Presenting indigenous language of Suwawa in terms of clause structure

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Abstract: This research is aimed to describe Suwawa language clauses (SLC) in local content subject at elementary schools. It focuses on introducing SLC and the description of types of SLC. The method used is the descriptive method. SLC Data were obtained from utterances and speech by native of Suwawa. Observation, interviews, and note-taking were used to collect the data. A distribution method on the functions of SLC was used to analyze the data. The research findings revealed that introducing Suwawa is very important since the language functions as a self-identity and a filter from global culture penetration. The language has 13 types of clauses grouped into 5 based on (1) the core elements, (2) internal structure, (3) position in the sentence, (4) the presence or absence of negation elements in the predicate, and (5) the functional category. Research shows that introducing the Suwawa language is important not only to preserve it but also to give Gorontalo, Sulawesi Indonesia’s youth a sense of self and cultural identity against globalization.

Keywords: introduction, local language, Suwawa language, clauses, local content subject

INTRODUCTION

The Ministry of Education and Culture of the Republic of Indonesia published a book entitled Gambaran Kondisi Vitalitas Bahasa Daerah di Indonesia (Overview of the Condition of Local Languages Vitality in Indonesia) in 2020. The book wrote the research findings from 2018 to 2019 related to the vitality of local languages in Indonesia. One of the research findings revealed that 36 local languages are safe, 19 local languages are fairly safe but endangered, 3 local languages are declining, 24 of them are endangered, 5 local languages are critically endangered, while 11 of them are already extinct. Most local languages leading to be extinct are those in eastern parts of Indonesia.

One of the vernaculars identified as endangered is Suwawa language. The language is one of the regional languages in Gorontalo Province, especially in the Bone Bolango regency. In addition to the Suwawa language, there are other regional languages, namely Gorontalo, Atinggola, and Bulango language. Compared with other languages in the province, Suwawa language is considered the oldest language (Umar, 2017:37). Most lingual and cultural figures in Suwawa believe that languages spoken in Gorontalo and its surroundings were born from Suwawa language due to its spread to these areas. Therefore, there are similarities in vocabulary between Suwawa language and other languages in Gorontalo and its surroundings. The Suwawa language is an ancestral language in Gorontalo that is used by few group of people, either orally or written, and is threatened with extinction.
Studies on regional languages show that educated people are concerned with the language so that the languages do not become extinct at the communication-interaction level (Rosyid, 2014: 199). However, there are few studies on the Suwawa language. Some of the studies are described below.

The first research on Suwawa language was conducted by Umar in (2017) entitled “Faktor dan Strategi Pencegahan Pemarjinalan Bahasa Suwawa di Provinsi Gorontalo” (Factors and Strategies for Preventing Marginalization of the Suwawa Language in Gorontalo Province). The research findings are as follows. First, the marginalization of Suwawa language takes place due to (1) conceptual factors, (2) operational factors, (3) attitudinal factors, and (4) language attitude factors. Second, the strategy to prevent marginalization of Suwawa language can be implemented through (1) education, (2) research and scientific programs, and (3) community service.

The second study is conducted by Firdaus in (2018), titled “Tekanan Kepunahan Bahasa Suwawa: Analisis Tingkat Daya Hidup Bahasa Suwawa” (Pressure of Extinction of Suwawa Language: Analysis on the Level of Survival of Suwawa Language). The research findings revealed that the vitality criteria for Suwawa language is stable but threatened with extinction and included in the index line 4-5 based on its visualization in the spider diagram. The mean total index was 0.61. The index is obtained from a comparison of the averages among indices based on gender categories, age groups, education levels, and types of work.

The third study was conducted by Kasim et al. The research on the internal structure of the Suwawa language was published by Pusat Pembinaan dan Pengembangan Bahasa (Center for Language Foster and Development) in 1981. The study was conducted long time ago or about 30 years. In addition, the description of the research findings regarding the structure and aspects of Suwawa language, including Suwawa language clauses, focused on the surface of the language. Therefore, the research findings did not reveal all aspects of Suwawa language clauses. There are only 2 types of clause aspects of the language found in this study, namely independent and dependent clause (1981:98-102). The independent clause includes: (1) verbal clauses, (2) nonverbal clauses. The dependent clause includes: (2) noun clauses, (2) adjective clauses, and (3) adverbial clauses. In fact, other types of clauses exist in Suwawa language.

The concept of clauses has been put forward by many experts, and some of them refer to the same meaning, namely a grammatical unit or group of words consisting of a subject (S) and a predicate (P) (Firman, 2016: 190; Haque, 2017: 123; Putri and Yurni, 2020 p. 15). The two clause function elements (S and P) are also indicators of the construction of a sentence. That is why the construction of a clause has the potential to become a sentence (Gani and Arsyad, 2018 p. 11).

The type of clause in a few languages is a little bit different. It depends on the theoretical basis used and the internal characteristics of the language studied, for example, the clause structure of the Dayak Tagol language by
Aritonang (2017). The clause structure of the Dayak Tagol language consists of (1) a nonverbal predicate clause structure and (2) a verbal predicate clause structure. The structure of nonverbal predicted clause can consist of (1) noun predicated clauses, (2) adjective predicated clauses, (3) numeral predicated clauses, and (4) prepositional phrase predicated clauses. Meanwhile, the structure of verbal predicate clause consists of (1) intransitive clauses, (2) single transitive clause (two core argument clause), and (3) double transitive clause (three core argument clause).

