Abstract
This research is entitled Mandarin Word Order: Syntactic Typology. The theory used to examine the linguistic phenomena of Mandarin in this study includes two theories, namely the word order typology theory by Greenberg and the theory of relational grammar by Comrie. The research data consisted of Mandarin phrases, clauses, and sentences obtained from the Xunbao newspaper and Mandarin books. The research method used is a qualitative. The results of this study are presented using a formal method. Based on the formulation of the problem and research objectives, the results of the study show that the order pattern of Mandarin word order is SPO/SVO. As for changes in word order patterns, they can turn into SOV because O switches position with V after becoming a passive sentence. The word order pattern in imperative sentences is S-P/S-P-O. Under certain conditions, S can be eliminated but does not change the pattern. Declarative sentences have the S-P/S-P-O pattern. S is to the left of P and cannot precede P. If this occurs, then the pattern is unacceptable. Interrogative sentences have a word order pattern S-P or S-V. Chinese interrogative sentence markers can be located in the middle of a sentence and at the end of a sentence. These markers do not affect the basic pattern of word order, that P always precedes S. S is to the left of P or is praverbal. Through a syntactic typology approach, Mandarin is included in the ergative language type. Mandarin language treats S the same as P (patient) but differently from A (agent).

Keywords
Word Order
Mandarin Chinese
Syntactic Typology
Mandarin Word Order: Syntactic Typology

Introduction

The study of linguistic typology gave birth to a typology of languages relating to the grouping of languages based on grammatical structures. Mallinson (1981) distinguishes three basic classifications that can be applied to languages, namely: (i) genetic based grouping, (ii) typological based grouping, (iii) regional based grouping (region). In addition, Comrie (1981) argues that to determine language typology, it is necessary to pay attention to certain parameters for grouping languages. Language typology is studied from various perspectives, namely phonology, morphology, syntax, and semantics. The study of word order typology is part of linguistic typology which deals with word order and language elements at the level of phrases and clauses. Whaley (1997) mentions that one of the important studies in linguistic typology is where this study deals with how linguistic elements in clauses and phrases are acceptable in one language. Mandarin is a language with an isolated typology. The word formation process is formed by tone. In short, it can be explained that the type of language is isolative, namely the type of language in which the grammatical relationship is stated and depends on the word order, while the word forms do not change morphologically, but changes that exist only because of differences in tone (Surbakti, 2012). Mandarin has a word order that is different from other languages such as Indonesian and English, Mandarin has a syntactic structure K-S-P-O and S-K-P-O. So through this research it will be analyzed that word order has universal functions in looking at the interesting nature of formal behavior in each language. Next, order the words through the study of language typology.

Siewierska (1988:8 in Song, 2010) provides an explanation that in general the word order at the clause level is found in indicative, independent, stylistically neutral clauses with full noun phrase participants (FN), where the subject is definite, agentive, and human, the object is a definite semantic patient, and the verb shows action, not a statement or event. For most languages, the basic word order can be given in terms of the predicate (P) and its arguments: subject (S) and object (O). There are six basic word orders for transitive sentences: subject-predicate-object (S-P-O), subject-object-predicate (SOP), predicate-subject-object (PSO), predicate-object-subject (POS), object-subject-predicate (OSP), and object-predicate-subject (OPS). The majority of languages in the world use the SPO word order including Indonesian or SOP, with a small but significant number of languages using the PSO word order (Alwi, 1998). Three other word orders are rarely found in order (of the most used ones), namely POS, OSP, and OPS. This was also conveyed by Song (2020) there are six logical permutations called basic sequential order, which are realized in world languages, namely SOV, SVO, VSO, VOS, OVS, and OSV. Song (2020) also adds that the main function of the basic successive arrangement at the clause level is to show 'who did something (x) to whom'.

Based on the language grouping point of view, morphologically Mandarin belongs to the type of isolating language. One feature that stands out (morphologically) is language which does not change form, even verbs and adjectives do not change form. This characteristic makes Mandarin Chinese have unique characteristics compared to other languages. Several studies in the field of linguistics for Mandarin have not used a syntactic typology approach. This research was carried out by
LaPolla (1990), Tremblay (2005), Surbakti (2012), Rizki (2017), (Soares, 2016), Suparyanto and Rosad (2020), Inayah and Sawardi (2021), ManeieBangngu Kale, Rocky Paulus Sekoni, Oce A. Langkameng (2022), Tennison et al., (2022). Referring to Tremblay's research (2005), according to the opinion expressed by LaPolla (1993, 1995) and Van Vallin and LaPolla (1997 in Tremblay, 2005) that word order in Mandarin is exclusively determined by informative or communicative considerations. Although it cannot be denied that word order encodes informative or communicative considerations such as identification, setting, and focalization. In this study it is said that word order also encodes grammatical relationships and word order in Mandarin can be accounted for properly if stated in the form of subject, direct object, and indirect object. In short, in either the unsigned and communicatively marked base sentence or regular sentence, the subject must occur in the direct preverbal position (except for an unidentifiable subject in the base sentence), and the indirect object must occur in the direct post-verbal position. If the subject and indirect object (without morphological signs) occupy another position, then the sentence is not grammatically appropriate. As for the direct object, it must appear in the direct post-verbal position in monotransitive sentences and the indirect object in ditransitive sentences. This study says that the thematic role of the subject, direct object, and indirect does not affect the word order at all.

All of the studies above show different research results. Previous research was more inclined towards each topic of word order and grammatical relations presented separately, even analyzed using a functional grammar approach and not in a typological syntax approach. Previous research provided a significant description of the syntactic construction of the Mandarin language and sparked interest in exploring in detail the word order and grammatical relations of the Mandarin language using a syntactic typology approach. Based on the science of typology developed by a typologist, Greenberg (1963), in his writing entitled "some universals grammar with particular reference to the order of meaningfull elements", he proposed that typology could potentially form six sentence patterns, namely: SVO, SOV, VSO, VOS, OVS, OSV. Indonesian, for example, only has one dominant pattern, namely SVO, English has two dominant patterns, namely SVO and VSO, respectively for informative sentences and interrogative sentences. Latin uses these six patterns. Of the six typologies of word order, according to Li and Thompson (1981) in their book entitled Mandarin Chinese: A Functional Reference Grammar, Mandarin belongs to the SVO type, which can be seen in the simple example below:

(1a) 我吃饺子。
Wǒ chī jiǎozi
I (1Tg/S) eat (V) Dumplings (O)
‘I eat dumplings.’ (HKS-20)

(1b) 我在家吃饺子。
Wǒ zài jiā chī jiǎozi
I'm (1Tg/S) at (Prep) home (K) eating (V) dumplings (O)
‘I eat dumplings at home.’

(2) 我去颐和园。
Wǒ qù yíhéyuán
I (1Tg/S) go (V) summer palace (O)
‘I went to the summer palace.’ (SH-2)
From several examples it can be seen that the basic order of Mandarin is Subject-Predicate-Object (SVO). However, after further tracing, another form of word order was found in Mandarin. Look at the example sentences below:

(4) 我把书本放在桌子上。 
Wǒ bǎ shū běn fàng zài zhuō zi shàng 
I (1Tg/S) bookmark (O) put (V) on the top table 
active voice (Prep) 
'I put the book on the table.' (SH-4)

(4a) 那本书被我放在桌子上。 
Nà běn shū bèi wǒ fàng zài zhuō zi shàng 
it is Book (O) in- I put (V) on the table above 
(1Tg/S) (Prep) 
'I put the book on the table'

(5) 我把这钱转给她。 
Wǒ bǎ zhè qián zhuǎn gěi tā 
I want money(O) transfer(V) give him 
(1Tg/S) 
'I transferred this money to him.' (SH-5)

The two sentences above are active sentences. Based on the example sentence above, the active sentence in Mandarin has a word order pattern in the form of Subject-Object-Predicate (SOP). Chinese active sentences are marked with the particle 把 bǎ. 把 bǎ functions to activate Chinese sentences where the basic order of Chinese is SVO changes to SOV when it enters active Chinese sentences. In addition, there are other patterns, here are examples found:

(6) 我的饮料被他拿走了。 
Wǒ de yǐnliào bèi tā ná zǒu le. 
Ku ATR. drinks (O) he takes(P) bring it already 
(3Tg/S) 
'My drink was taken by him' (SH-7)

The sentences above are passive sentences in Mandarin. Passive sentences in Mandarin are marked with the particle 被 bèi. 被 bèi functions to passiveize Chinese sentences where the initial word order is SVO, when it becomes a passive sentence the word order changes to OVS. Departing from the construction patterns of clauses or sentences, of course, they have grammatical relations that tie the relationship between one function and another so as to produce a typology of a language. (Artawa, 2018) argues that the discussion of grammatical relations involves accusative, ergative, and S-disaggregated (active) terms. Morphologically this is
relatively easy to understand, for example English, but it is very difficult to understand and explain in Western Austronesian languages, such as Filipino.

