

Verb Nominalization of Manggarai Language: The Case of Central Manggarai Dialect in West Flores Indonesia

Agustinus Semiun¹ & Kosmas Jeladu²

Abstract

This paper presents nominalization process but concentrating on nominalizing verbs of central Manggarai dialect of Manggarai language in West Flores island Indonesia. The aim is to explain how verbs of the dialect are nominalized. By applying closed interview, observation and documentary techniques of qualitative approach, this paper present very valuable findings. Firstly, the Central Manggarai Dialect, has its own way to nominalize verbs but not by changing lexical verbs into lexical nouns. Secondly as shown by the data, the Central Manggarai Dialect performs seven types of verb nominalization like those presented by Comrie and Thompson in Shopen (2007) that is action nominalization, agentive nominalization, instrumental nominalization, manner nominalization, locative nominalization, objective nominalization, and reason nominalization. As seen in the content pages of this paper, Central Manggarai Dialect uses third singular possessive enclitics **-n** and third plural possessive **-d** to denote action nominalization, the free word **ata** is used to denote agentive nominalization, a bound marker or prefix **-ter** and free word **palang** denoting place nominalization, the free words **le** or **ali**, or **wajole**, or **wajoali** denoting reason nominalization. Interestingly to denote objective nominalization the verb it- self, with no certain marker or free word, is used. It is importantly worth noting that the nominalized verbs do not result with the change of class of verbs but to the shift of meaning instead, that is verb meaning to noun meaning, and the verbs nominalized can function as subject and object in sentences. To close, this paper would like to recommend further research focusing on grammatical structure of CMD where clitics exactly called enclitics display interesting phenomenon dealing with cross-referencing and pronoun possessives.

Keywords: Verb Nominalization, Manggarai Language.

Introduction

Nominalization is a word transformation such as verbs or adjectives transformed into nominal class of words (Richards J. et al., 1985). Take for example English and Indonesian languages which are rich in nouns formed of verbs such as 'act' become *actor* in English or 'makan' (eat) becomes *makanan* (food) in Indonesian or adjectives such 'happy' in English becomes *happiness*, 'kind' becomes kindness. As shown by the examples morphological affixes are used to nominalize the words. Nominalization as such plays very important role in enriching lexical nouns. The meanings of the verbs nominalized are shifted to nominal meaning. Such examples in English and Indonesian may indicate also that all languages have nouns formed by nominalization process but they may have different ways. In the Asante-Twi dialect of Akan for example, the direct verbs have two ways of nominalization that is *stem/base nominalization* and *nominalization after reduplication* (Adomako, 2012).

¹ Lecturer of Graduate Program of English Language Education Study Program. Nusa Cendana University, Kupang, Indonesia. E-mail: agustinussemiun@gmail.com; Mobile phone: 081339432544;081254483343

² Lecturer of Graduate Program of Linguistics Study Program, Nusa Cendana University, Kupang, Indonesia.

In short, Adomako reports that the Asante-Twi dialect uses prefixes to verb stems, and the same prefixes are also applied after the reduplication. Another one is Seraku (2012:153-162) reporting that Japanese has “participant” and “situation” nominalization by using particle *no*, as in

[Nai-ta no]-o Tom-ga mi-ta.
 [cry-PAST NO]-ACC Tom-NOM see-PAST
 ‘Tom saw someone who cried.’ (Participant nominalization)
 ‘Tom saw the event of someone’s is having cried.’ (Situation nominalization)

Yap et al. (2011), the editors, have edited a number of research papers about nominalization of certain languages in Asia grouped into: Tibeto-Burman languages, Iranian languages, Korean and Japanese languages, and Austronesian languages. Under the Tibeto-Burman languages for example Yap et al. (2011) present: *Nominalization in Tibeto-Burman languages of the Himalayan area: A typological perspective* (by Carol Genetti); *Innovation in nominalization in Magar, a Tibeto-Burman language of Nepal* (by Karen Grunow-Härsta); *Aspects of the historical development of nominalizers in the Tamangic languages* (by Michael Noonan); and *Nominalization and nominalization-based constructions in Galo* (by Mark W. Post).

This research paper reports how Central Manggarai Dialect (CMD) nominalizes verbs. As indicated by the title of this article the target of this research is Manggarai language focusing on CMD in West Flores (Troebes, et al., 1985). To view in short, the language is the most prestigious from other three dialects: East Manggarai Dialect, West Manggarai Dialect and SH (/S/ is changed by /H/ sound) dialect. It is also found in written text of prayers and lyrics of religious songs of Catholic community. The language is in fact a lingua franca of the Manggarai community.

This research is not a preliminary one, but a further study of previous ones. Berybe (1982) for example, has described morphological process of nouns and verbs. Meanwhile the grammatical structure of the dialect has been investigated by Troebes, et al (1985). A number of studies besides the dialect have also been done. The basic grammar of Kempo sub-dialect of West Manggarai dialect has been investigated by Semiun (1993) documented as S2 thesis in La Trobe library in Melbourne Australia. Linguistic politeness focusing on terms of address used in Kempo sub-dialect has also been investigated by Semiun, et al (1995). The very current one is about the politeness marker ‘IO’ of Kempo sub-dialect reported by Semiun (2013). To the east of the CMD, that is East Manggarai dialect, particularly the grammatical structure of Rongga had also been investigated by Porat, et al (1994). Those are a number of studies successfully obtained for reference of this study. The current one is research paper by Arka and Jeladu (2007) about *Passive without passive morphology, evidence from Manggarai*. However, none of them is about verb nominalization that has interested the writers of this article. To close this section, in short, this study analyzes the process of verb nominalization based on the study report by Comrie and Thompson in Shopen (2007). The expected result is on whether the process and the types of verb nominalization of CMD typologically similar or different from other languages of the world on one side, and may contribute to the development of comparative linguistics mainly between those of Flores and Banda Sea area (Nababan and Llamzon, 1979), or those under the Austronesian family, as well as to the development of general linguistics as data of language universals on the other.