In addition, the research findings of Sigiro (2015) on Siang language clauses revealed that there are 3 categories of clause in Siang language, namely (1) clause based on their predicate fillers consisting of (a) noun clauses, (b) verbal clauses, (c) adjective clauses, (d) prepositional clauses, (e) numeral clause, and (f) pronoun clauses; (2) independent clause in which the predicate can be noun phrases, verbal phrases, adjective phrases, prepositional phrases, and numeral phrases; and (3) dependent clause found in complex sentences consisting of two or more clauses.

The description of prior research findings revealed the importance of a more in-depth study of various aspects of the Suwawa language, especially on clause types without classifying what clauses should be taught as local content subjects for elementary school students. Therefore, the aim of the research is to describe clauses as part of the structure of the Suwawa language that is used by the community to communicate and interact.

**METHOD**

The method used in this research is the descriptive method. Indraningtyas (2021 p.551) assured that descriptive research is research conducted by collecting data and information and then describing them in words and sentences. The data obtained from the direct utterance of the native Suwawa people presented types of clauses in the local language. The data were collected through observation, interview, and note-taking technique. Observation is to observe and listen utterance. Interview was used by asking questions to native Suwawa people, the respondents of this research directly. In addition, note-taking technique was used in an integrated manner during observations and interviews to record parts considered very essential, especially those related to Suwawa language clauses. The data analysis technique uses the distribution method with the functions of the clause technique. The tool for determining the method of distribution is part of the language concerned (Sudaryanto, 1993 p.15).

**RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

**Results**

The research findings revealed that there are two findings of this research. They are (1) Introducing the structure of Suwawa language and (2) Types of Suwawa Language Clauses. Each of them is further described below.
**Introducing the Structure of Suwawa language**

In general, the structure of Suwawa language includes phonology, morphology, and syntax with various aspects therein. However, in this research, researchers focus on the clause. The language is still used by people in Suwawa in everyday life to communicate and interact. The results of interviews with people speaking the language revealed that Suwawa language is the ancestor of Gorontalo language and is the identity of the Suwawa tribe. In addition, even though the number of speakers of the language has decreased because most of them rarely use it. They feel it is more suitable to use Gorontalo and Indonesian when interacting and communicating. Historically, Suwawa language was the language used by the Suwawa people in the Suwawa kingdom since ancient times around 300 BC. Therefore, the Suwawa language should have the same position or even more than the Gorontalo language in terms of its user population, frequency of use, development and development, and preservation.

Even though Suwawa local language is considered the oldest language in Gorontalo, it is a fact that the existence of the local language today is not in good condition. Darmawati’s research findings in 2019 revealed that the vitality of the Suwawa language in most indicators of vitality placed the language in a threatened with extinction. One of the reasons is the decline in public appreciation, especially the younger generation to speak Suwawa language in daily communication. The most common reason found is that they view the regional languages are less prestigious or plebeian (Tondo, 2009 p.289). The younger people in general felt compelled to speak regional languages because they are considered less open and out of date. This condition also takes place in Suwawa. As a result, Suwawa language is more and more oppressive.

The condition of Suwawa language as described above must be immediately coped with. One of the attempts to increase the vitality of the language is to conduct studies or research on various aspects of the Suwawa language. A study on the structure of the Suwawa language needs to be carried out to improve teachers’ understanding and to make them able to teach the language well to students.

**Types of Suwawa Language Clauses**

The research findings revealed that there are 13 types of clauses in Suwawa language. They are grouped into 5 types of clauses. They are based on (1) the completeness of the core elements, (2) the internal structure, (3) the position in the sentence, (4) the presence of a negation element in the predicate, and (5) the predicate category of the sentence. The following is a description of the types of clauses along with examples in the language.

**Suwawa Language Clauses Based on Completeness of Core Elements**

The research findings revealed that there are two types of clauses based on the completeness of their core elements in Suwawa language. They are complete and incomplete clauses.
Complete Clauses

A complete clause is a clause that at least consists of the function elements of S (subject) and P (predicate). A complete clause has the potential to become a sentence.

The following examples are complete clause data in the Suwawa language.

(1) Ota nola’o (He has gone)
(2) Wateya nobaca no buku (I read a book)
(3) Teya nogombado onami (They hit us)
(4) Giya-giya ndamoigu (Brother is taking a bath)
(5) Ti Bapu nogandupo bu’ulu (Grandfather is hunting a deer)
(6) Po’uwina nobui nonggo patali (Aunt left from the market)

The data above can be distributed based on the clause function structure as presented below.

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{Otanola’o} & \quad \text{(He has gone)} \\
S & \quad P
\end{align*}
\]

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{Wateya nobaca no buku} & \quad \text{(I read a book)} \\
S & \quad P \quad O
\end{align*}
\]

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{Teya nogombado onami} & \quad \text{(They hit us)} \\
S & \quad P \quad O
\end{align*}
\]

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{Giya-giya ndamoigu} & \quad \text{(Brother is taking a bath)} \\
S & \quad P
\end{align*}
\]

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{Ti Bapu nogandupo bu’ulu} & \quad \text{(Grandfather is hunting a deer)} \\
S & \quad P \quad \text{Compl.}
\end{align*}
\]

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{Po’uwina nobui nonggo patali} & \quad \text{(Aunt left from the market)} \\
S & \quad P \quad \text{Compl.}
\end{align*}
\]

Data (01) consists of Subject (S) component in form of a pronoun and followed by the P (predicate) component in form of a verb. Data (02) consists of S component that belongs to pronoun, followed by P component that belongs to verb, then followed by O (Object) component that belongs to noun. Data (03) is composed of S that belongs to pronoun, followed by P that belongs to verb, and then followed by O that belongs to pronoun. Data (04) consists of S that belongs to noun, followed by P that belongs to verb. Data (05) is formed by S component that belongs to noun phrase, followed...
by P that belongs to verb, then followed by Complement component that belongs to noun. Finally, data (06) is established as S that belongs to noun, followed by P that belongs to verb, and then followed by Adverb that belongs to prepositional phrase. These six clauses belong to complete clauses because they all have core/main clause elements, namely S and P.