Based on the opinion above, it can be seen that the problem of grammatical relations in Mandarin belongs to the morphologically isolating type. To find out whether Mandarin tends to be a language that is of the accusative, ergative, or S-Separated (active) type, a test must be carried out through sentence or clause structure. Talking about the structure of clauses or sentences in a language is very important and it is necessary to understand the basic sentence structures related to the presence of the main argument in the clause or sentence. Therefore, knowing the pattern of the basic structure of the language will determine the typology of a language whether language X is of accusative, ergative, or S-disaggregated type. Based on the reasons explained above, this syntactical typology word order research was conducted to examine and determine specifically the Mandarin word order typology and syntactical typology.

**Method**

This study aims to determine the typology of the Mandarin language through a syntactic typology approach using a qualitative approach research method. The data in this study are all Chinese sentences. The data in this study were in the form of written data and oral data. Sources of written data in this study were (1) clauses or sentences published in the Chinese language newspaper XunBao. Xunbao Newspaper for the period November 2022- February 2023. (2) Chinese novel The Great Blue Younder. (3) Mandarin textbooks (对外汉语教学 201 duiwài hànyǔ jiàoxué 201, 汉语口语速成 2nd Edition hànyǔ kǒuyǔ sùchéng dì 2 bān, Step by step Chinese 中级口语 4 Step by step Chinese zhōngjí kǒuyǔ 4, 汉语水平考试 1, 汉语教程第一册 biāozhùn hànyǔ jiàochéng shàngcè, 我的第一本中文词汇书 wǒ de dì yī běn zhōngwén cíhuì shū).

To support the validity of written data, this research uses informants as research data sources, information providers, and research assistants in the stages of providing and validating the data. Informants, namely respondents who are native speakers of Mandarin. The informants consisted of two people, namely 龚寒煦 Gōnghánxù and 苏红 Sū hóng. Both are male and come from Sichuan, Chengdu Province. People are selected based on certain considerations, in accordance with research objectives and must be truly aware of their role as informants, which are essentially sources of information for data acquisition. The two informants met the predetermined criteria, one of which was a Mandarin user since childhood. In this research, determine two informants as the key to obtain valid data. Informants are also needed in this study to support the validity of other written data.

In the research method, there are several types of methods used to obtain a more comprehensive picture of this research, in which the study explores the order pattern of Chinese words and the grammatical relations of Mandarin. Several types of these methods are (1) methods and techniques of data collection, (2) methods and techniques of data analysis, and (3) methods and techniques of presenting the results of data analysis. The methods and techniques for collecting data in this research use the observation method with note-taking techniques. Research data analysis methods and techniques use the agih method by Sudaryanto (2005). The
agih method is divided into two techniques, namely basic techniques and advanced techniques. The basic technique of the distribution method is called the technique for direct elements or the BUL technique. While advanced techniques are divided into seven techniques, namely, fade technique, change technique, extension technique, insert technique, reverse technique, shape change technique, and repetition technique (Sudaryanto, 2015). Of the seven techniques, this study only used a few techniques, namely the replacement technique, the expansion technique, and the reverse technique. First, the replacement or substitution technique is carried out by replacing certain elements of the lingual unit in question with certain other 'elements' outside the lingual unit concerned. Methods and techniques for presenting the results of data analysis are presented formally.

Results and Discussion

The term clause in Chinese is 分句 fēnjù or 句 jù. There are also those who call it 小句 xiǎojù or 短句 duǎnjù. A clause is a syntactic unit that is above a word or phrase unit and below a sentence unit, in the form of a predicative construction of words (Siwi, 2018). That is, in a construction there is a component which is a word or phrase that functions as a predicate, and the other as a subject or as an object. Therefore, sentences or clauses do not differ except in terms of intonation and punctuation, because both clauses or sentences are syntactic constructions that contain predicative elements. So that in simple sentences, clauses and sentences are the same. According to Alwi, clauses have the following characteristics: (1) they consist of one clause, (2) the elements are complete, (3) the elements are arranged in the most general order, (4) they do not contain questions or denials. Similar to other languages, Mandarin has basic clauses with nonverbal and verbal predicates (Alwi, 2003). Nonverbal predicated clauses in Mandarin are in the form of adjective predicated clauses, nominal predicated clauses, numeral predicated clauses, prepositional phrase predicated clauses. Meanwhile, verbal predicate clauses are intransitive clauses, ecatransitive clauses, dwitransitive/ditransitive clauses. Based on the class of words that occupy the predicate function, clauses are grouped into two types, namely nonverbal clauses and verbal clauses.

3.1. Chinese Nonverbal Clauses
Nonverbal clauses are clauses whose predicate is not a verb, but a noun (nominal phrase), adjective (adjective phrase), pronoun, numeralia (numeralia phrase), or prepositional phrase (Chandra, 2016). Therefore, what is at the heart of this clause are the word classes. Based on the number of arguments, the presence of a predicate in a nonverbal clause has the same characteristics as an intransitive clause predicate. Both nonverbal and intransitive clause predicates have only one core argument. Even though it has one core argument, nonverbal clauses cannot be said to be intransitive clauses because intransitive verbs are closely related to verbs. Below are clauses with nonverbal predicates.

3.1.1. Adjective Clause
Adjective clauses are clauses whose predicate belongs to the group of adjectives, or consists of group V phrases whose central element is an adjective. Example:

(7). 天气很热
Tiānqì (S) hěn rè (V)
    Very hot weather
'Very hot weather' (SH-9)

(8). 他的妈妈很好
Tā (3Tg) de māmā (S) hěn hǎo (V)
She (3Tg) mother is very good
‘His mother is very nice’ (SH-10)

Clause (7-8) above is an example of a clause whose predicate is classified as an adjective. The predicate clause (7) is occupied by 热 rè 'hot', the predicate clause (8) is occupied by 好 hǎo 'good'. The clause structure above shows that the predicate of the clause belonging to the adjective is on the right or next to S which is the only argument in the clause. Furthermore, the predicate 热 rè 'hot' which is an adjective occupies the position to the right of or after the argument 天气 tianqì 'weather' in clause (8). The adjective 形容词 xíngróngcí is a word that describes the nature, shape, quality and state of an object, both concrete and abstract objects, animate or inanimate (Chandra, 2016). Furthermore, according to Siwi (2018), adjectives are grammatical categories which function semantically to express properties. Adjectives function to explain nouns in nominal phrases (FN), for example 'big house', 'nice clothes', and so on. The three FNs show that adjectives function to explain nouns. Adjectives function to provide more specific information to nouns in a clause (Alwi, 2003). One of the characteristics of adjectives is antonyms such as 漂亮 piàoliàng 'beautiful' >< 丑 chǒu 'ugly', 大 dà 'big' >< 小 xiǎo 'small'.

In addition to having antonymic characteristics, adjectives also have other characteristics that distinguish them from other categories, namely adjectives can express the level of quality and level of comparison of the noun being compared. So, the characteristic of adjectives with other categories is used in the comparative structure. An adjective always functions as a parameter of the comparative. Just like other languages, in Mandarin there is also a comparative structure. What distinguishes the comparative structure of Mandarin from other languages is using the lexicon 比 bǐ 'compared' / 'rather than' following the adjectives described, then following the lexicon 更 gèng 'more'. The comparative structure of Mandarin can be seen below:

(9). 她比你漂亮
Tā (3Tg) bǐ nǐ (S) piàoliàng (V)
She than you are beautiful (SH-13)
‘She's prettier than you’

(10). 她的家比我的家更远
Tā (3Tg) de jiā bǐ wǒ de jiā (S) gèng yuǎn (V)
‘His home is farther than mine’

In addition to having antonymic characteristics, adjectives also have other characteristics that distinguish them from other categories, namely adjectives can express the level of quality and level of comparison of the noun being compared. So, the characteristic of adjectives with other categories is used in the comparative structure. An adjective always functions as a parameter of the comparative. Just like...
other languages, in Mandarin there is also a comparative structure. What distinguishes the comparative structure of Mandarin from other languages is using the lexicon 比 bǐ 'compared'/ 'rather than' following the adjectives described, then following the lexicon 更 gèng 'more'. The comparative structure of Mandarin can be seen below:

(11). 姐姐很聪明
Jiějiě (S) hěn cōngmíng (V)
Brother is very smart
Brother is so smart' (SH-15)

(12). 妈妈非常漂亮
Māmā (S) fēicháng piàoliang (V)
Mom is so beautiful
'Mama is so pretty' (SH-16)

The example clause (11-12) above is an intransitive clause whose predicate is occupied by an adjective. Adjectives that occupy predicate positions indicate a level of quality because these adjectives are present together with the lexicon 'very', 'most' which states the level of quality. the lexicon structure of 'very' occupies a position before the adjective 聪明 cōngmíng 'smart' in clause (11), the lexicon structure 非常 fēicháng 'really/very' occupies a position before the adjective 漂亮 piàoliang 'beautiful' in clause (12).

