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

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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 itself, 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, or ‘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).

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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 に as in:

\[
[Nai-ta no]-o \quad Tom-ga mi-ta.
\]
\[
[ cry-PAST NO ]-ACC \quad Tom-NOM see-PAST
\]
'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-Hårsta); 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 Troeboes, 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 Semyun (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 Semyun, et al (1995). The very current one is about the politeness marker ‘IO’ of Kempo sub-dialect reported by Semyun (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 entitled *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>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>Nominalization</th>
<th>Nominalized verbs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Infinitive</td>
<td>Base + suffix</td>
<td>Nouns</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>create</td>
<td>create-ion</td>
<td>creation (the act of creating something)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>move</td>
<td>move-ment</td>
<td>movement (the act of moving)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>arrive</td>
<td>arrive-al</td>
<td>Arrival (the act of arriving)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>Nominalization</th>
<th>Nominalized verbs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Infinitive</td>
<td>Root+ suffix</td>
<td>Nouns</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>write</td>
<td>write-er</td>
<td>writer (one who writes)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sing</td>
<td>sing-er</td>
<td>singer (one who sing)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>advise</td>
<td>advise-er</td>
<td>advisor (one who advise)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>instruct</td>
<td>instruct-er</td>
<td>Instructor (one who instruct)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>Nominalization</th>
<th>Nominalized verbs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Infinitive</td>
<td>Root + affixes</td>
<td>Noun</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pikul</td>
<td>pikul-an</td>
<td>Pikulan(a tool to carry on shoulder)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jebak</td>
<td>jebak-an</td>
<td>Jebakan(a tool trap something)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hapus</td>
<td>pa(h)apus</td>
<td>penghapus(a tool to erase/ delete)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Saring</td>
<td>pa(ng)-aring</td>
<td>penyaring(a tool to filter)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bangkit</td>
<td>pe(m)-bangkit</td>
<td>pembangkit(a tool to raise)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>Nominalization</th>
<th>Nominalized verbs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Infinitive</td>
<td>Root + affixes</td>
<td>Noun</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>yürü</td>
<td>yürü- yüs</td>
<td>yürüyüs (way of walking)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ye</td>
<td>Ye-yis</td>
<td>Yeys (way of eating)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Language</th>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>Nominalization</th>
<th>Nominalized verbs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Infinitive</td>
<td>Root + affixes</td>
<td>Noun</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sundanese</td>
<td>diuk (sit)</td>
<td>pa-diuk-an</td>
<td>pa-diukan (a place to sit/ seat)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>sare (sleep)</td>
<td>pa-sare-an-an</td>
<td>päsarean (a place of sleeping/ bed)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Si-Luyana</td>
<td>l’ota (dream)</td>
<td>li- lot -do</td>
<td>lilotelo (place of dreaming)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>m’ona (see)</td>
<td>li- mon -ño</td>
<td>limoneno (place of seeing)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indonesian</td>
<td>kubur (bury)</td>
<td>pe-kubur-an</td>
<td>pekuburan (location to bury)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>sembunyi(hide)</td>
<td>per-sembunyi-an</td>
<td>Persembunyan (a place to hide)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Language</th>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>Nominalization</th>
<th>Nominalized verbs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Zulu</td>
<td>-cabanga (to think)</td>
<td>um -cabang -c</td>
<td>umcabango (thought)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-cula (to hymn)</td>
<td>i - cul -c</td>
<td>lculo (hymn/congregation)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Si-Luyana</td>
<td>-l’ ota (to dream)</td>
<td>l - cul -c</td>
<td>lulo (a dream)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sundanese</td>
<td>inum (to drink)</td>
<td>inum-ar</td>
<td>inuman (drink/alcohol)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>omoŋ (to say)</td>
<td>omoŋ-an</td>
<td>omoŋan (saying)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indonesian</td>
<td>iris (to slice)</td>
<td>iris-ar</td>
<td>irisan (slice)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>tulis (to write)</td>
<td>tulis-an</td>
<td>tulisan (writing)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Language</th>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>Nominalization</th>
<th>Nominalized verbs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sundanese</td>
<td>dataŋ (to come)</td>
<td>pŋ-dataŋ</td>
<td>pŋdataŋ (reason for arrival)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>daek (to will)</td>
<td>pŋ-daek</td>
<td>pŋdaek (reason for being willing)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>indit (to leave)</td>
<td>pŋ-indit</td>
<td>pŋindit (reason for leaving)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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 I” 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 Semium’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