Incomplete Clauses

An incomplete clause is a clause that only consists of one clause function component, for example S only, P only, or Adverb only. These incomplete clauses are found in sentences to answer questions in conversation or dialogue between several speakers. Incomplete clauses have the potential to become minor sentences.

The following examples are incomplete clauses in Suwawa language.

(7) A : Tiyana tano potaba nimu? (Who ordered you?)
    B : Ti palimbo (Palimbo) (The name of a person)
(8) A : Wode ndaponaga nimu? (What are you doing?)
    B : Molopoto no ayu (Cutting wood.)
(9) A : Ayi-ayi notiyugo? (Has sister gone to bed?)
    B : Japa. (Not yet.)
(10) A : Wode ano nota? (What meal did he have?)
    B : Bandage biluhuta. (Corn soup.)
(11) A : Nonggona mai yio? (Where have you been?)
    B : Nonggo patali. (From the market.)

Incomplete clause data in the language can be seen in B’s utterance which is an answer to question A. An example of B’s answer is a short statement of what A is asking. The short statement by B consists of only one function of clause. Therefore, it does not establish a complete clause that must consist of S and P.

Suwawa Language Clauses Based on Internal Structure

Internal structure is defined as the sequence or series of main functions in a clause, namely S and P. If the sequence is S and followed by P, the clause belongs to a clause with a coherent structure. On the other hand, if the sequence is preceded by P and followed by S, it is called an inversion structured clause or inversion clause. These two types of clauses are also found in Suwawa language. The following data are clauses with a coherent structure and clauses with an inversion structure in the language.

Coherent Structured Clauses

Coherent structured clause is a clause in which the main functional components are arranged sequentially, namely S then P. Clauses with a co-
herent structure are also found in the language as shown in the following examples.

(12)  \textit{Yi’o pola ‘odo} (You Go away!)
(13)  \textit{Teya noguma ona’u} (They talked to me)

\textbf{Yi’o pola ‘odo} (You Go away!)
S       P

\textbf{Teya noguma ona’u} (They talked to me)
S       P       Adv.

The structure of (12) is S (yi’o) followed by P (pola’odo). Likewise, the structure of (13) consists of S (teya) and P (noguma) followed by Adverb (ona’u). Thus, it is clear that the data above has a coherent structure, namely S and P.

\textit{Inversion Structured Clauses}

Inversion structure clause is a clause whose main functional components are arranged in inverted order. Different from a coherent structure clause in which main function components are arranged sequentially, namely S and P, the inversion clause is arranged in reverse, namely P and S.

Inversion clauses can also be found in Suwawa language as shown in the following examples.

(14)  \textit{Pola ‘odo yi’o} (Go away you)
(15)  \textit{Noguma tea ona’u} (Talked they to me)

The example above can be distributed based on function elements as follows.

\textbf{Pola’odo yi’o} (Go away you)
P       S

\textbf{Noguma tea ona’u} (Talked they to me)
P       S       Adv.

The structure of (14) is composed of P (pola’odo) then S (yi’o). Likewise, the structure of (15) is composed of P (noguma) followed by S (tea) and followed by Adv. (ona’u). Thus, it is clear that the data above has an inversion structure because P precedes S.
Suwawa Language Clauses Based on Position in Sentences

Based on the position in the sentence, clauses can be classified into two types: independent and dependent clauses. Independent clause is a clause that can stand alone as a sentence. Meanwhile, dependent clause is a clause that must be attached to an independent clause to form a complete sentence. Independent clauses have the potential to form major sentences or complete sentences while dependent clauses can form minor sentences or incomplete sentences.

The following examples are independent clause and dependent clause in Suwawa language.

(16) Laigo tu nopo’opiyano pata’o no potali. (The house is being repaired and then it will be sold.)
(17) Wateya moyinggato wagu ja wuhana. (I’ll come if it doesn’t rain.)
(18) Ota mo’oyogo mobalajari aligu pindari. (He studies hard in order to be smart.)
(19) Ota debo no’iyunggato openu laigota. (He came anyway even though his home was far away.)
(20) Ota nogahudo sababu nowumbado. (She cried because she was hit.)

The clauses above can be distributed based on its position in the sentence as follows.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Clause</th>
<th>Position</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Laigo tu nopo’opiyano</td>
<td>(The house is being repaired)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pata’o no potali.</td>
<td>(then it will be sold)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wateya moyinggato</td>
<td>(I’ll come)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>wagu and wuhana</td>
<td>(if it doesn’t rain)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ota mo’oyogo mobalajari</td>
<td>(He studies hard)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>aligu pindari</td>
<td>(in order to be smart.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ota debo no’iyunggato</td>
<td>(He came anyway)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>openu laigota</td>
<td>(even though his home was far away)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ota nogahudo</td>
<td>(She cried)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sababu nowumbado</td>
<td>(because she was hit)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Independent Clause

Based on the distribution of their positions in the sentence, the independent clauses are listed as follows.