3.1.2. Noun Clause
A noun clause is a clause that has a noun predicate, numeralia, nominal subordinate phrase, or classifying numeral phrase. Nouns, numerals, and also phrases that can occupy predicates are very limited. The predicate can also be preceded by adverbs, but there are not many of them (Chandra, 2016). Example:

(13a). *他医生
*) Tā (3Tg) yīshēng
He's a doctor
'He's a doctor'

(14a). *) 他中国人
*) Tā (3Tg) zhōngguó ren
He's Chinese
'He is Chinese'

Noun predicated clauses are often considered ungrammatical sentences because based on their structure they should have a connecting verb (系动词 xìdòngcī) "是 shì" 'is' which in English is called to be. Therefore, sentences (13) and (14) marked *) above should be:

(13b). 他是医生
Tā (3Tg) (S) shì yīshēng (V)
He is a doctor
'She's a doctor' (SH-18)

(14b). 他是中国人
But with the verb "是 shì" the two sentences above are no longer noun predicated sentences or clauses, but verb predicated clauses. Nouns are also often called nouns, we can see it from three aspects, namely the semantic aspect, the syntactic aspect, and the form aspect. In terms of semantics, it can be said that nouns are words that refer to humans, animals, objects, and concepts or meanings. Thus, words like cat, teacher, desk, and nationality are nouns. However, in terms of syntax nouns have certain characteristics. (1) In sentences where the predicate is a verb, the noun tends to occupy the function of subject, object, or complement. (2) Nouns cannot be dismissed with the word no. The denial word is no. To get rid of the sentence 'my father is a teacher', one must use the word 'no': my father is not a teacher. (3) Nouns can generally be followed by adjectives, either directly or mediated by the word yang. Thus, books and houses are nouns because they can combine to become new books and luxurious houses or new books or luxurious houses (Alwi, 2003). Siwi (2018) argues that a nominal predicate clause is a clause construction whose predicate is occupied by a nominal (noun clause). Just like Chinese adjectives have the ability to occupy the predicate position in a noun clause construction. Chinese noun clauses can be seen below:

(15). 今天下雨了
    Jīntiān (S) xià yǔ (V) le
    'Today it has rained' (SH-20)

(16). 今天晴天
    Jīntiān qíngtiān
    Hari ini cerah
    'Hari ini cerah' (XHJ-133)

Clause (15-16) above is an example of a Chinese clause where the predicate is occupied by a noun. The predicate occupied by 下雨了 xiàyǔ le 'rain', 晴天 qíngtiān 'cerah' is categorized as a noun based on the nature and grammatical behavior of the noun which functions as an argument of the predicate. Clause (15-16) also shows that it has one argument, S (S is the clause's only argument). Referring to the clause above, the predicate of the noun clause occupied by the noun occupies the position to the right of S, after S. In other words, S as the only argument in the clause occupies the position before the predicate.

3.1.3. Numeral Clause
Numerals or number words are words used to count the number of entities (people, animals or goods) and concepts (Alwi, 2003). Furthermore, numeralia is a constituent that states the amount of the question "how much?" and "which one?". Phrases such as five days, half a century, third person, and some issues contain numeralia, namely five, half, third, and how many respectively. Numbers or numeralia are words that can be followed by a closing word, namely the words person, tail, stem, pieces, fruit, kodi, strands, and many more (Ramlan, 2005). For example the word one, two, and so on; second, third, and so on; some, every, and so on; while numeric phrases are phrases that have the same distribution as numerals, for example two tails, three stems, five pieces, every inch, several grains,
and so on. Just like any other language, Mandarin also has a common numeral system. The following presents some of the numerals found in Mandarin.

Table 1. Chinese Numerals

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Numeralia</th>
<th>Makna</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>Numeralia</th>
<th>Makna</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>一 (yī)</td>
<td>satu</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>八 (bā)</td>
<td>delapan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>二 (èr)</td>
<td>dua</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>九 (jiǔ)</td>
<td>sembilan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>三 (sān)</td>
<td>tiga</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>十 (shí)</td>
<td>sepuluh</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>四 (sì)</td>
<td>empat</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>十五 (shíwǔ)</td>
<td>lima belas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>五 (wǔ)</td>
<td>lima</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>二十五 (èrshíwǔ)</td>
<td>duapuluh lima</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>六 (liù)</td>
<td>enam</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>—千 (yīqiān)</td>
<td>seribu</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>七 (qī)</td>
<td>tujuh</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>—万 (yīwàn)</td>
<td>sepuluhribu</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The use of these numerals in clauses that occupy predicate positions can be seen in the example clauses below:

(17). 一个月有三十一天
Yīgèyuè (S) you sānshíyītiān (V)
One month has thirty days
‘One month has thirty days’ (SH-23)

Example clause (17) above is a clause built by core arguments and a predicate by numeralia. The structure of the clause with the predicate numeralia shows that the position of the numeralia that occupies the position of the predicate is on the right or after S which is the only argument in the intransitive clause. In clause (17), the predicate 三十一天 sānshíyītiān 'thirty one days' is on the right or after the argument 一个月 yīgèyuè 'one month'. Besides general numerals, Chinese numerals are also special. This special numeral for Mandarin is only used for certain units of quantity, in Indonesian such as one tail, two bunches, four dozen, and so on. The use of special Chinese numerals can be seen in the following example clause.

(18). 我有两只兔子
Wǒ (1Tg) (S) yǒu liǎng zhī tūzǐ (V)
I have two rabbits
‘I have two rabbits’ (SH-25)

Example clause (18) is a transitive clause in which there are special Chinese numerals. This special numeralia for Mandarin functions to explain nouns so that they form nominal phrases, such as 两只兔子 liǎngzhītūzǐ 'two rabbits' in clause (18). Referring to the grammatical function, the special numerals contained in the Chinese clause are at the position of the object. In contrast to general Chinese numerals which are in the predicate position, special Mandarin Chinese numerals can be in the predicate position.

3.1.4. Prepositional Phrase Predicate Clauses
Prepositional phrases consist of a preposition followed by a nominal or nominal phrase. Prepositional phrases can function as oblique arguments, temporal and location modifiers, FN modifiers, or can even function as predicates (Siwi, 2018). A
prepositional phrase clause is a clause whose predicate is occupied by a preposition or prepositional phrase. The clauses occupied by Chinese prepositional phrases can be seen below.

(19). 我在学校里
   Wǒ (1Tg) (S) zài (Prep) xué xiào lǐ (V)
   I'm in deep school
   'I am in school' (SH-28)

(20). 我在商场
   Wǒ (1Tg) (S) zài (Prep) shāngchǎng (V)
   I'm at the supermarket
   'I'm at the supermarket' (SH-30)

Example clause (19-20) is a clause built by a core argument and a predicate. The predicate clause (19-20) above is occupied by a prepositional phrase, namely 在学校里 zàixuéxiàolǐ 'in the school' in clause (19), predicate 在商场 zàishāngchǎng 'in the supermarket' in clause (20). The prepositional phrase in the clause above shows the predicate is located to the right of or after S which is the only argument in the clause. predicate The prepositional phrase 在学校里 zàixuéxiàolǐ 'in the school' is on the right or after the argument 我 wǒ (1Tg) 'I' in clause (19). The prepositional phrase 在商场 zàishāngchǎng 'at the supermarket' is on the right of or after the argument 我 wǒ (1Tg) 'I' in clause (20).

3.1.5. S-P Phrases Predicate Clauses

Predicate clauses S-P phrases are sentences that have a predicate in the form of a predicate subject phrase. This clause is one of the uniqueness in Mandarin. For more details, see the example below.

(21). 我肚子疼
   Wǒ (S) dùzi téng (V)
   I have an upset stomach
   'My stomach hurts' (BHJ-97)

(22). 他工作很认真
   Tā (S) gōngzuò hěn rènzhēn (V)
   He works very seriously
   'He works seriously' (BHJ-97)

(23). 他身体好
   Tā (S) shēntǐ hǎo (V)
   She's good body
   'He is well' (XHJ-134)

In the example clause (21-23) above, it is a clause that has an S-P predicate which functions as a predicate. In clause (21), 我 wǒ 'I' is the subject. 肚子疼 dùziténg
'stomach hurts' is an S-P phrase that functions as a predicate. 他 tā ‘he’ in clause (23) as the subject. 工作很认真 gōngzuòhěnrènzhēn 'work seriously' is an S-P phrase that functions as a predicate. Likewise in clause (23), 身体好 shēntǐhǎo 'he is healthy' is an S-P phrase that functions as a predicate.