Objectives of the Study

Shortly, the current study is to answer research questions about the types and process of verb nominalization based on the verb nominalization processes by Comrie and Thompson in Shopen (2007), including denoting action, denoting actor, denoting instrument, denoting manner, denoting location, denoting object, and denoting reason.

Framework

The current research makes use the theory of generative grammar by Chomsky that emphasizes the understanding of basic natural characteristics or the nature of language that is the deep structure of competence and surface structure of performance. However, since nominalization process deals with morphological process mostly affixation, this study is also referred to structural linguistics that emphasizes descriptive and analytical mechanism of American structuralists who have analyzed words by looking at the realizations of lexemes containing smallest meaningful unit of meaning called morphemes (McCarthy, 2002; Katamba, 1993; Spencer, 1991).

Differently from structuralists view, generative linguistics of Chomsky in Fodor and Katz (1964) for instance, has two basic components, that is syntactic and interpretive components. The later covers phonological component and semantic component. Syntactic component in particular according to him has two interpretive substances, deep structure, and surface structure. In his book entitles *Studies on Semantics in Generative Grammar*, Chomsky (1975) deeply analyzed the relation of deep structure, surface structure, and semantic interpretation. He argued that grammatical relation of meaning component is very fundamental in semantic interpretation. In relation to nominalization, as displayed examples in English, Chomsky underlines that the characteristics of derived nominals can only be expressed with deep structure concept. In this relevance, Givon (1990) notes that lexical nominalization is generally signed by derivation form. Meanwhile, in relation to clause nominalization, he notes that not all languages in the world have morphological means to differentiate verb forms in verb clauses from nominalized clauses; only certain context or grammatical markers attached to syntactical components can differentiate verbs forms from nominalized clauses.

Based on the discussion above, in short it can be affirmed that whatever surface structure of speech element such as phrases and clauses definitely conveys or contains a certain deep structure. The form of speech element that expresses a certain meaning is different from language to language; even a language does not have a complete morphological means to express a meaning. In that way any language definitely has its own way to express the meaning. It is worth noting that not all languages have the same process; or certain languages do not have complete process, and even certain others have no such kind of process. This research is based on the findings about lexical nominalization by Comrie and Thompson in Shopen (2007:334). The findings are grouped into several types of nominalization including: state nominalization, agentive nominalization, instrumental nominalization, manner nominalization, locative nominalization, objective nominalization, and reason nominalization, to be in sequence presented next. Compare these with those of Chaer (1988) in Indonesian language.

State nominalization

This type of nominalization is to form noun by attaching derivational suffixes (Shopen, 2007: 335) to denote action. Consider the following examples in Table 1.

Table 1: Process of state nominalization

Verb	Nominalization	Nominalized verbs
Infinitive	Base + suffix	Nouns
create	create- <i>ion</i>	creation (the act of creating something)
move	move- <i>ment</i>	movement(the act of moving)
arrive	arrive- <i>al</i>	Arrival (the act of arriving)

The purpose of this nominalization is to create action noun from action verb and to form state noun from stative verb. This can also happen from verbal phrase into verbal noun phrase such as *drive a truck* into *truck driving*.

Agentive Nominalization

As it is named, this process is changing verbs into nouns by attaching derivational suffix to form nouns denoting actor or agent. The nouns of this process are called agentive nominalization (Shopen, 2007: 336). The process is shown by Table 2 below.

Table 2: Process of agentive nominalization

Verb	Nominalization	Nominalized verbs
Infinitive	Root+ suffix	Nouns
write	write- <i>er</i>	writer (one who writes)
sing	sing- <i>er</i>	singer (one who sing)
advise	advise- <i>or</i>	advisor (one who advise)
instruct	Instruct- <i>or</i>	Instructor (one who instruct)

These examples are different from other languages. In Indonesian for example, this type of process is formed by derivational prefix variations: *pe-* in 'pelari' (runner), *pem-* in 'pembaca' (reader), *pen-* in 'pendengar' (hearer), *peng-* in 'pengkianat' (Chaer, 1955:310).

Instrumental nominalization

As it is named this type is to denote instrument. Nouns are formed from action verbs but are meant instrument. This type is very productive in certain languages. Wappo language in California according to Shopen (2007: 338) is very productive to form nouns meaning for the purpose of instrument by attaching suffix *(e)ma* to roots such as in *yok'ema* meaning an instrument for the purpose of sitting, and *lat'ema* an instrument for the purpose of whipping. This process seems the same with certain prefixes or suffixes in Indonesian. Consider the examples shown by Chaer (1988) in Table 3 below.

Table 3: Process of instrumental nominalization

Verb Infinitive	Nominalization Root + affixes	Nominalized verbs Noun
Pikul	pikul- <i>an</i>	Pikulan(a tool to carry on shoulder)
Jebak	jebak- <i>an</i>	Jebakan(a tool trap something)
Hapus	<i>pe(ng)</i> -hapus	penghapus(a tool to erase/delete)
Saring	<i>pe(ny)</i> -aring	penyaring(a tool to filter)
Bangkit	<i>pe (m)</i> -bangkit	pembangkit(a tool to raise)

Manner nominalization

Special derivational affixes are attached to roots of verbs to form nouns to denote manner or way of doing something. Examples below are of Turkish reported by Lewis (1967) in Shopen (2007: 399), as displayed in Table 4.