Laigo tu nopo ‘opiyano (The house is being repaired)
Wateya moyinggato (I’ll come)
Ota mo’oyogo mobalajari (He studies hard)
Ota debo no’iyunggato (He came anyway)
Ota nogahudo (She cried)

The five examples above are independent clauses because (1) they have complete components of the clause, namely S and P; and (2) they can stand alone so they have the potential to become single sentences.

Laigo tu nopo ‘opiyano (The house is being repaired)
S P

Wateya moyinggato (I’ll come)
S P

Ota mo’oyogo mobalajari (He studies hard)
S P

Ota debo no’iyunggato (He came anyway)
S P

Ota nogahudo (She cried)
S P

First, in terms of the completeness of the clause function components, the five examples above are considered complete because they, at least, have S and P. Second, the fulfillment of the clause function components of S and P by the five clauses make them independent clauses. As a result, the five clauses can stand alone, and they have the potential to become single sentences.

Dependent Clause

The dependent clause in the compound sentence is presented in the following:

pata’o no potali (then it will be sold)
wagu and wuhana (even though it rained)
aliugu pindari (in order to be smart)
openu laigota (even though his home was far away)
sababu nowumbado (because she was hit)
The clauses above are dependent clauses because they consist of one clause function component only. In addition, the existence of subordinating conjunctions in the clauses above makes them bound to an independent clause. In other words, the clauses above cannot stand alone and cannot be separated from the independent clauses before them.

**Suwawa Language Clause Based on the Presence or Absence of Negation in the Predicate**

Based on the presence or absence of negation in the predicate, two types of clauses were found in Suwawa language: positive clauses and negative clauses. A positive clause is a clause that contains a statement or command. In addition, it does not contain negation words. A negative clause is a type of clause that contains a statement or command in which there are negation words. Negation words in the language which mark negative clauses are *japa* (not yet), *lege* (don’t), and *ja* (not).

**Positive Clause**

The following examples are positive clauses in Suwawa language.

(21) *Ti papa donobuyi mayi nonggo pangimba* (Father arrived home from rice field.)
(22) *Book bihaku nota* (This book belongs to you)
(23) *Tina nola’o de ruma saki* (Mother goes to the hospital)
(24) *Yi’o mowali mohigila minda nota* (You can play with him)
(25) *Tea Mali motogina notagi* (Mali likes banana.)

All of the clauses above are positive clauses. It can be seen from the existence of words that have positive meaning and without any form of prohibition, denial, or denial in the examples.

**Negative Clause**

The following examples are negative clauses in Suwawa language which forms negation of a positive clause.

(26) *Ti papa japa nobuyi mayi nonggo pangimba* (Father has not returned from the rice field)
(27) *Buku bi ja haku note* (This book is not yours)
(28) *Tina ja nola’o de ruma saki* (Mother does not go to the hospital)
(29) *Yi’o lege mohigila mind nota* (You don’t play with him)
(30) *Ti mali ja motogina notagi* (Mali does not like bananas)
The data above are distributed based on clause function as follows.

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{Ti papa} & \ japa \ nobuyi \ mayi \ nonggopangimba & \text{(Father has not returned from the rice field)} \\
\text{S} & \quad \text{P} & \quad \text{Adv.} \\
\text{Buku bi} & \ ja \ haku \ nota & \text{(This book is not yours)} \\
\text{S} & \quad \text{P} & \\
\text{Tina ja} & \ nola’o \ de \ ruma \ saki & \text{(Mother does not go to the hospital)} \\
\text{S} & \quad \text{P} & \quad \text{Adv.} \\
\text{Yi’o lege mohigila minda nota} & \text{(You don’t play with him)} \\
\text{S} & \quad \text{P} & \quad \text{Adv.} \\
\text{Ti Mali ja motogina notagi} & \text{(His father has not come)} \\
\text{S} & \quad \text{P} & \quad \text{O}
\end{align*}
\]

The presence of the front marker in the negation marker, \textit{japa} in the phrase \textit{japanobuyimayi} (26), \textit{ja} in the phrase \textit{ja haku nota} (27), \textit{ja} in the phrase \textit{ja nola’o} (28), \textit{lege} in the phrase \textit{legemohigila} (29), and \textit{ja pada ja motogina} (30), makes the verb in each predicate clause bring a negative meaning.

**Suwawa Language Clauses based on Sentence Predicate Category**

Based on the category of words/phrases that fill the predicate function, five types of Suwawa language clauses were found: (1) verbal clauses, (2) noun clauses, (3) adjective clauses, (4) numeral clauses, and (5) preposition-al clauses. The following is a description of each type of clause.

**Verbal Clauses**

A verbal clause is a type of clause whose predicate element/function is in the category of verb (V) or verbal phrase (FV). Based on the specifications of category V or FV as filler for the predicate function, verbal clauses can still be classified into four types, namely (1) transitive verbal clauses, (2) intransitive verbal clauses, (3) active verbal clauses, and (4) passive verbal clauses. These four types of clauses will be discussed below.

**Transitive and Intransitive Verbal Clauses**

A transitive verbal clause is a type of clause that fills the P function in the form of a transitive verb, namely a verb that must be followed by an object. In other words, a transitive verbal clause is a clause where the function O (object) must be present following P. On the other hand, an intransitive verbal clause is a clause where the function P is an intransitive verb, namely a verb that does not require an object. Data (31) to (35) are examples of transitive clauses, while data (36) to (40) are examples of intransitive clauses.
(31) **Ami nogumbado oneya** (We hit them)
(32) **Tina notali abaya nobagu** (Mom bought new clothes)
(33) **Ta nogala nohanggu nowambiniya** (Fishermen catch fish)
(34) **Ami noceti dindi** (We painted the wall)
(35) **Ota nopoberesi kadera tu** (He cleaned the chair)

The data above can be distributed based on clause function elements as follows.