3.2. Mandarin Chinese Verbal Clauses

Verbs are the main category in addition to other categories that function as the predicate or core of a clause/sentence and have inherent meanings of actions, processes and circumstances that are not of quality (Siwi, 2018). There are two parameters, namely semantic and syntactic parameters that can be used as a guide related to the filler verbs of the clause predicate function (Budiarta, 2013). These two parameters are applied in an integrated manner so as to produce a classification of verbs or predicates that are not in a separate form between semantic parameters and syntactic parameters. Furthermore, Chandra believes that verbal clauses or in Mandarin called 动词性分句 dòngcíxìngfēnjù are clauses whose predicate is a verb (Chandra, 2016). In other words, what is the core or parent in this clause is a verb. For example:

(24a). 我在工作
   Wǒ (1Tg) (S) zai gōngzuò (V)
   I am working.
   ‘I am working’ (SH-31)

(24b). 我工作了
   Wǒ (1Tg) (S) gōngzuò (V) le
   I work already
   ‘I have worked’

(24c) *我工作
   Wǒ gōngzuò
   I work
   ‘I work’

Clause (24) is a verb clause in Chinese. The clause above is a clause that each core is a verb. Clause (24) with the verb predicate is on the right or after S which is the only argument in the clause above. The predicate of the verb 工作 gōngzuò 'to work' is on the right or after the argument 我 wǒ (1Tg) ‘I’ in clause (24). Verbal clauses are clauses whose P consists of group V words or phrases. Group V words are words which at the clause level tend to occupy the function of P and at the phrase level can be negated by the word not. For example, words in Indonesian stand up, nervous, turn around, be careful, read, sleep, thin, and so on (Ramlan, 2005). Verbs have syntactic characteristics as predicates which involve the presence of a number of arguments in their functions to form clauses. Based on the number of arguments contained in a clause or sentence, verbs can be distinguished into intransitive verbs, intransitive verbs, and dwitransitive verbs. The three types of verbs produce intransitive construction, ecatransitive construction, and dwitransitive construction. A more detailed discussion of the three types of verbal clauses is as follows.

3.2.1. Intransitive Clause

Based on the main categories of clause predicate function fillers, verbs can be classified into two, namely intransitive verbs and transitive verbs. On semantic
parameters, the presence of verbs plays a role in determining the number of participants who must be present in an event or event. Meanwhile, syntactically the verb plays a role in determining the number of core arguments that must be present in a clause construction (Siwi, 2018). Intransitive predicates are verbs that only require one core argument, while transitive predicates require two or more core arguments (Budiarta, 2013). In Alwi, intransitive clauses are explained that a construction that has no object and no complement only has two elements of a mandatory function, namely subject and predicate (Alwi, 2003).

In general, the word order is subject-predicate. Word categories that can fill predicate functions are limited to intransitive verbs. Intransitive and transitive verbs in this study refer to the same thing because both are inseparable. The use of the term intransitive verb or intransitive predicate has the same meaning. Both verbs and intransitive predicates require only one core argument in a clause construction. According to Verhaar, in terms of semantic parameters, intransitive verbs that fill in the predicate of intransitive clauses can be differentiated into experiencing verbs and acting verbs (Verhaar, 2008). Experienced verbs are verbs that have an experiential meaning, while follower verbs are verbs that have an action meaning. The semantic role that the only core argument has in an intransitive clause with the predicate verb is experiencer, while the only core argument in the clause with the predicate verb is the actor or agent. When referring to grammatical functions, the only argument contained in an intransitive clause is the function as a subject (Artawa, 1998). Chinese intransitive clauses can be seen in the example below.

(25a). 我在吃
   Wǒ (1Tg) (S) zai chī (V)
   I am eating
   ‘I am eating’ (SH-35)

(25b) 我吃了
   Wǒ (1Tg) (S) chī (V) le
   I eat already
   'I've eaten already'

(25c) *我吃
   Wǒ (1Tg) (S) chī (V)
   I eat
   'I eat'

Example clause (25) above is an intransitive clause whose predicate is filled with intransitive verbs. The verb that fills the predicate of the intransitive clause, namely the verb 吃 chī 'eat' in clause (25). The main argument in the examples of the clauses above is 我 wǒ (1Tg) 'I' is the main argument in clause (25). Judging from the structure of clause (25) above, it occupies a position to the right of the main argument or is after the main argument. Thus, the position of the core argument is preverbal or is before the verb which functions as the predicate or the core argument precedes the verb (predicate). The example clause (25) above shows that typologically the order of the constituent clauses of intransitive Chinese is SV (subject+verb).

3.2.2. Transitive Clause
3.2.2.1. Ecatransitive Clause
Ekatransitive clauses are clauses whose predicate (verb) requires two core arguments (Siwi, 2018). Ekatransitive clauses in Mandarin can be seen in the clauses below.

(26). 我买衣服
Wǒ (1Tg) (S) mǎi (V) yīfú (O)
I bought clothes
‘I bought clothes’ (SH-38)

(27). 我洗盘子
Wǒ (1Tg) (S) xǐ (V) pánzi (O)
I wash the dishes
‘I wash the dishes’ (SH-39)

The example clause (26-27) above is a transitive clause whose predicate is filled with a transitive verb. Verbs that fill in the predicate of the transitive clause, namely 买 mǎi ‘buy’ in clause (26), 洗 xǐ ‘wash’ in clause (27). These verbs require the presence of two core arguments in the construction of the clause. In clause (26) presents two core arguments, namely 我 wǒ (1Tg) ‘me’ and 衣服 yīfú ‘clothes’, clause (27) produces two core arguments, namely 我 wǒ (1Tg) ‘me’ and 盘子 pánzi ‘plate’. Structurally, the verbs contained in the transitive clause above are in a position between the two core arguments. Clause (26-27) above shows that there are two core arguments that functionally function as subject and object. The core argument that occupies the preverbal position or before the verbal is functionally the subject of the transitive clause and the core argument that occupies the postverbal functionally functions as the object of the transitive clause. The core argument 我 wǒ (1Tg) ‘me’ in clause (26), the core argument 我 wǒ (1Tg) ‘me’ in clause (27) is the subject. The main argument of postverbal 衣服 yīfú ‘baju’ in clause (26), the main argument of postverbal 盘子 pánzi ‘plate’ in clause (27) is an object.

3.2.2.2. Dwitransitive/Ditransitive Clause
Besides having ecatransitive clauses that require the presence of two core arguments in a construction, Mandarin also has clause constructions whose verbs present three core arguments or are called dwitransitive clauses. A dwitransitive clause is a clause that has more than two core arguments (Dixon, 2010). The construction of Chinese dwitransitive clauses that have two and three core arguments can be seen in the example below.

(28). 我给她的姐姐买了衣服
Wǒ (S) gei tā de jiějiě (OTL) mǎi (V) le yīfú (OL)
(1 Tg)
I gave him ATR brother bought already clothes
‘I already bought her sister some clothes’ (SH-42)

(29). 我的爸爸给我们买了房子
Wǒ de bàba (S) gei wǒmen (OTL) mai (V) le fangzi (OL)
(1 Tg)
My father gave us buy already a house
‘My father has bought us a house’ (SH-43)

The example clause above (28-29) above shows that there is more than one core argument present. The core argument of each clause above is 我 wǒ (1Tg) 'I', 他的姐姐 tā (3Tg) de jiějiě 'his brother', and 衣服 yīfú 'clothes' in clause (28). 我爸爸 wǒ (1Tg) bàba 'my father', 家 jiā 'house' and 我们 wǒ (1Tg) men 'we' in clause (29). Another example of a dwitransitive clause can be seen below.