Table 4: Process of manner nominalization

Verb Infinitive	Nominalization Root + affixes	Nominalized verbs Noun
yürü	yürü- <i>yüs</i>	yürüyüs (way of walking)
ye	Ye- <i>yis</i>	Yeyis (way of eating)

Locative nominalization

The nouns resulted from the nominalization process in this type is to denote location where an action is done. As reported in Shopen (2007:340) many Bantu languages such as Si-Luyana language perform this process as displayed in Table 5.

Table 5: Process of locative nominalization

Language	Verb Infinitive	Nominalization Root + affixes	Nominalized verbs Noun
Sundanese	diuk (sit)	<i>paŋ</i> -diuk- <i>an</i>	paŋdiukan (a place to sit/seat)
	sare (sleep)	<i>paŋ</i> -sarean- <i>an</i>	paŋsareanan (a place of sleeping/bed)
Si-Luyana	l'ota (dream)	li- lot - <i>elo</i>	lilotelo (place of dreaming)
	m'ona (see)	li- mon - <i>eno</i>	limoneno (place of seeing)
Indonesian	kubur (bury)	<i>pe</i> -kubur- <i>an</i>	pekuburan (location to bury)
	sembunyi(hide)	per-sembunyi- <i>an</i>	Persembunyian (a place to hide)

Objective nominalization

This is a type of nominalization to show result of an activity. Many Bantu languages such as Zulu, Si-Luyana, Sundanese and Indonesian, as reported in Shopen (2007:340-341), perform this process of nominalization. Consider the following examples in Table 6.

Table 6: Process of objective nominalization

Language	Verb Infinitive	Nominalization Root + affixes	Nominalized verbs Noun
Zulu	-cabanga (to think) -cula (to hymn)	<i>um -cabang -o</i> <i>i- cul -o</i>	umcabango (thought) Iculo (hymn/congregation)
Si-Luyana	-l' ota (to dream) -imba (to sing)	<i>lu-lot-o</i> <i>lw-imb-o</i>	luloto (a dream) lwimbo (song)
Sundanese	inum (to drink) omona (to say)	<i>inum-an</i> <i>omona-an</i>	inuman (drink/alcohol) omona (saying)
Indonesian	iris (to slice) tulis (to write)	<i>iris-an</i> <i>tulis-an</i>	irisan (slice) tulisan (writing)

Reason nominalization

The purpose of this nominalization is to form nouns from verbs denoting reason by attaching affixes to the verb root. Table 7 presents examples in Sundanese as reported by Robins (1959) in Shopen (2007:342).

Table 7: Process of reason nominalization

Language	Verb Infinitive	Nominalization Root + affixes	Nominalized verbs Noun
Sundanese	data (to come) daek (to will) indit (to leave)	<i>paḡ-data</i> <i>paḡ-daek</i> <i>Paḡ-indit</i>	<i>paḡdata</i> (reason for arrival) <i>paḡdaek</i> (reason for being willing) <i>paḡindit</i> (reason for leaving)

Research Method

This is a paper of research applying procedure usually applied in qualitative method mechanism which relies on describing steps of obtaining and analyzing facts or data explicitly as said for example by Seliger and Shohamy (1990). The data were obtained from informants of native speakers of CMD spreading over Central Manggarai Regency (Kabupaten Manggarai Tengah) in West Flores, Nusa Tenggara Timur province, Indonesia. This research uses also reflections of the researchers since the Manggarai language is also spoken by them. Interviewing informants purposively selected of adult educated native speakers of both CMD and Indonesian was the main step. The researchers used the same languages to interview the informants asking them to inform related data and to translate a number of Indonesian sentences containing nominalization into Central Manggarai language. As presented in findings and discussion section, the examples are of the translations. Documents including "Manggarai Text 1" by Verheijen (1977), and Catholic Church songs called "Dere Serani" (now the 14th printing 2015) were also used for the purpose of triangulation. Then the whole data were validated by discussing them with the researcher's university colleagues mainly those of native speakers of CMD. In short, the steps followed were data collection, data identification, data verification, and data analysis. To analyze, the data were categorized and then grouped into the seven types of the verb nominalization process: agentive nominalization, instrumental nominalization, manner nominalization, locative nominalization, objective nominalization, and reason nominalization. The focus is on describing the process how verbs are nominalized and on explaining the meaning of nouns resulted from nominalizing verbs.

Findings and Discussion

The data obtained show a number of morphological devices or markers attached mostly to verbs functioning as cross-referencing, that is, to subject of sentences, and to nouns indicating possessive functions. That is why the researchers have decided to start this section with the description of the markers called clitics (enclitics), and to consider findings of Troeboes, et al (1985) as well as Semiun's findings (1993) in terms of the clitics in Kempo speech, a thesis report documented in Library of La Trobe University. The clitics intended are presented in Table 8 and 9, while Table 10 displays the differences of the two types, cross-referencing (Ref.) and possessive (Poss.). It is worth noting that Tables 8 and 9 include also the abbreviation column since they are very important in examples to clarify the descriptions and explanations of the nominalization process.