**Ami nogumbado oneya** (We hit them)

```
S  P             O
```

**Tina notali abaya nobagu** (Mom bought new clothes)

```
S        P             O
```

**Ta nogala nohanggu nowambiniya** (Fishermen catch fish)

```
S              P                  O
```

**Ami noceti dindi** (We painted the wall)

```
S       P          O
```

**Ota nopoberesi kadera de a todalado** (He cleaned the chair)

```
S          P                   O
```

The P fillers of each of clause above is verb/ verb phrase: **nogumbado, notali, nohanggu, noceti, and nopoberesi.** All these verbs must be followed by the object of the clause, namely: pronoun **nateya**, noun phrase **obaya-nobagu**, noun **nowambiniya**, noun **dindi**, and phrase noun **kaderatu.** In other words, the elements of **nateya, obayanobagu, nowambiniya, dindi, and kaderatu**as **O must follow P.**

In contrast to the intransitive verbal clause data below.

(36) **Giya-giya ndamoyigu** (Sister is taking a bath)
(37) **Tiyama japa nobuyi nonggo pangimba** (Father has not returned from the rice field)
(38) **Teya nohiboboto** (They fight)
(39) **Ti mama nola’o de ruma saki** (Mother is going to the hospital)
(40) **Wunggu bitu ndamotimbeyato o pango** (The dog is sunbathing in the yard)

The above data can be distributed based on the elements of the clause function as follows.
Giya-giya ndamoyigu
S P
(Sister is taking a bath)

Ti yama japano nobuyi nonggo pangimba
S P Adv.
(Father has not returned from the rice field)

Teya nohiboboto
S P
(They fight)

Ti mama nola’o de ruma saki.
S P Adv.
(Mother is going to the hospital)

Wunggu bitu ndamotimbeyato o pango
S P Adv.
(The dog is sunbathing in the yard)

The P fillers in each of these clauses are the verbal verbs/phrases ndamoyigu, japano nobuyi, nohiboboto, nola’o, and ndamotimbeyato. Each of the verb can stand alone. Without Noun/Noun Phrase/Pronoun/Pronoun Phrase that fill the Object, the verbs can already function as a verb in the clause.

Active and Passive Verbal Clauses
Active verbal clause or active clause is a type of clause in which the Subject acts as the performer (doer). On the other hand, passive verbal clause or passive clause is a clause in which the Subject acts as the recipient/target. Examples (41) to (45) are active clauses, while examples (46) to (50) are passive clauses.

(41) Po’uwana’o nogalito betedu (Uncle is leathering the goat)
(42) Ayi-ayi nohipu no’ombile minda hohayito (Sister picked mango with pole)
(43) Tiyama’unopotalia o patali (My father sells goods in the market)
(44) Nateya nomilogo noguwato motoro oina dumodupo (I saw a motorcycle collision this morning)
(45) Tete nateyamotonggana’o (My cat gave birth)

The above data can be distributed based on the function clause as follows.

Po’uwana’o nogalito betedu.
S P O
(Uncle is leathering the goat)

Ayi-ayi nohipu no’ombile minda hohayito
S P O Adv.
(Sister picked mango with pole)

Tiyama’u nopotalia o patali
S P Adv.
(My father sells goods in the market)
Clauses (41) to (45) can be classified into active clauses because S acts as a doer or who performs actions / activities on P. The words or phrases po’uwana’o, ayi-ayi, tiyama’u, nateya, and tete nateya in each of the above clause runs the function of S all of which act as a doer/actor or who performs action on P namely nogalito, nohipu, nopotalia, nomilogo, and motonggana’o.

The passive verbal clauses of Suwawa language are presented in the following examples:

(46) Abaya nobuba’a ni bai o dutuna (Grandma’s clothes washed in the river)
(47) Old cow notigoto o ubugia (The cow was tied by him to a tree)
(48) Layigu’unopoberesiyo no wayi-wayi (My house is cleaned by my sister)
(49) Udu nonaggumo no tete (Rats are eaten by cats)
(50) Ayi-ayi no’iguwa ne tina (Sister was bathed by mother)

The data of the above clause can be distributed based on their function as in the following:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S</th>
<th>P</th>
<th>O</th>
<th>Adv.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Abaya</td>
<td>nobuba’a</td>
<td>nibai o dutuna</td>
<td>(Grandma’s clothes washed in the river)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sapi tua</td>
<td>notigoto</td>
<td>ubugia</td>
<td>(The cow was tied by him to a tree)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Layigu’u</td>
<td>nopoberesiyo</td>
<td>no-wayi</td>
<td>(My house is cleaned by my sister)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Udu</td>
<td>nonaggumo</td>
<td>notete</td>
<td>(Rats are eaten by cats)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ayi-ayi</td>
<td>no’iguwa</td>
<td>netina</td>
<td>(Sister was bathed by mother)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The clauses above are categorized as a passive verbal clause because the S acts as a recipient or object. The forms of abaya, old cow, layigu’u, udu, and ayi-ayi occupy the function S which semantically means or acts as a recipient or object of P activity.
Noun Clause

Noun clause is a clause whose predicates are categorized as nouns (N) or noun phrases (NP). The following is the noun clause of Suwawa language.