(30a). 我把他的姐姐买衣服
Wǒ (1Tg) (S) bǎ tā de jiějiě (OTL) mǎi (V) yīfú (OL)
My media sister buys clothes
'I bought her sister clothes' (SH-45)

(30b) 我给他的姐姐买衣服
Wǒ gěi tā de jiějiě mǎi yīfú
I gave him ATR brother bought clothes
'I bought her sister's clothes'

(30c) 我帮他的姐姐买衣服
Wǒ bang tā de jiějiě mǎi yīfú
I helped her brother ATR to buy clothes
'I bought her sister's clothes'

(30d) 他姐姐的衣服是我买的
Tā jiějiě de yīfú shì wǒ mǎi de
He is ATR's older brother, I bought ATR clothes
'My sister's clothes were bought by me'

(31a). 这个衣服被我买给他的姐姐
Zhè gēi yīfú bèi wǒ mǎi gěi tā de jiějiě
It's a shirt I bought to give her ATR brother
'My sister bought this shirt for me' (SH-46)

(31b). 这个衣服是我买给他姐姐的
Zhè gēi yīfú shì wǒ mǎi gěi tā jiějiě de
This is a shirt I bought to give him ATR brother
'Her sister bought clothes by me'

(32a). 我给你买生日蛋糕
Wǒ gěi nǐ mǎi shēngrì dāngāo
I gave you buy a birthday cake (SH-47)
'I bought you a birthday cake'

(32b). 我为你买生日蛋糕
Wǒ wèi nǐ mǎi shēngrì dāngāo
I for your sake bought a birthday cake
'I bought you a birthday cake'
Furthermore, the example clause (30-32) above shows that Mandarin has clause constructions where the verb presents more than two core arguments. The example clause above also reveals that Chinese does not have morphological markers attached to verbs that function to increase the presence of arguments in a clause and are not oblique. The above clauses provide a clear picture that in order to increase the presence of an argument in a clause, the presence of an argument in the Chinese clause above is caused by the presence of a lexicon which affects the presence of other arguments. In clause (30), there is a lexicon 把 bǎ. The 把 bǎ lexicon is used to shift the object to the position before the verb, to indicate the release or result of disposal of the object (a certain person or thing) by the verb (杨寄洲, 2003).

Meanwhile, 被 bèi is used in the passive voice to introduce the actor of the action. The subject before the verb is the recipient of the action, and the verb is often followed by words that show completion or results (the actor is often omitted in communication) (used in passive sentence to introduce the doer of the object. the subject before the verb is the receiver of the action, and the verb os often followed by words indicating a completion or result (杨寄洲, 2003). The core argument of each clause above is, 我 wǒ 'me' and 衣服 yīfú 'baju' in clauses (30-32); 我 wǒ (1Tg) 'me' and 生日蛋糕 shēngrìdàngāo 'birthday cake' in clause 32. Unlike the examples of clauses (30) to (32) which have three core arguments, clauses (28) and (29) have two core arguments. One core argument has undergone a change in its grammatical function which was previously an indirect object, namely 他姐姐 Tā (3Tg) jiějiě 'his sister' in clauses (30) and (31), and 你 nǐ 'you' in clause (32) changes to oblique as indicated by the presence of the prepositions 把 bǎ and 被 bèi in clauses (30) and (31).

3.3. Chinese word order

This section discusses the Chinese word order, because in the syntactic typology developed by Greenberg (Greenberg, 1963), the word order in the basic sentence construction of a basic clause of a language can be a measure to predict several things in the grammatical language. As explained by Mallinson and Blake (1981 in Siwi, 2018) theoretically says that languages in the world have a subject-predicate construction as the basis of a clause or sentence, the existence of an object in a clause or basic sentence construction becomes very important related to the behavior of verbs that occupy predicate positions. In this case, the meaning of word order in Mandarin refers to the basic word order, namely the order in the neutral clause. The study of word order order aims to examine the order of subject (S), verb (V), and object (O) which have grammatical behavior traits. The same is explained in Comrie, that the main word order parameters have been used in the typology literature recently, in particular the order of the main constituent clauses (subject, object, verb) and noun phrases, although other constructs are introduced where relevant (Comrie, 1981). The order of the clause constituents is one of the most important word order typology parameters. Several linguistics have made it a major typological parameter. In its original form, parameters thus characterize with relative order of subjects, verbs, and objects, giving rise to six logically possible types, namely SOV, SVO, VSO, VOS, OVS, OSV. In this regard, the study of word order in this study is to examine the order of subjects, verbs, and objects that have grammatical behavioral characteristics. The order of the words is studied based on the construction of imperative, declarative, and interrogative sentences.
3.3.1. Imperative Sentence

Imperative sentences are sentences that are addressed to the interlocutor, namely the person who is asked by the first party to do the work as intended in the verb or sentence predicate (Siwi, 2018). Which means the subject of the imperative sentence has been determined, namely the second person. Imperative sentences have several formal characteristics, namely (a) intonation which is marked with a low tone at the end of the utterance. (b) the use of affirming, smoothing, and assignment words of invitation, hope, request, and prohibition. (c) order inversion so that the order is not always revealed by the predicate-subject if necessary; and (d) the perpetrators of the action are not always revealed (Ramlan, 2005). Imperative sentences can be realized through the following characteristics: (a) sentences consisting of basic verbal predicates or adjectives, or only prepositional phrases which are intransitive in nature. (b) complete sentences with intransitive and transitive verbal predicates. (c) sentences marked by various sentence modality assignment words. Similar to other languages, Mandarin also has imperative sentences. Imperative sentences in Mandarin are called 祈使句 qíshǐjù. Imperative sentences or 祈使句 Qíshǐjù are sentences that express a request, command, advice, warning, and contain an imperative intonation, namely an exclamation point (!) or a full stop (.). This sentence is pronounced with descending intonation (↓). Imperative sentences have grammatical features which are generally in the form of minor single sentences (incomplete sentences), both those without a subject or one word or phrase (Chandra, 2016). Besides that, it can also be in the form of a major single sentence (complete sentence), for example like:

(33). 站住！
Zhànzhù!
Stop!
‘Stop!’ (XHJ-173)

(34). 你可不许告诉别人！
Nǐ kě bù xu gào su biérén
You can't tell people!
‘You don’t tell people!’ (XHJ-173)

Imperative sentences where the subject is often omitted, for example:

(35). (你)出去！
(nǐ) chū qù
(You go!)
‘Go!’ (XHJ-173)

(36). (我们)走吧！
(Wǒmen) zǒu ba
(we) walk!
‘Come on!’ (XHJ-173)

Imperative sentences are usually in the form of verbs, for example:

(37). 请告诉他。
Qǐng gào su tā (3Tg) .
Please tell him
'Please tell him' (XHJ-173)

Imperative sentences can be marked with some special verbs such as 请 qǐng, 让 ràng, 叫 jiào, 看 kàn, 来 lái. The verb 请 is always at the beginning of the sentence, for example like so:

(38). 请进！
Qǐng jìn!
Please come in
'Please come in!' (XHJ-173)

(39). 请坐！
Qǐng zuò!
Please, sit
'Please sit down!' (XHJ-173)

And imperative sentences in negative form use adverbs 别 bié, 不 bù, 不要 bùyào, for example like:

(40). 别客气！
Bié kèqì
Do not be shy
'You're welcome!' (XHJ-173)

(41). 请不要忘记！
Qǐng bù yào wàngjì!
Please don't forget!
‘Please don’t forget!’ (XHJ-173)

Mandarin imperative sentences can show various meanings such as command or order, prohibit or forbid, request, advise or advise, induce or persuade, allow or permit, negotiate or negotiate, remind or warn/warning, and threaten.

Example sentences (33-41) are imperative sentences in Mandarin which have different grammatical features. Syntactically, imperative sentences in Mandarin are formed by words or phrases as characteristics of imperative sentences in Mandarin, both subject and non-subject, with or without arguments. The study of the word order of imperative imperative sentences in Mandarin in this study is basically focused on imperative forms with verbal predicates only, those with arguments (34), (37) or without arguments (33), (35), (36), (38), (39), (40), (41). The order of words or constituents in imperative sentences in Mandarin according to the data examples (34), (37) is V-O (imperative sentences) which is a reduction of the V-S-O and S-V-O patterns. The imperative sentence form in Mandarin is only in the form of using the basic verb which is the core of the imperative sentence. Verbs without affixes or followed by particles do not change the meaning grammatically. Elements of words or phrases in imperative sentences in Mandarin are marked by words that follow verbs in sentences or clauses. Meanwhile, other forms of imperative sentences in Mandarin language are utterances with verb predicates that do not have FN or arguments. The FN comes before the verb predicate. which means that in Chinese sentences the placement of the FN after the verb is more basic than the placement
of the FN before the verb. As for the placement of the FN before the verb, usually there is omission of the Subject (FN). FN in the imperative sentence of Mandarin is a patient. Examples (63), (66) can provide an overview of imperative sentence forms in the form of complete utterances with a verb predicate. In Mandarin, the word order is V-O (patient).

3.3.2. Declarative Sentence
In Ramlan (2005), declarative sentences are also known as news sentences. In the use of language the declarative sentence form is generally used by speakers to make statements so that the contents are news to listeners or readers (Ramlan, 2005). In line with Chandra's opinion in his book, declarative sentences or 陈述句 chénjìjù are sentences that state or explain something and are marked by a declarative final intonation, which is pronounced with a descending intonation (↓) (Chandra, 2016). In written form, this sentence is marked with a period (.). This sentence contains an intention to convey a news (information) or thing. A declarative sentence is a type of sentence that is used to inform or state something to another party (Siwi, 2018). The discussion regarding the word order of declarative sentences includes (a) the word order in intransitive clauses, (b) the word order in ecatransitive clauses, (c) the word order in dwitransitive clauses. Below is an example of grammatical word order in Mandarin, namely word order in intransitive clauses.