Table 8: Clitics for cross-referencing to subject

Personal pronouns	Clitics	Examples	Abbreviation
AKU 'I'	-k	Aku hang- k or Hang- k (I eat)	1Sg.Ref. (1 st singular referencing)
HAU 'You'	-h	Hau hang- h or Hang- h (You eat)	2Sg.Ref. (2 nd singular referencing)
HIA 'He/She'	-i	Hia hang- i or Hang- i (He/She eats)	3Sg.Ref. (3 rd singular referencing)
AMI 'We' (exclusive)	-km	Ami hang- km or Hang- km (We eat)	1Pl.Ref. (1 st plural referencing)
ITE 'We' (inclusive)	-t(d)	Ite hang- t/d or Hang- t (We eat)	1Pl.Ref. (1 st plural referencing)
MEU 'You'	-m	Meu hang- m or Hang- m (You eat)	2Pl.Ref. (2 nd plural referencing)
ISE 'They'	-s	Ise hang- s or Hang- s (They eat)	3Pl.Ref. (3 rd plural referencing)

Table 9: Clitics showing possessives

Possessive pronouns	Clitics	Examples	Abbreviation
<i>Daku</i> from 'de aku' (My/mine)	-k	Mbaru daku or mbaru- k (My house)	1Sg.Poss. (1 st singular possessive)
<i>Dhau</i> from 'de hau' (Your/yours)	-m	Mbaru dhau or mbaru- m (Your house)	2Sg.Poss. (2 nd singular possessive)
<i>Diha</i> from 'de hia' (His/Her/Hers)	-n	Mabru dhia or mbaru- n (His/Her house)	3Sg.Poss. (3 rd singular possessive)
<i>Dami</i> from 'de ami' (Our/ours)	-km	Mbaru dami or mbaru- km (Our house)	1Pl.Poss. (1 st plural possessive)
<i>Dite</i> from 'de ite' (Our/ours)	-t/d	Mbaru dite or mbaru- t/d (Our house)	1Pl.Poss. (1 st plural possessive)
<i>Dmeu</i> from 'de meu' (Your/yours)	-s	Mbaru dmeu or mbaru- s (Your house)	2Pl.Poss. (2 nd plural possessive)
<i>Dise</i> from 'de ise' (Their/theirs)	-d	Mbaru dise or mbaru- d (Their house)	3Pl.Poss. (3 rd plural possessive)

Table 10: The difference between referencing and possessive clitics

Personal pronouns	Referencing Clitics	Possessive clitics
2 nd person singular "hau" (you)	-h	-m
3 rd person singular "hia" (He/She)	-i	-n
2 nd person plural "meu" (You)	-m	-s
3 rd person plural "ise" (They)	-s	-d

It seems that Table 8 shows phonological assimilation of how the referencing clitics (morphemes) are produced. Thus, clitic **-k** is the assimilation of phoneme /k/ in AKU, **-h** of phoneme /h/ in *hau*, **-i** of phoneme /i/ in *hia*. Interestingly clitic **-km** (two different sounds) seems to be the combination of phoneme /k/ in *aku* (first person singular) and phoneme /m/ in *ami* (first person plural). Meanwhile clitic **-t** (and its variation **d**) is the phonological assimilation of phoneme /t/ in *ite*, **-m** of phoneme /m/ in *meu*, and **-s** of phoneme /s/ in *ise*. Meanwhile, as shown by Table 9, not all clitics denoting possessives are produced by assimilation process. The phonological assimilation intended is a kind of contractions of respectively: *daku* from *de aku* 'of I' (my/mine), *dhau* from *de hau* 'of you' (your/yours), *dhia* (but commonly pronounced *diha*) 'of he/she' (his/her/hers), *dami* from *de ami* 'of we' (exclusive) (our/ours), *dite* from *de ite* 'of we' (inclusive) (our/ours), *dmeu* from *de meu* 'of you' (your/yours), and *dise* from *de ise* 'of they' (their/theirs). Interestingly, the possessive clitics **-m**, **-n**, **-s** seem to be the pure clitics or not because of phonological assimilation process.

Viewing from the process of how the cross-referencing clitics are produced, the clitics of the Manggarai language are categorized as special clitics or not special clitics. Besides some exception, the repetition of personal pronoun contracted, *aku* and *-k* as in *aku retang-k* can be interpreted *aku retang aku* (I cry I) 'I cry'. Prosodically, the presence of the clitics does not result with stress change of the host, and such clitics will never stand alone in whatever context of sentences (Katamba. F. 1993: 245-246). Conversely, the simple clitics according to Katamba basically is contracted forms and in certain contexts, they can stand alone as free words. Another interesting phenomenon is that the possessive clitics also seem to show continuity instead of using the word *reme* (in the process or still). For clear, look at the discourse below where clitics **-n** (not **-i**) and **-d** (not **-s**) are used.

- (1) Pande apa-n (hi) Jon?
make what-3Sg.Poss (3Sg.) John
'What does(is) John do (ing)?'

Reme hang-n Or Hang-n *Not: Reme hang-I or Hang-I
still eat-3Sg.Poss. eat.3 Sg. Poss.
'He is still eating (eats)' 'Eating'

- (2) Pande apa-d?
make what-3Pl.Poss.
'What are they doing?'

Reme hang-d OR Hang-d
still eat-3Pl.Poss. eat-3 Pl. Poss.
'He is still eating' 'Eating'

The use of cross-referencing **-I** to replace **-n** in (1), such as in *Reme hang-i* or *Hang-i* is not acceptable, and neither is **-s** to replace **-d** in sentence (2) such as in *Reme hang-S* or *Hang-S* is not acceptable. Another interesting example is that both types of clitics: referencing and possessives can also function as object in sentences as shown by the following discourses.

- (1) Aku retang-k
I cry-1Sg.Poss.
'I cry'

Ongga-k le ema
hit-1Sg.Poss (P) by father
'I am hit by father(my father hit me)'

It is interesting that the **-k** in (1) refers to subject *Aku*, while **-k** in sentence next to (1) refers to implied (zero) subject but semantically it is a patient, and so are **-s** and **-km** in discourse (2) and (3).