(51) \textit{Ayi-ayi’u no la’I} (My sibling is a boy)
(52) \textit{Tina nota gulango} (Her mother is a baby shaman)
(53) \textit{Tabebabitu guru nateya} (The woman is my teacher)
(54) \textit{Tiama nea ma ta mogalawa} (Their father is a fisherman)
(55) \textit{Ta la’i lobuga tu ma ta nobunggalo} (The man is a farmer)

The clauses above can be distributed based on function and clause categories as in the following:

(51) Clause \textit{Ayi-ayi’u} \,(my brother) \,from \,(la’I) \,(boy)
Function S P
Category N N
(52) Clause \textit{Tina nota} \,(his mother) \,Gulango \,(a baby shaman)
Function S P
Category NP N
(53) Clause \textit{Tabebabitu} \,(the woman) \,guru nateya \,(my teacher)
Function S P
Category NP NP
(54) Clause \textit{Tiama nea} \,(their father) \,Ma ta mogalawa \,(fisherman)
Function S P
Category NP NP
(55) Clause \textit{Ta la’i lobuga tu} \,ma ta nobunggalo \,(a farmer)
Function S P
Category NP NP

From the distribution of functions and categories of clauses above, it is clear that the forms no la’i, gulango, guru nateya, ma ta mogalawa, and ma ta nobunggalo that fill the P functions are N and NP. Therefore, the examples 51 to 55 are categorized as noun clause.

Adjective Clause

Adjective clause is a clause whose predicate is categorized as an adjective (Adj) or an adjective phrase (Adj. P). The following is an example of adjective clause in Suwawa language.
The data above can be distributed based on the clause function as in the following.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Clause</th>
<th>Tabebatu (the girl)</th>
<th>gaga niyado (so beautiful)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Function</td>
<td>S</td>
<td>P</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Category</td>
<td>NP</td>
<td>Adj.P</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Clause</th>
<th>Dala tu (the road)</th>
<th>odiipulato (slippery)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Function</td>
<td>S</td>
<td>P</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Category</td>
<td>NP</td>
<td>Adj</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Clause</th>
<th>Tala’itu (the man)</th>
<th>Bugani da’a (very brave)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Function</td>
<td>S</td>
<td>P</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Category</td>
<td>NP</td>
<td>Adj.P</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Clause</th>
<th>Layigo nateya (my house)</th>
<th>Layi da’a (very big)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Function</td>
<td>S</td>
<td>P</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Category</td>
<td>NP</td>
<td>Adj</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Clause</th>
<th>Tumbaniya no abaya’u (the color of my shirt)</th>
<th>Mo’ende (blue)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Function</td>
<td>S</td>
<td>P</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Category</td>
<td>NP</td>
<td>Adj</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Clause</th>
<th>Wana ‘otano’iyoto donggo olango (His son has been sick since yesterday)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Function</td>
<td>S</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Category</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The P function in each of the clauses above is filled by the Adj. or Adj.P category, namely *gaga niyado, modipuluto, buganida’a, layida’a, and mo’ende*. They are adjective clauses.
**Numeral Clauses**

Numeral clause is a clause whose predicate is categorized as number or numeral phrases. The following is the data of the numeral clauses in Suwa-wa language.

(62)  *Wana’onateyaopato* (The number of my children is four)

(63)  *Betedo notes mogawuto stone* (The number of his goat is one hundred)

(64)  *Tagi o pangimbadeyabuligo* (The number of banana bunches in the field is two)

(65)  *Utato nota mohuda’a* (The number of his brother is many)

(66)  *Pangimba nota mopuluguwopatabagona* (The field is fourteen squares)

The above data can be distributed based on the function clause as follows.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Clause</th>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Predicate</th>
<th>Adjective</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(62)</td>
<td>S</td>
<td>NP</td>
<td>Adj.</td>
<td>Opato (four)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(63)</td>
<td>S</td>
<td>NP</td>
<td>Adj.P</td>
<td>mogawuto batu (one hundred)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(64)</td>
<td>S</td>
<td>Adv.</td>
<td>Prep.P</td>
<td>deya nuligo (two clumps)</td>
<td>Numeral P</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(65)</td>
<td>S</td>
<td>FN</td>
<td>Adj</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(66)</td>
<td>S</td>
<td>NP</td>
<td>Adj</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The fillers of the P function in the clause above are *opatota, mogawuto batu, deyabuligo, mohuda’a, and mopuluguwopatobagona* are categorized as number or numeral phrases. Because the P filler is categorized as number/numeral phrase, the clauses above can be categorized as numeral clauses.

### Prepositional Clauses

Prepositional clause is a clause whose predicate is categorized as prepositional phrases. The following examples are prepositional clauses in Suwawa language.