(42a). 他跑了
Tā (3Tg) (S) pǎo(V) le
He ran already (GHX-01)
'He has run'

(42b). 他在跑
Tā (3Tg) (S) zaipǎo (V)
He's running
'He's running'

(42c). *他跑
Tā (3Tg) (S) pǎo (V)
he ran
'He ran'

Example clause (42a) is a declarative sentence in Chinese. In example (42a) it is an intransitive sentence because in that construction there is the only argument which functions as an agent and also functions as a grammatical subject. The order of the words in the sentence is S-P. Example (42a) is an intransitive sentence with a verb. Clause (42a) is a verb predicate clause. Each of the above clauses consists of a predicate and a core argument which grammatically functions as a subject (S). Clause (42a-42c) above shows that the grammatical function of the subject is in the preverbal position or to the left of the predicate. The same thing happens in clauses (42a) and (42b), the subject 他 tā (3Tg) 'he' is to the left of the predicate or before the predicate 跑 pǎo 'run'. Clause (42a-42c) illustrates that the canonical pattern of intransitive clauses in Chinese has a word order or SV constituent (the subject precedes the verb or predicate). Then the order of words in Chinese e-transitive clauses is presented in the following clauses.

(43). 我喝啤酒
Wǒ (1Tg) (S) hē (V) píjiǔ (O)
I drink beer
‘I drink beer’ (HKS-20)

(44). 去去天安门
Wǒ (1Tg) (S) qù (V) tiān'ānmén (O)
I'm going Tianan men
'I went to Tiananmen' (HKS-37)

Clause (43-44) is an ecatransitive clause. There are two arguments in this construction that function as subject (S) or agent (A) and patient (P). And grammatically functions as subject and object. The clauses (43-44) above each consist of a predicate and two core arguments which grammatically/syntactically function as subject and object. Clause (43-44) above shows the grammatical function of the subject which is in the preverbal position or is in the position to the left of the predicate occupied by the verb which is the core of the clause and the position of the object which is present in the postverbal position or is in the position after or to the right of the predicate after the verb. In clause (43-44). The subject 我 wǒ (1Tg) 'I' in clause (43) is in the position to the left of the predicate or preverbal, while the object 啤酒 píjiǔ 'beer' in clause (43) is in the position to the right of the predicate or postverbal. The subject 我 wǒ (1Tg) 'I' in clause (44) is in the position to the right of the predicate or preverbal, while the object in clause (44) is in the position to the left or postverbal.

3.3.3. Interrogative Sentences
Interrogative sentences in Chinese are called 疑问句 yíwènjù. Interrogative sentences are also called interrogative sentences. An interrogative sentence is a sentence that states a question and contains an interrogative intonation (?) (Chandra, 2016). In Mandarin, interrogative sentences can also be marked by the use of questioning modality particles such as 吗 ma, 呢 ne, 吧 ba, or questioning pronouns such as 谁 shéi, 什么 shénme, 怎么样 zěnmeyàng, and others. This sentence is pronounced with rising intonation (↓). Furthermore, interrogative sentences are sentences that contain elements of a question or require an answer or explanation (Siwi, 2018). In Mandarin, interrogative sentences are divided into seven types, namely interrogative sentences using the particle 吗 ma, interrogative sentences using the questioner pronoun, affirmative (positive-negative) interrogative sentences, interrogative sentences using the alternative form 还是 háishì, interrogative sentences using adverb 多 duō. Each type of Chinese interrogative sentence will be discussed below.

3.3.3.1. Interrogative sentences that use the particle 吗 ma

(45). 今天晚上你看电影吗？
Jīntiān wǎnshàng nǐ (S) kàn (V) diànyǐng ma
What movie did you watch today night?  
‘Did you watch a movie tonight?’ (HJC-174)

The example clause above is a question sentence or interrogative sentence that requires a yes or no answer. Based on the order of the constituent words, interrogative sentences have a different word order than declarative sentences. The difference lies in the intonation that is spoken and the 吗 ma particle which is at the end of the clause. The three examples of clauses above can also be distinguished into interrogative sentences that ask about the subject, interrogative sentences that ask about the object. The word order of interrogative sentences in this study is the order of interrogative sentences that ask for the main argument (SUBJ/Agent or OBJ/Patient). This type of interrogative sentence particle 吗 ma is an interrogative sentence that asks about the subject. Means that the informative answer is SUBJ/A intransitive sentences). 吗 ma is used to ask a question whose answer is yes or no because the subject does not know whether or not the subject has done it. It can be seen from the construction of the interrogative sentence in the clause above that the word order is SUBJ/A-V. There is no other accepted order in Mandarin other than this sequence for asking SUBJ/A intransitive sentences.

3.3.3.2. Interrogative sentences that use the interrogative pronoun

(46). 你提他干什么？
Nǐ (S) tí (V) tā (O) gàn shénme
What do you call him for?
‘What do you call him for?’ (XBN-050223)

(47). 这是谁的手？
Zhè shì (S) shéi de shǒu
This is who has hands?
‘Whose hand is this?’ (XBN-040123)

(48). 你为什么不走？
Nǐ (S) wèishé néme bù zǒu (V)
Why aren't you walking?
‘Why don’t you go?’ (DHJ-82)

Based on the example clause above, the order of words in Chinese interrogative sentences is SUBJ/A-V-O. Examples of clauses (46) and (48) are included in interrogative sentences with transitive sentences whose order is SUBJ/A-V-O. While clause (48) is an intransitive interrogative sentence whose order is SUBJ/A-O. Pronouns in interrogative sentences in Mandarin function to question the subject/agent or object/patient. Pronouns can be in the middle of a clause or at the end of a clause.

3.3.3.3. Affirmative interrogative sentences (positive-negative)

(49). 你能不能进去？
Nǐ (S) néng bù néng jìnqù (V)
I can not enter go?
‘Can I come in or not?’ (DHJ-65)
Based on the example clause above, an affirmative interrogative sentence is an intransitive sentence that has the SUBJ/A-V word order. Verbs or predicates in clauses are in the form of verbs and even adjectives. In Clause (87), 你 Ni functions as a subject and 能不能进去 nénghuǎnghuǎnqǐ as a predicate in the form of a verb. Next, 这个东西 zhègedōngxī functions as a subject and 好不好 hǎobùhǎo functions as a predicate as well as an affirmative (positive-negative) interrogative sentence marker in clause (49). 这个裙子 zhègeqúnzi in clause (50) functions as a subject, and 好看不好看 hǎokànbahǎokàn functions as a predicate as well as a marker of affirmative (positive-negative) interrogative sentences.

3.3.3.4. Interrogative sentences that use the alternative form 还是 háishì

(51). 你喜欢喝茶还是咖啡?
    Nǐ xǐhuān hē chá háishì kāfēi?
    Do you like drinking tea or coffee?
    ‘Do you like tea or coffee?’ (XHJ-172)

还是 háishì, in Indonesian it is called ‘or’. 还是 háishì ‘or’ in the example clause above functions as an interrogative sentence marker to ask for a choice ‘between X or Y. The word order in the interrogative sentence above is SUBJ/A-V.

3.3.3.5. Interrogative sentences that have the construction 是不是 shìbùshì

(52). 你是不是很忙
    Nǐ (1Tg) (S) shì bù shì hěn máng (V) ?
    You are not very busy?
    ‘Aren’t you very busy?’ (XHJ-172)

(53). 他是不是住 309 号?
    Tā (3Tg) (S) shì bù shì zhù 309 hào (V)?
    He is not is live 309 number?
    'Isn't he the one living in room 309?’ (XHJ-172)

The interrogative sentence above is marked by 是不是 shìbùshì in Chinese which requires a yes or no answer. The construction interrogative sentence 是不是 shìbùshì has a slight difference from the interrogative sentence using the particle 吗 ma. Based on the example clause above, the word order of the interrogative sentences above is SUBJ/A-V. 你 nǐ ‘you' in clause (52) functions as a subject or agent, followed by an interrogative sentence marker which has the construction 是不是 shìbùshì, followed by the predicate 很忙 hěnmáng ‘very busy’. 他 tā (3Tg) 'he' in clause (53) functions as a subject or agent, then followed by an interrogative sentence marker with the construction 是不是 shìbùshì, followed by the predicate 住 zhù and object 309 号 309 hào ‘number 309' whose order is SUBJ/A-V-O.
3.3.3.6. Interrogative sentences that use the adverb 多 duō

(54). 你多高？
Nǐ (S) duō gāo (V) ?
‘How tall are you?’ (DHJ-101)

(55). 这条鱼有多重？
Zhè tiáo yú (S) yǒu duō chóng (V)
How much does this fish weigh?
‘How much does this fish weigh?’ (DHJ-101)

The example clause above is an interrogative sentence with the marker 多 duō which means almost the same as how much/how much. Usually 多 duō is used to ask for quantity, for example how high, how much, how wide, and so on. 你 nǐ ‘you’ in clause (54) functions as a subject, after which it is marked with 多 duō ‘how much' to show its interrogative characteristics. 高 gāo 'high' in clause (54) functions as an object, whether the object is in the form of a noun, verb, adjective, or something else. 多 duō is located between the SUBJ and the predicate. Similar to the example clause (55), 这条鱼 zhètiáo yú ‘this fish’ is the subject, followed by 多 duō which functions as an interrogative sentence marker. 重 chóng ‘heavy' in clause (55) functions as a nonverbal adjective predicate.