- (2) Nia-s anak-koe situ?
where-3Pl.Ref. child-small those
'Where are those children?'

Benta-s le ema-d ngger-one mbaru-d
call-3Pl.(P) by father-3Pl.Poss. into house-3Pl.Poss.
'They are called by their father into their house'

- (3) Apa-tara retang-m?
why cry-2Pl.Poss.
'Why do (are) you cry (ing)?'

Ongga-km le ema
hit-1st Plu.Poss. (P) by father
'We are hit by father' (Our father hit us)

The clitics and the discourses showing the use of the clitics presented above are expected to be contributive to explain the process of verb nominalization in the following findings of the research. The findings of verb nominalization process ox CMD are explained and displayed according to the seven categorizations of lexical nominalization presented in Shopen (2007): state nominalization, agentive nominalization, instrumental nominalization, manner nominalization, locative nominalization, objective nominalization, and reason nominalization, to be respectively presented.

Nominalization denoting action (action nominalization)

This deals with verbs nominalized denoting activities to cause to produce something. Indonesian for instance has confixes like **pe-** and **-an** in *pe-mbuat-an kursi*. The word *pembuatan* is an activity process of making or doing a chair. /m/ is a kind of phonological assimilation in *pe-pukul-an* for *pe-muku-lan*, that is an activity of strongly hand-moving to produce pain on somebody's body. In English this is shown by the so called present participle by adding ending *-ing* to verbs as in *cooking* in sentences like "Cooking is my hobby". Based on the data, CMD does not apply special markers as in Indonesian or English. The data show that the free words *diong* and *de* and possessive clitics **-N** (3rd person singular) and **-D** (3rd person plural) are applied to nominalize verbs. Table 11 below might show the pattern of nominalizing verbs.

Table 11: Process of verb nominalization denoting action

Infinitive Verb	Process (of nominalization)	Result (nominalization)
pande (to make)	pande + diong (of who ?)	pande diong (whose making)
	pande + de (of)	pande de (making of)
	pande + k (1Sg.Poss.)	pandek (my making)
	pande + m (2Sg.Poss.)	pandem (your making)
	pande + n (3Sg.Poss.)	panden (his/her making)
	pande + km (1Pl.Poss.)	pandekm (our making)
	Pande + s (2Pl.Poss.)	pandes (your making)
	Pande + D (3Pl.Poss.)	panded (their making)

Consider and look at how the meaning of verb *dedek* (create) is nominalized in the following discourse.

- (1) *Cei ata pande-n mabru ho'o?* (verb as predicate)
 who people make-3Sg.Poss.house this
 'Who makes(builds) this house?'
- (2) *Pande le ema* (verb as predicate)
 make by father
 'It is made (built) by father' (Father makes it)

The verb *pande* in the sentences above are verbs functioning as predicate. Meanwhile the meaning of verb *dedek* in the following discourse has been nominalized to show action by using the words *diong* (question word whose) and *de* (possessive word).

- (3) *Pande diong mbaru ho'o?* (nominalized verb showing action)
 Create Poss. (whose) house this
 'Whose making is this house?' (Who makes this house)
- (4) *Pande de ema* (nominalized verb as subject)
 Make of father
 'The making of father' (Father makes it)

The verb *pande* in the following declarative sentences are attached by clitic **-n** (3rd singular person) and **-d** (3rd plural person) to nominalize the meaning of verb *pande* for a noun denoting an activity.

- (5) *Pande-n mbaru ho'o le ema emong-n* (nominalized verb as subject)
 make-3Sg.Poss. house this by father easy-3Sg.Poss
 'The making of this house by father is easy'

- (6) *pande-n* mbaru ho'o toe emong-n (nominalized verb as subject)
 make-3Sg.Poss. house this not easy-3Sg.Poss.
 'The making of this house is not easy'.
- (7) *Pande-d* mbaru soo beheng keta (nominalized verb as subject)
 make-3Pl.Poss. house these long too
 'The making of these houses is too long'.

To summarize, for nouns of state nominalization process, the free word *diong* and *de* as shown by example (3) and (4), and the possessive clitics **-n** (the third singular pronoun possessive) and **-d** (the third plural pronoun possessive) in (5), (6), and (7) are used to nominalize the meanings of verbs. It is "to denote activity". In this case the word *pande-n* means the action of making. The important thing to be worth noting is that lexically the word *pande-n* is not a free lexicon. However, semantically the word *pande-n* shows an activity of making. The presence of possessive clitic **-n** in *pande-n* has shifted the verb meaning into the noun meaning. Sentence (7) shows the nominalization of verb *pande* (make) by clitic **-d** (the third plural pronoun possessive) attached to the verb root *pande*. The clitics **-d** and **-n** in the examples are the so called *portmanteau morph* containing more than one meaning or grammatical function that is showing plural, possessive, object, and nominalized verb. The following two examples, (8) and (9) are to clarify this explanation.

- (8) *Welikue* ende one-wie (verb as predicate)
 buy cake mother last night
 'Mother bought some cakes last night'
- (9) *Weli-d* kue so'o toe emong-n (nominalized verb as subject)
 buy-3Pl. (P) cake these by mother
 'The buying of these cakes is not easy'.

The clitic **-d** in (9) functions as nominalizer and it refers to object (patient) *kue* (cakes). The presence of the clitic changes the meaning into 'denoting activity' of *weli* 'buy'. Based on the examples above, it can be concluded that to nominalize verb denoting state nominalization is by using free word *diong* (whose) and *de* (of) and possessive clitics (-n and -d), not by using referencing clitics.