(67) *Wayi-wayi o dalamiyanotiyuda* (Sister is in the room)

(68) *Tina ode patali* (Mother is in the market)

(69) *Bu’alimo bi denitilandagonateya* (This ring is for my girlfriend)

(70) *Ti Pali nonggo bunggalo* (Pali left from the rice field)

(71) *Tete bitua o tudunia no kadera* (The cat is on a chair)

The above data can be distributed based on the elements of the clause function as follows.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Clause</th>
<th>Subject (S)</th>
<th>Predicate (P)</th>
<th>Prepositional Phrase (Prep.P)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(67)</td>
<td><em>Wayi-wayi</em> (sister)</td>
<td><em>o dalamiya notiyuda</em> (in her bedroom)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Function</td>
<td>S</td>
<td>P</td>
<td>Prep.P</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Category</td>
<td>N</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(68)</td>
<td><em>Tina</em> (mother)</td>
<td><em>ode patali</em> (is going to the market)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Function</td>
<td>S</td>
<td>P</td>
<td>Prep.P</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Category</td>
<td>N</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(69)</td>
<td><em>Bu’alimo bi</em> (the ring)</td>
<td><em>Deni Tilandago Nateya</em> (for my girl)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Function</td>
<td>S</td>
<td>P</td>
<td>Prep.P</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Category</td>
<td>NP</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(70)</td>
<td><em>Ti Pali</em> (Pali)</td>
<td><em>nonggo bunggalo</em> (from the garden)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Function</td>
<td>S</td>
<td>P</td>
<td>Prep.P</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Category</td>
<td>NP</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(71)</td>
<td><em>Tete bitua</em> (the cat)</td>
<td><em>o tudunia Kadera</em> (on the chair)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Function</td>
<td>S</td>
<td>P</td>
<td>Prep.P</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Category</td>
<td>NP</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The P function of each of the clauses above is filled by prepositional phrases, namely o in notiyuda, ode patali, denitilandagonateya, nonggobung-galo, and o tudunia no kadera.

Discussion

Introducing the Structure of Suwawa Language

Language is a medium of communication that is used to convey thoughts, ideas, intentions, or feelings to others. By using language, one can naturally relate with other people (Sahasti, 2023). Introducing Suwawa local language in formal education, especially in early childhood is a good way to preserve existing local wisdom. Synergizing local wisdom and information and communication technology-based learning is useful in achieving learning objectives (Asrial et al., 2022). Biologists’ object of study, believed to be a natural object in this cognitive organ system, is a component of the human mind/brain (Eslami & Ahmadvand, 2012).

The decreasing appreciation of society, especially the younger generation to use Suwawa local language in daily communication is the reason why introducing Suwawa language since early age must be carried out. The most common reason found is a point of view local languages are less prestigious or plebeian (Tondo, 2009 p. 289). The younger generation in general also feel embarrassed to speak local languages because they are considered ‘not open minded’, less communicative, and out of date. It is a fact that local languages, including Suwawa language are increasingly marginalized. With the expeditious progress in information communication technology (ICT), innovation and development help improve the performance of education by improving students’ learning outcomes (Hsu, 2024).

Introducing Suwawa language to elementary school students as local content is very important to sharpen the ability of the students to communicate with interlocutors. Language skills are improved through a training process and introduced to them since elementary school so that they can communicate in the language well. Language learning may start from learning how to pronounce letters, vocabulary, and reading, and using sentences in Suwawa language. It is well-established that cognitive load is a central consideration in the design of multimedia instruction (Mayer & Moreno, 2003). The information presented to learners should be designed in such a way as to eliminate any avoidable load on working memory (Paas et al., 2003) in (Pannatier & Béntrancourt, 2024).

Introduction of a local language to students is a learning process carried out by teachers to help students experience changes in behavior, especially in communicating. This is in line with the opinion of (Meisani, 2021) that foreign language learning is very effective when being taught from an early age because at this age, children have good ability to gather information through what they experience themselves. Composing a text requires that children generate and structure ideas, translate these into language,
retrieve spelling, and then form these on a screen or paper. These functions are achieved by a cascade of semi-parallel processes (van Galen, 1991) that, in competent writers, makes possible remarkably rapid and fluent output (Spilling et al., 2023). In addition, introducing how to think in early childhood is part of introducing language. The science of language learning (First and second language) includes different subjects such as reading education and learning the oral skills of language learning these skills in pre-primary level can be considered a fundamental structure for higher grades and especially for the First grade (Moqhadam et al., 2013). Complexity, along with accuracy and fluency, has long been viewed as a key dimension characterizing qualities of second language (L2) performance (Housen and Kuiken, 2009; Norris and Ortega, 2009; Wolfe-Quintero et al., 1998) in (Seo & Oh, 2024)finite adverbial clauses, WH relative clauses, of phrases as nominal postmodifiers.

Words are the building blocks of a language, and vocabulary knowledge is a major factor underlying the achievement of reading comprehension and successful language learning for all learners. Learners develop vocabulary knowledge through systematic learning of vocabulary—targeted vocabulary instruction along with discussion and opportunities to learn the words in context as well as through incidental exposure to new words, which involves authentic tasks such as read-aloud, repeated exposures, and multimodal interactions to make word-form and word-meaning connections (Chowdhury et al., 2024).

Teachers who play a very important role to succeed education are expected to be able to design or develop learning materials based on local wisdom. This integration must of course be adjusted to the material to be delivered, the development of students, and the methods used (Rahmawati et al., 2021). Numerous researchers have agreed that classroom interventions should ideally be designed and implemented by teachers. It is because teachers are the most knowledgeable about their students and well-positioned to freely adjust details of interventions to their classroom contexts in an ecologically valid manner (M. Lee et al., 2023). Elementary and secondary schools, which are part of fundamental education, are more universal and extensive than universities (Huang et al., 2023).

Harmer in (Nurhayati et al., 2017) revealed that children learn differently from adults. They understand the meaning as a whole and not the meaning per word and learn from their surroundings, seeing and experiencing things. Learning local languages at an early age can be effective, especially if the language is practiced at home or at school. Infants and children can identify linguistic units and acquire rules from complex and noisy streams of speech in which word boundaries and grammatical structures are rarely self-evident. They are also able to successfully map word labels to referents that are available in rich and complex visual scenes (Abreu et al., 2023).