The basic word order at the clause level consists of three main constituents, S, O, and P. There are six logical permutations of S, O and P, each of which has been proven in world languages. According to Greenberg, the word order rules in a sentence in a language affect several things. First, the formation of compound sentences. The rules for forming compound sentences tend to follow the rules for forming basic sentences. Second, if a language has an O-P order then that language tends to have an attribute order followed by a central element in its noun phrase construction. Languages with P-O order tend to have a central element followed by attributes. Third, the morphological system. The O-P language has a dominant suffix, while the P-O language has a dominant prefix.

3.4. Mandarin as a S-V-O Typology Language

As stated in the previous section, the determination of typology of basic word order in a language is based on the construction of basic clauses. The order of words in a basic clause is considered as the order of the basic words of the language in question and henceforth determined as the typology of the word order of the language. After conducting analysis and examination and determining the order of basic words at the clause level in the form of imperative, intransitive, transitive, interrogative clauses. Based on the results of the analysis previously described, the basic clauses of Mandarin have S-P-O and S-O-P patterns. This change in pattern occurs when the active sentence construction changes to a passive sentence. Active sentences have an S-P-O pattern, after becoming passive sentences the pattern changes to S-O-P. No other pattern was found besides the two patterns. In the basic clauses of Mandarin, the position of the predicate is between the subject and the object.
3.5. Mandarin Grammatical Relations

After describing the word order, verb morphology, and clause structure of Chinese, the next is a discussion of grammatical relations in Mandarin. Discussion of grammatical relations to determine the roles and grammatical relations of the arguments that will form clauses determined by the predicate. The study of the grammatical relations of subject, object and oblique cannot be separated directly from the grammatical semantic roles of agent and patient. Based on the opinion of Comrie (1983) and Blake (1990), grammatical relations discuss parts or elements of clauses or sentences which are categorized as subjects (S), direct objects (OL), and indirect objects (OTL) (Blake, 1990). The three kinds of grammatical relations are syntactic relations. In addition to pure grammatical relations, there are also other grammatical relations which are semantic in nature, namely locative, beneactive, and instrumental.

A collective grammatical relation is called an oblique relation. Thus, grammatical relations include subject, direct object, and indirect object, and oblique relations (S, OL, OTL, and OBL). A detailed discussion of syntactical (S, OL, and OTL) and semantic (OBL) grammatical relations based on linguistic typology theory aims to provide support and explanation of the basic structure of Chinese clauses. The section that talks about grammatical relations in Mandarin is divided into discussions of Chinese subject relations, Chinese object relations, Chinese oblique relations, complements, and core Chinese grammatical relations. Blake (1990) suggests that syntactic relations are considered to form a hierarchy with the numbering 1, 2, and 3 which are generally used to mark the relation in question (Blake, 1990): The subject is number 1, the direct object is number 2, the indirect object is number 3. Artawa (2000: 490 in Basaria, 2016) states that the initials indicate that the agent is treated as relation 1, the patient as relation 2, and the recipient as relation 3. These grammatical relations serve as a reference for providing various aspects of clause structure as well as the universal principles that govern the structure and structure of natural language. Syntactic grammatical relations (S, OL, OTL) and semantic relations (OBL) can be analyzed using a linguistic typology theory approach with the aim of detailing the study of the basic clause structure of a language. Topics that are related to grammatical relations which become the study of typology are subject, object, and oblique relations.

The linguistic typological study according to Comrie (1988b), has two main assumptions, namely (a) it is assumed that all languages are comparable based on their structure; (b) it is also assumed that there are differences between the existing languages. In ergative languages syntactically P and S behave as subjects. Relations P and S are often called absolute relations, while relations A are called ergative, that is, the ergative marker is used as a grammatical term. Based on the syntactic behavior of A and S in accusative language, the relation A and S is often referred to as the subject relation. Basic principles of grammatical relations such as subject of or object of play an important role in natural language syntax. These relations become a reference for describing various aspects of clause structure and the universal principles that govern the structure and syntactic organization of natural languages.

The predicate is the main point in a clause or sentence construction. In addition to the presence of verbs as main core elements, other elements in the form of hangers are also present in clauses or sentences so that these clauses or sentences become grammatical. Verbs can be accompanied by one or two hangers. The hanger that
accompanies the presence of a verb in a clause or sentence is an argument made by FN. FN which embodies these arguments can be referred to as complements or adverbs. In a construction, an intransitive clause or sentence requires one argument, whereas a transitive clause or sentence requires the presence of two arguments. The relation that is owned by intransitive verbs and transitive verbs that have one argument and two arguments is called this grammatical relation (Artawa, 1998).

In the construction of clauses or sentences with transitive verbs, agents and patients are required as arguments. For example, English is a language with an accusative typology, the agent is identified as the subject and the patient as the object. Behavioral traits support core grammatical relations. To explore the core grammatical relations of Mandarin, the following clauses with intransitive and transitive verbs, either one argument or two arguments.

(56). 他来了
   Tā (3Tg) (S) lái (V) le
   He came already
   'He is coming' (GHX-32)

(57). 我喜欢他
   Wǒ (1Tg) (S) xǐhuān (V) tā (O)
   I like her
   'I like him' (GHX-34)

(58). 他叫我
   Tā (3Tg) (S) jiào (V) wǒ (O)
   He called me
   'He called me' (GHX-36)

(59). 我的鸡被杀了
   Wǒ (1Tg) de jī (S) bèi shā le
   my chicken was slaughtered already
   'My chicken was slaughtered'(GHX-38)

(60). *我他叫
   *Wǒ (1 Tg) (S) tā (O) jiào (V)
   I he called
   'I he called' (GHX-39)

Cross-linguistically basic subjects have typical behavioral characteristics and traits which can be grouped into four: a) autonomous behavioral traits, b) case behavioral traits, c) semantic roles, d) direct dominance. The nature of the subject's autonomous behavior includes: (a) free existence, (b) indispensability/indispensability, (c) self-reference. Case-marking behavioral attitudes include: the subject of an intransitive sentence is generally unmarked if every noun phrase (FN) in the language is unmarked; FN changing case markers to causative including subject; FN which changes case markers nominalizes the action including the subject. The semantic role (agent, experiencer, etc.) of the subject can be predicted from the form of the main verb.

(61). 我 睡不着
Wǒ (1Tg) (S/A) shuì bù zháo (V)
I can't sleep (GHX-05)
'I can not sleep'

The intransitive clause above, Clause (61) is an intransitive clause which has the only argument. Clause (61) is analyzed as a clause consisting of a predicate along with an explanation with one previous argument. 我 wǒ (1Tg) 'I' in clause (61) is the subject and the only argument which occupy their respective positions according to the rules of Mandarin grammar rules. The only argument that occupies as a subject occupies its respective position in accordance with the rules of Mandarin grammar and the process of raising from predicate to subject does not apply, because the subject remains as subject according to the Subject (S)-Predicate (P) pattern. If the predicate is raised to the subject, the clause above will be ungrammatical. In contrast to transitive clauses, pay attention to the following clauses:

(62a). 我 买 了 这辣椒
Wǒ (1Tg) (S/A) mǎi (V) le zhè làjiāo (O/P)
I bought already this chili (GHX-08)
'I already bought this chili'

(62b). 这辣椒是我买了
Zhè làjiāo (S) shì wǒ (1Tg) (S/A) mǎi (V) le
This chili is I bought already
'I already bought this chili'

(62c). *买了这辣椒是我
Mǎi (V) le zhè làjiāo (O) shì wǒ (1Tg) (S)
Buying already this chili is me
'Already bought this chili I'

A transitive verbal clause has two FNs located before and after the verbal. In the example clause (62a), FN is located before the verbal (preverbal) and after the verbal (postverbal). 我 wǒ (1Tg) 'I' in clause (62a) is the FN that comes before the verb or preverbal. 我 wǒ (1Tg) 'I' in clause (62a) functions as a subject. 这辣椒 zhè làjiāo 'this chili' in clause (62a) is the FN that comes after the verb or postverbal. 这辣椒 zhè làjiāo 'this chili' in clause (62a) functions as an object.