Nominalization denoting actor or agent (agentive nominalization)

This type of nominalization is very clearly seen in English. English has a number of derivational markers or affixation to change class of verb into noun denoting actor such as *-or* to change *create* into *creator* and *-er* to change *read* into *reader*. While Indonesian uses prefix *pe-* to change the class of word into noun, such as prefix *pe-* to change verb *curi* (steal) into *pencuri* 'thief'. Differently, based on the data obtained, CMD uses the free indefinite word *ata* 'people' to denote actor of an activity but not to change class of word. It initializes verbs. In other words, the word *ata* preceding the verbs only shifts the verb meaning into noun meaning. Consider Table 12 and the examples below.

Table 12: Process of verb nominalization denoting actor

	Infinitive Verb	Process (of nominalization)	Result (nominalization)
	Dere (to sing)	ata + dere (people sing)	ata dere (singer)
	Tako (to steal)	ata + tako (people steal)	ata tako (thief)
	Tombo (to speak)	ata + tombo (people speak)	ata tombo (speaker)
	Adong (to lie)	ata + adong (people lie)	Ata adong (liar)
(1)	<i>Dere-i</i> Jon		(verb as predicate)
	sing-3Sg.Ref. Jon		
	'John sings'		
	OR		
	<i>Dere-i</i> hia		(verb as predicate)
	sing-3Sg.Ref 3Sg.		
	'John sings'		

OR

Hia *dere-i* (verb as predicate)
 3T sing-3Sg.Ref
 'He sings'

(2) *Ata dere* lau-mai Jakarta (nominalized verb in a phrase form)
 people sing from Jakarta
 'The singer(s) from Jakarta'

(3) Pisa-s *ata dere* situ (nominalized verb as subject)
 How many-3Pl.Ref. people sing those
 'How many are those singers?'

The word *dere* in (1) is of verb class, meaning 'to sing'. Meanwhile the word *dere* preceded by the free word *ata* 'people' in *ata dere* means 'people who sing' or 'singer', the actor. The word *ata* as free lexical word is a noun, meaning 'people' as in (4). Consider also the question asking an actor in (5).

(4) *Ata* do sale pasar (noun as free word)
 people many in market
 'There are many people in the market'

(5) *Cei ata* mai no'o meseng (Who question)
 who people come here yesterday
 'Who came here yesterday?'

As said above, *ata dere* is not a new lexical noun. However, semantically, the addition of free word *ata* shifts the meaning of the verb *dere* to actor or one who does something. Consider the verb *tako* 'steal' in (6) and its noun *ata tako* 'thief' in (7).

(6) Anak reba hitu *tako* ela dami one wie (verb as predicate)
 child gentle that steal pig our last night
 'The boy stole our pig last night'

(7) Ami deko *ata - tako-km* one-wie (nominalized verb as object)
 we catch people-steal-1Pl. Poss. last night
 'We caught a thief last night'.

Nominalization denoting instrument (instrumental nominalization)

The purpose of this nominalization is to change verb functions into noun functions denoting instrument to do something, called instrumental nominalization. This is common in Indonesian by using prefix *pe-* to verb root as in *pe-tapis* for noun *penapis* "filter", *pe-hapus* for noun *penghapus* "eraser" and *pe-kering* for noun *pengerang* "drier". There is phonological assimilation but not only in terms of sounding purpose but also in word literacy. CMD basically does not perform such type of nominalization like those in Indonesian. However, it is often that CMD uses and places the free word *apa* (like an indefinite article and borrowed from Indonesian) right in the front of the verb such as in *apa deko* "a means to catch or trap", in *apa seho* "a means to winnowing", and in *apa tadu* "a means to close". It is worth noting that the word *apa* (lexically a question word 'what') is obligatory but used only if the speaker does not know or forget the lexical word to say to denote an instrument; or there is no certain word for such kind of nouns. The meaning of the nominalized verb is to denote instrument or tool to do something. Consider Table 13 and the examples below.

Table 13: Process of verb nominalization denoting instrument

Infinitive Verb	Process (of nominalization)	Result (nominalization)
Deko (to catch)	Apa + deko (what catch)	Apa deko (a thing to catch/trap)
Seho (to winnowing)	Apa+ seho (what winnowing)	Apa seho (winnowing basket)
Teong (to hang)	Apa + teong (what hang)	Apa teong (hanger)

- (1) Ami ngo *deko* lawo to'ong (verb as predicate)
we go catch mouse in few minutes
'We go to catch mouse in few minutes'
- (2) Nia-i *apa deko* lawo hitu? (nominalized verb as subject)
where-3Sg.Ref. what tangkap mouse that
'Where is the mouse trap?'
- (3) *Seho* dea-i ende musi dapur (verb as predicate)
winnowin rice-3Sg.Ref. mother behind kitchen
'Mother is winnowin the rice in the kitchen'.
- (4) Nia-i *apa seho* dea hitu? (nominalized verb as subject)
where-3Sg.Ref. what winnowin rice that
'Where is the thing to winnowin the rice?'
- (5) Bike-i *apa tadu* lewing hitu (nominalized verb as subject)
break-3Sg.Ref. what cover cooking pot that
'The cover of the cooking-pot is broken'.

So the use of *apa* causes the shift of verb meaning of *deko* "catch", *seho* "winnowin", and *tadu* "close" into the noun meaning that is instrumental meaning, respectively a tool to catch, a tool to winnowin, and a tool to cover. Again the use of *ata* is obligatory but only if the lexical word denoting noun is forgot by the speaker or such lexical words are not found in CMD.