However, since not all families in Gorontalo use local languages as a
means of communication in their daily language, a school is often the only place for the students to study and get exposure to Suwawa local languages. Although children produce sentences containing before and after from around 3 years of age (Diessel, 2004), they have difficulties with correct usage up to at least 9 years (Peterson & McCabe, 1987; Winskel, 2003). That is, children’s production of sentences that include these expressions may belie their full competence because they may have better knowledge of one construction over the other. In this study, we focused on 3- to 6-year-old children’s production of two-clause sentences containing the connectives before and after (Blything & Cain, 2019). Children viewed an animated sequence of two actions and were asked to describe the order of events in specific target sentence structures. We manipulated whether the target sentence structure matched the chronological order of events (e.g., “He finished his homework, before he played in the garden” [chronological order].

A concept map is a representation that links concepts in graphical form, and concept mapping (CM) enables learners to extract key concepts from learning contents to identify meaningful relationships (Chang et al., 2022b). CM involves purposeful and hierarchical assimilation of new knowledge into existing frameworks (Ausubel, 1963) in the literature reveals no reviews comparing the two, which is needed because this can identify the differentiated applicability of technology-and non-technology-based CM activities for assisting language learning. Accordingly, the present study reviews 26 studies comparing NTCMLL with TCMLL regarding publication nature, theoretical framework, target language, learning outcomes, CM activities, and technologies used for concept mapping. The results show that (a. NLP is an automated process utilized in analyzing text data and extracting useful information from documents (Moon et al., 2022).

In the school environment, oral language is elicited on all sorts of occasions (Dupont & Grandaty, 2020; Wiertz et al., 2022). It is used as a pedagogical tool, for example, during question-and-answer time with students, or when they are asked to share their points of view (Colognesi et al., 2023). Educators are perpetually tasked with the imperative of evolving their pedagogical approach (Madanat et al., 2024).

**Types of Clauses in Suwawa language**

Suwawa language is considered the oldest language in Gorontalo (Umar, 2017 p. 37). Elder people in Suwawa believe that languages in Gorontalo and its surroundings derived from Suwawa language. That is why vocabulary of Suwawa language and other languages in Gorontalo and its surroundings is similar.

The existence of Suwawa language which is almost lost or extinct must be immediately anticipated. One of attempts that can be implemented is to conduct research or studies on various aspects of the local language. Research on local languages is a kind of concern of scholars in order that
languages do not become extinct at the communication-interaction level (Rosyid, 2014 p. 199). Recognized as a transformative approach to language education, culturally responsive teaching emphasizes the importance of valuing learners’ cultural identities (Gay, 2010). Creating inclusive learning environments and fostering positive teacher-student relationships are essential components supporting learners’ overall academic success (Ladson-Billings, 1995) in (Hossain, 2024). The ability to learn new words not only is essential for people’s ability to express themselves clearly but also affects their written communication abilities and modulates academic achievement (Bleses et al., 2016) (Svaldi et al., 2024) a semantic factor reflecting whether an action requires an instrument (e.g., “to chop” is an instrumental verb.

The concept of a clause has been put forward by some linguists and some definitions of the clause lead to the same concept that a clause is a grammatical unit or group of words consisting of a subject (S) and a predicate (P) (Firman, 2016 p.190; Haque, 2017 p.123; Putri and Yurni, 2020 p.15). The two clause functions (S and P) are also indicators of the construction of a sentence. Therefore, the construction of a clause has the potential to become a sentence (Gani and Arsyad, 2018 p.11). Relative clauses have played a key role in distinguishing between different theories of language comprehension. A reversal in processing costs between full NP and pronominal relative clauses reported by Reali and Christiansen (2007) has been used to argue for expectation-based theories of comprehension (e.g., Hale, 2001; Levy, 2008) and against memory-based theories of comprehension (e.g., Gibson, 1998, 2000; Gordon, Hendrick, & Johnson, 2001; Lewis, Vasishth, & Van Dyke, 2006) in (Roland et al., 2021). This is the focus of research to find out information related to the types of clauses in Suwawa language. Sockett (2013) emphasizes that researchers need to tap into individual learners’ perspectives in order to achieve an in-depth understanding of the contextual factors underpinning the emergence of such behaviors and outcomes (Y. J. Lee & Roger, 2023).

Suwawa language has 5 types of clauses: first, based on the completeness of the core elements, second, based on internal structure, third, based on position in the sentence, fourth, based on the presence or absence of negation elements in the predicate, and the last but least in terms of the sentence predicate category. Connectives cue how phrases are contingent on one another, and contribute importantly to the overall interpretations of their utterances (Skarabela et al., 2023). Corpus linguistics has a long tradition of using texts as the empirical basis for linguistic description, examining all levels of language, including phonology, lexis, grammar, and discourse (Lusta et al., 2023).
CONCLUSION

The research findings revealed that introducing Suwawa language is a great attempt to preserve the local language from distinction. Therefore, there are some steps recommended by the researchers in this research. They are (1) mastering grammar, vocabularies, and making use of information and technology to teach the language, (2) introducing Suwawa language through local content subject and practicing the language in daily life communication, such as in family, and (3) carrying out collaborative research regarding the local language among Bone Bolango regency, Kantor Bahasa Provinsi Gorontalo, and Universitas Negeri Gorontalo.

REFERENCES


