha to sit down’

Component due to sit Wadha (5-27a) occurs simultaneously (directly) current component because, Dad, sit Wadha exacting action. This is in contrast with a result that does not happen as soon as possible after the cause of action is ordered by his father in the example (5-27c). That is due to the result of the direct morphological causative, while the result of the analytic causative is indirect.

In this parameter encountered some semantic features including (1) feature [ $\pm$  intentionally] of the cause, (2) feature [ $\pm$  animate] of causes, [3] features [ $\pm$  human] of the cause, and (4) feature [ $\pm$  contact]

#### 4. Conclusion

Based on the results, the following conclusions can be drawn.

- 4.1** The basic structure of Wewewa clauses is filled with grammatical units, such as pronouns, nominal phrases, intransitive verbs, transitive verbs, prepositions and numerals. The structure is marked by several types of markers in Wewewa. Wewewa language has the pronoun copy (PC) which affiliated to the subject of the main argument. This copy pronoun can be attached to the verbal category, not only preverbal but also postverbal in the adjective category. Seeing from the presence of nouns in the basic structure of the clause, it can be said that Wewewa is a NP drop language because the Wewewa language clause structure can be considered complete, and it is enough to put the pronoun copy without having to be followed by the noun phrase (FN) as its main phrase. Even though it has less affixation, Wewewa language is rich in morphosyntactic markers in verbal and adjective categories in forming a complete basic clause construction. Wewewa language clauses consist of verbal and non-verbal clauses. Verbal clauses are divided into verbal clauses predicated transitive and verbal clauses predicated transitive. Based on the number of valences, transitive verbal clauses are divided into monotransitive and bitransitive clauses. Meanwhile, non-verbal clauses are divided into nominal clauses, adjective clauses, prepositional clauses and numeral clauses. In general, Wewewa grammar is SVO.

- 4.2** Based on formal parameters or also known as morphosynthetic parameters, Wewewa language’s causative construction is divided into analytic causative, morphological causative and lexical causative. Morphological causative is the dominant causative in Wewewa language clause construction. Based on semantic parameters, the Wewewa language’s type of causative construction has true and permissive causative; if it is seen from the level of control received it is caused (causee). Meanwhile, if it is seen based on the closeness of the relationship between the cause and effect components and the duration range between the two components, the Wewewa language causative construction is divided into direct and indirect causative.

- 4.3** The mechanism of causative formation in Wewewa language can be known based on the type of causation. The valence change in the causative analytic construct occurs with the addition of the causative verb *tuka* ‘to ask’. The addition of this causative verb will also increase the number of accompanying verbs, both in the form of transitive and intransitive verbs. The verb *rai* to make, as in other languages in general, it cannot be used in the causative construction of Wewewa because it contains different meanings. When it is seen from the number of causative uses in Wewewa, morphological causation is more likely to be dominant to express cause and effect relationships. Morphological causative marked with the affixation markers {pa-} on the verb category. The addition of this affixation is also used to increase the amount of valence. The lexical causative construction of Wewewa language can only be seen from the changes in the active causative construction and the passive causative construction. Therefore, the change in valence that can be seen in the lexical causative construction is a change in the grammatical relation and it is not a change in the form of an increase in the number of arguments.

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