Nominalization denoting manner (manner nominalization)

To explain this type of nominalization needs to present first how gerund in English is formed. The use of *-ing* attached to verbs in English is to shift the meaning of the verb into noun meaning denoting manner. Take for example the use of *-ing* in *I like his smiling*, meaning there is a certain way how someone smiles, or *His smiling interests many people*. This is called 'gerundivum' in Chomsky (1976). Based on the data, CMD has no certain morphological markers like that in English to denote manner or the way how something is done. The free word *de* denoting possessive is obligatory and used after the verbs to shift the verb meanings into noun meanings. Besides the possessive marker *de* as in example (2), the possessive clitics can also be used to nominalize the meaning of the verb, as in example (3). In short, the free word *de* and possessive clitics can be used to nominalize the meaning of the verbs not to change the word class. Consider Table 14 and the examples.

Table 14: Process of verb nominalization denoting manner

Infinitive Verb	Process (of nominalization)	Result (nominalization)
Hang (to eat)	hang + de (eat of)	Hang de (the way of eating)
	hang + n (his eating)	Hang n (the way of his eating)
Toko (to sleep)	toko + de (eat of)	Toko de (the way of sleeping)
	toko + n (his sleeping)	Toko n (the way of sleeping)

- (1) *Hang-i* Jon musi dapur (verb as predicate)
eat-3Sg.Ref. John behind kitchen
'John eats (is eating) in the kitchen'.
- (2) *Hang de* Jon sopan keta. (nominalized verb as subject showing manner)
eat of John polite very
'John's eating is so polite' (The eating of John is so polite)
- OR
- Sopan keta *hang de* Jon (nominalized verb as subject showing manner)
Polite very eat of John
'John's eating is so polite' (The eating of John is so polite)
- (3) Sopan keta *hang-n* Jon (nominalized verb as subject showing manner)

polite very eat-3Sg. Poss. John
 'John's eating is so polite'.

The examples (2) and (3) are nominalized verbs to denote the way or the manner of how to do something such the way to eat those sentences.

Nominalization denoting location (locative nominalization)

Givon (1970b) in Shopen (2007:340) says that there are certain devices in certain languages used to form nouns from verbs, and this is common in Bantu languages. Givon gives examples from Si-Luyana language as the following. *L`ota* "dream" is changed to *li-lot -elo* "place of dreaming"; *m`ona* "see" is changed to *li-mon-eno* "place of seeing. Differently from Si-Luyana language, CMD uses the free word *palang* "place" and bound morphological marker *ter-* to nominalize verbs but not in terms of changing the class of words. Consider Table 15 and the examples.

Table 15: Process of verb nominalization denoting location

Infinitive Verb	Process (of nominalization)	Result (nominalization)
Boak (to burry)	palang + boak (place burry) ter + boak (marker burry)	Palang boak (space/place to burry) Ter -boak (space/place to burry)
Toko (to sleep)	palang + toko (place sleep) ter + toko (marker sleep)	Palang toko (space/place to sleep) Ter -toko (space/place to sleep)

- (1) Ise *boak* jarang mata-s (verb as predicate)
 theyburry horse dead-3Sg.Plu.Ref.
 'The burry a dead horse'.
- (2) Ho'o *palang boak* jarang mata hitu (nominalized verb as place to burry)
 This place burry horse dead that
 'This is the burial place of the dead horse'.
- (3) *Tokono'o* ema (verb as predicate)
 sleep here father.
 'Father sleeps here'.
- (4) Neka labar one *ter-toko* de ema! (nominalized verb as place to sleep)
 do not play on place-sleep of father
 'Do not play on the father's sleeping place!'
- (5) No'o *palang labar* de anak situ (nominalized verb as place to play)
 here place play of children those
 'Here is the place for playing of the children'.
- (6) Ho'o *palang lako* de kaba situ (nominalized verb as place to walk)
 here place walk of buffalo those
 'Here the place for walking of the buffaloes'.

The word *boak* in (1) and *toko* in (3) are verbs as predicate in those sentences. Meanwhile, each of words *boak* in *palang boak* in (2), *toko* in *ter-toko* in (4), *labar* in *palang labar* in (5), and *lako* in *palang lako* (or *ter-lako*) in (6) have been nominalized by using the free word *palang* and bound morpheme *ter-* is denoting respectively a place to burry, a place to sleep, a place to play, a place (way) to pass, as shown by the examples above.

Nominalization denoting objective (objective nominalization)

This process deals with nominalizing verbs using morphological markers or affixes into nouns designating the result or object of an action as reported in Shopen (2007:340). Many Bantu languages such as Zulu and Si-Luyana as reported in Shopen use certain devices to change verbs into nouns. Meanwhile, Indonesia uses suffix to perform this nominalizing process, such as suffix *-an* in *curi-a* "the result of stealing", *potong-AN* "the result of cutting".

Based on the data, CMD has no special devices such as affixes to denote such case. In other words, verb and its noun have the same physical forms. Consider Table 16 and have a look at the examples.

Table 16: Process of verb nominalization denoting objective

	Infinitive Verb		Process (of nominalization)	Result (nominalization)
	Tulis (to write, loan word)		tulis (write)	Tulis (writing)
	Inung (to drink)		inung (drink)	Inung (drinking)
	Tako (to steal)		tako (steal)	Inung (theft)
	Hang (to eat)		hang (eat)	Hang (remnant)
(1)	<i>Tulis</i> one meja-i Jon			(verb as predicate)
	writein table-3Sg.Ref. John			
	'John writes on the table'.			
(2)	<i>Tulis</i> diong ho'o?			(nominalized verb)
	writewhose this			
	'Whose writing is this?'			
(3)	Baca laku <i>tulis-n</i> hitu			(nominalized verb)
	readby me write-3Sg.Poss. that			
	'I read his writing'.			
(4)	Mantar hitu <i>tako-i</i> one-wie			(verb as predicate)
	child that steal-3Sg.Ref. last night			
	'The child stole last night'.			
(5)	Do keta-s <i>tako-n</i>			(nominalized verb)
	many so-3Sg.Ref. steal-3Sg.Poss.			
	'His thefts are so many'			
(6)	Ami <i>inung</i> kopi-km			(verb as predicate)
	We drink coffee-1Sg.Plu.Ref.			
	'We drink coffee'.			
(7)	<i>Inung</i> diong so'o?			(nominalized verb)
	drink whose these			
	'Whose drinks are these?'			
(7)	Hang diong so'o?			(nominalized verb)
	eat whose these			
	'Whose remnant is this?'			