If the object in clause (62a) is raised to the subject as in clause (62b), the sentence is acceptable. However, if the two FNs are placed after the verbal, i.e. placed after the verb (postverbal) the sentence becomes unacceptable (marked *) like clause (62c). Thus, the two FN clauses above can be raised from object to subject in clause (62b) and acceptable. Another example can be seen in the form of passive and active clause construction. The following is an example:

(63a). 他想念我 (Active)
Tā (3Tg) (S) xiǎngniàn (V) wǒ (O)
She miss me (GHX-17)
'He misses me'

(63b). 我被他想念了 (Passive)
Wǒ (1Tg) (S) bèi tā (O) xiǎngniàn (V) le
'I was missed by him'

(63c). 他被我想念了 (Passive)
Tā (3Tg) (S) bèi wǒ (O) xiǎngniàn (V) le
'she's in- i miss already
'He was missed by me'

If clause (63a) is passive, it will produce clauses (63b) and (63c). When the subject of clause (63a) is passive, it changes position to become the object of clause (63b). Object (128a) when passive changes its position to become the subject of clause (63b). Thus, the agent in clause (63a) becomes the patient in clause (63b). The patient in (63a) becomes the agent in clause (63b).

(64a). 我买了那件衣服 (Active)
Wǒ (1Tg) (S) mǎi (V) le nà jiàn yīfú (O)
'I already bought clothes'

(64b). 那件衣服是我买了 (Passive)
nà jiàn yīfú (S) shì wǒ mǎi le (V)
'That shirt was bought by me'

(64c). 那件衣服被我买了 (Passive)
nà jiàn yīfú (S) shì wǒ (O) mǎi (V) le
'That shirt was bought by me'

Clause (64a) is a transitive clause to test objects in Chinese clauses. Clause (64a) is an active clause which is passive to become clause (64c). Clause (130a) with S-V-O word order. 我 wo 'I' is the subject, 买 mǎi 'buy' is the verb, and 那件衣服 nà jiàn yīfú 'the dress' is the object. If it is passivated, the object 那件衣服 nà jiàn yīfú 'that shirt' moves to become the subject in clause (64b). Thus, an object which is a patient in clause (64a) can be a subject but not the same as an agent. Then what about a transitive clause with three arguments. Consider the following example.

(133 65a). 我给她这本书 (Active)
wǒ (1Tg) (S) gěi (V) tā (OL) zhè běn shū (OTL)
i gave him this book (GHX-22)
'I gave him this book'

(133 65b). 我把这本书给他 (Active)
wǒ (1Tg) (S) bā zhè běn shū (OTL) gěi (V) tā (OL)
'I have this book give him
'I gave this book to him'

(133 65c). 这本书被我给他 (Passive)
zhè běn shū (S) bèi wǒ (OTL) gěi (V) tā (OL)
this is the book in- I gave him
‘I gave this book to him’

(133 65d). 这本书是我给他 (Passive)
zhè běn shū (S) shì wǒ (OTL) gěi (V) tā (OL)
this book is me giving him
'I gave this book to him'

Clause (133a) above is a bitransitive verb clause, namely an active and passive sentence which has three arguments: S, OL, and OTL. The nature of OL and OTL behavior in Mandarin is tested through position and passivization. The examples above show the behavior of OL and OTL sentences with Mandarin bitransitive verbs. In the example clause (133a), 他 tā (3Tg) 'he' and 这本书 zhè běn shū 'this book' are two objects of the ditransitive verb 给 gěi 'give'. Semantically, 他 tā (3Tg) 'diā' is the direct object (OL) of the verb 给 gěi 'to give'. 这本书 zhè běn shū 'this book' is the indirect object (OTL) in the clause.

Thus, in transitive sentences with dual-transitive Chinese verbs, the FN that immediately comes after the verb is OL and is followed by OTL. Based on the passivization in clause (133b), there is a change in position between the OTL and the Subject. In passive sentences, the object does not immediately change position to become the subject. The subject in an active sentence occupies the position of indirect object in a passive sentence. In active sentences, 我 wǒ (1Tg) 'I' occupies the subject position (S), 他 tā (3Tg) 'he' occupies the OL position, and 这本书 zhè běn shū 'this book' occupies the OTL position.

Meanwhile, if it is passive, the position becomes, 这本书 zhè běn shū 'this book' occupies the subject position, 他 tā (3Tg) 'he' occupies the OL position, and 我 wǒ (1Tg) 'I' occupies the OTL position. These three arguments are bound by the presence of the verb 给 gěi 'to give'. OL in Mandarin is FN which immediately comes after the verb, while OTL follows it. Both subject and OL can occupy the subject of passive sentences through passive rules. If the OL is the subject in the passive sentence, then there is no morphological change in the verb.

The predicate is the main point in a clause or sentence construction. In addition to the presence of verbs as main core elements, other elements in the form of hangers are also present in clauses or sentences so that these clauses or sentences become grammatical. Verbs may be accompanied by one or two clauses. The dependency that accompanies the presence of a verb in a clause or sentence is an argument created by FN. FN which embodies these arguments can be referred to as complements or adverbs. In a construction, an intransitive clause or sentence requires one argument, whereas a transitive clause or sentence requires the presence of two arguments. The relation that is owned by intransitive verbs and transitive verbs that have one argument and two arguments is called this grammatical relation (Artawa, 1998).

3.3.6. Mandarin as Ergative Typology
Based on the opinion put forward by Comrie (1989), that a grammatical relation is a chart or element of a sentence or clause which is categorized as subject (S), direct object (OL), and indirect object (OTL). The three grammatical relations are syntactical relations. In addition to syntactic grammatical relations, there are semantic relations, namely locative, benefactive, and instrumental which are
collectively called oblique relations (Blake, 1990). Of the various studies that need to be done in typology of language is a matter of grammatical relations. According to Palmer (1994), the fact that S is treated the same as A in the accusative system and S is treated the same as P in the ergativity system makes it important to explain between grammatical roles and grammatical relations. The determination of S=A and S=P is a different concept from the roles of S, A, and P. In this case, S, A, and P are grammatical roles, while S=A and S=P are grammatical relations. The pattern of arguments contained in Mandarin shows a pattern of grammatical relations of ergative type with S being treated the same as P and different from A. The argument of the patient (P) from a transitive predicate is treated the same as the argument of an intransitive predicate (S) and different from the agent's argument (A) from a transitive predicate.

**Conclusion**

Based on the problem formulation and research objectives to describe the word order pattern and syntactic typology of the Chinese language, several findings can be concluded, namely based on Greenberg's word order theory, the Chinese word order pattern is SPO/SVO. As for changes in word order patterns, they can turn into SOV because O switches position with V after becoming a passive sentence. To determine the word order pattern, the basic clause plays an important role. Determination of the basic clause must also be really good, because if the basic clause is wrong, then the determination of the word order pattern can also be wrong. The grammatical pattern of Chinese words is analyzed based on the construction of nonverbal and verbal basic clauses. Nonverbal clauses are in the form of adjective clauses, noun clauses, numeralia clauses, prepositional phrase predicate clauses, and S-P phrase predicate clauses. Verbal clauses are intransitive clauses and transitive clauses.

In addition to seeing the construction of nonverbal and verbal clauses. The word order pattern in imperative sentences is S-P/S-P-O. Under certain conditions, S can be eliminated but does not change the pattern. Declarative sentences have the S-P/S-P-O pattern. S is to the left of P and cannot precede P. If this occurs, then the pattern is unacceptable. Interrogative sentences have a word order pattern S-P/S-V. Chinese interrogative sentence markers can be located in the middle of a sentence and at the end of a sentence. These markers do not affect the basic pattern of word order, that P always precedes S. S is to the left of P or is preverbal. Through a syntactic typology approach, Mandarin is included in the ergative language type. Chinese treats S the same as P but differently from A. The patient argument from the transitive predicate is treated the same as the intransitive predicate argument (S) and differs from the A (agent) argument from the transitive predicate.

The suggestions put forward in this study include suggestions related to other linguistic aspects that can be explored by researchers who wish to raise Mandarin as an object of study. Aspects of morphosyntax in Mandarin are interesting for further research, for example the construction of complex clause markings. Mandarin also exhibits an interesting sound system to explore because it has several lexicons that are absorbed from foreign languages and then adapted through several phonological rules.

**References**