The word *tulis* in (1) and (2), *tako-I* in (4), and *inung* in (6) are verbs functioning as predicates, while *tulis-n* in (3), *tako-n* in (5), *inung* in (7) and *hang* in (8) are nominalized verbs respectively mean: "result of writing", "result of stealing", "remainder of drinking", and remnant of eating. It is clearly seen then that the meanings of verbs due to a certain context, are shifted to nominal meanings denoting result of doing something.

Nominalization denoting reason (reason nominalization)

As said by Robin (1959: 351) in Shopen (2007:342) Sundanese is an example of languages that demonstrates nominalizing verbs denoting reason, as in *paṅdataj* "reason for arrival" or in *paṅdaek* "reason for being willing", and *paṅjindit* "reason for leaving". Based on the data, the CMD uses free word *le* /lə/, or *ali*, or compounds *wajo-le*, or *wajo-ali*. Consider Table 17 and the examples.

Table 17: Process of verb nominalization denoting reason

	Infinitive Verb	Process (of nominalization)	Result (nominalization)
	Pa'u (to fall)	le + pa'u (because fall)	Le pa'u (because of falling)
	Inung (to drink)	le + inung (because drink)	Le inung (because of drinking)
	Tako (to steal)	le + tako (because steal)	Le tako (because of stealing)
(1)	<i>Retang-i</i> reak hitu. cry-3Sg.Ref. child that. 'The child cries'.	Apa-tara <i>retang-n?</i> Why cry-3Sg.Poss. 'Why does the child cry?'	(verb as predicate)
(2)	Le pa'u (<i>ali/wajole/wajoali</i> pa'u) reason fall 'Reason for (because of) falling'.		(nominalized verb)
(3)	Retang le pa'u haju cry reason fall tree 'Cry bcause of falling of a tree'.		(nominalized verb)
(4)	<i>Langu-i</i> (hi) ema mabuk-3Sg.Ref. he father 'Father is drunken'.		(verb as predicate)
(5)	Langu le inung tuak Drunken reason drink liquor 'Being drunken because of drinking liquor'.		(nominalized verb)
(6)	Bora le tako ata hitu rich reason curi people that 'The man is rich because of stealing'.		(nominalized verb)

Pa'u in *le pa'u* in (2) and (3), *inung* in *le inung* in (5) and *tako* in *le tako* in (6) are free verbs and their meanings are shifted to nominal meanings because of placing the free words *le* or *ali* or *wajole* or *wajoali*, respectively because of falling, because of drinking, and because stealing. Looking at the examples above, to nominalize in CMD is by using free words preceding verbs but not as prefixes as those in Sundanese.

To close discussion of how verbs are nominalized in CMD, this research paper indirectly intends to present similarities and differences of languages under Bantu languages of Austronesian family, focusing on in how verbs are nominalized following the seven types of lexical nominalization according to Comrie and Thompson in Shopen (2007). Thus, it is worth noting that all languages have their own way to nominalize verbs, and the nominalization results with the shift of verb meaning to noun meaning. Based on the findings presented above, CMD performs the seven types of nominalization, however the nominalization not in terms of changing lexical words or class of words or Chomsky's term 'surface structure' but in terms of semantic level or 'deep structure' instead.

Conclusion

Based on the data description, there are some points as conclusions that are important for particularly linguists and further research on other aspects of CMD.

- (1) CMD has clitics called enclitics differentiated into referencing (cross-referencing) clitics and possessive clitics that according to the researchers need to be further investigated.
- (2) CMD, based on the data, performs seven types of verb nominalization: action nominalization, agentive nominalization, instrumental nominalization, manner nominalization, locative nominalization, objective nominalization, and reason nominalization.
- (3) Like other languages particularly of Bantu languages, CMD has its own way to nominalize verbs:
 - (a) The third singular possessive enclitics **-n** and third plural possessive **-d** are used to denote action nominalization.

- (b) The free word **ata** is used to denote agentive nominalization,
 - (c) The free word **apa** is used to denote instrumental nominalization.
 - (d) The bound marker or prefix **-ter** and free word **palang** are used to denote place nominalization.
 - (e) The free word **de**, meaning possessive, is used to denote manner nominalization.
 - (f) The free words **le** or **ali**, or **wajole**, or **wajoali** are used to denote reason nominalization.
 - (g) Interestingly to denote objective nominalization the verb it- self, with no certain marker or free word, is used.
 - (h) It is importantly worth noting that the nominalized verbs do not result with the change of class of verbs but to the shift of meaning instead, that is verb meaning to noun meaning.
 - (i) The verbs nominalized can function as subject and object in sentences.
- (4) The verb nominalization in CMD does not result with the change of class of verbs but to the shift of meaning instead, that is verb meaning to noun meaning. Thus, the shift of meaning does not result with lexical change.

To close, this paper would like to recommend further research focusing on grammatical structure of CMD where clitics exactly called enclitics display interesting phenomenon dealing with cross-referencing and pronoun possessives.

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