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

Table 9: Clitics showing possessives

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Possessive pronouns</th>
<th>Clitics</th>
<th>Examples</th>
<th>Abbreviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>De aku (My/ mine)</td>
<td>-k</td>
<td>Mbaru daku or mbaru-k (My house)</td>
<td>1Sg.Poss. (1st singular possessive)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dhau (Your/ yours)</td>
<td>-m</td>
<td>Mbaru dhau or mbaru-m (Your house)</td>
<td>2Sg.Poss. (2nd singular possessive)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dhi (His/ Her/ Hers)</td>
<td>-n</td>
<td>Mbaru dhia or mbaru-n (His/ Her house)</td>
<td>3Sg.Poss. (3rd singular possessive)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>De ami (Our/ ours)</td>
<td>-km</td>
<td>Mbaru dami or mbaru-km (Our house)</td>
<td>1Pl.Poss. (1st plural possessive)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dite (Your/ yours)</td>
<td>-t/d</td>
<td>Mbaru dite or mbaru-t d (Your house)</td>
<td>1Pl.Poss. (1st plural possessive)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dmeu (You/ yours)</td>
<td>-s</td>
<td>Mbaru dmeu or mbaru-s (Your house)</td>
<td>2Pl.Poss. (2nd plural possessive)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dise (Their/ theirs)</td>
<td>-d</td>
<td>Mbaru disse or mbaru-d (Their house)</td>
<td>3Pl.Poss. (3rd plural possessive)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 10: The difference between referencing and possessive clitics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Personal pronouns</th>
<th>Referencing Clitics</th>
<th>Possessive clitics</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2nd person singular “hau” (you)</td>
<td>-h</td>
<td>-m</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3rd person singular “hia” (He/ She)</td>
<td>-i</td>
<td>-n</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd person plural “meu” (You)</td>
<td>-m</td>
<td>-s</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3rd person plural “ise” (They)</td>
<td>-s</td>
<td>-d</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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: diku from de aku of I (my/ mine), dhau from de hau of you (your/ yours), dhi (but commonly pronounced dha) of he/she (his/ her/ hers), dami from de ami of we (exclusive) (our/ ours), dite from de ite of we (inclusive) (our/ ours), dhau from de hau of you (your/ yours), and dispute from de ishe 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* can be interpreted as *aku retang* (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-3Sg.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*
   ‘He is still eating’ ‘Eating’

   The use of cross-referencing – *I* to replace – *n* in (1), such as in *reme* *mergi* or *Hangi* is not acceptable, and neither *s* to replace – *d* in sentence (2) such as in *reme* *merg*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-1Pl.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 on 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 normalized denoting activities to cause to produce something. Indonesian for instance has suffixes like *pe-* and *-an* in *pembaruan kursi*. The word *pembaruan* is an activity process of making or doing a chair. /m/ is a kind of phonological assimilation in *pe-pukul-an* for *pe muku-an* 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>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Infinitive Verb</th>
<th>Process (of nominalization)</th>
<th>Result (nominalization)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>pande (to make)</td>
<td>pande + diong (of who?)</td>
<td>pande diong (whose making)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>pande + de (of)</td>
<td>pande de (making of)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>pande + k (1Sg.Poss.)</td>
<td>pandek (my making)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>pande + m (2Sg.Poss.)</td>
<td>pandem (your making)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>pande + n (3Sg.Poss.)</td>
<td>panden (his/ her making)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>pande + km (1Pl.Poss.)</td>
<td>pandekm (our making)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pande</td>
<td>Pande + s (2Pl.Poss.)</td>
<td>pandes (your making)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Pande + D (3Pl.Poss.)</td>
<td>panded (their making)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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 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’
To summarize, for nouns of state nominalization process, the free word diong and deas 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 panden means the action of making. The important thing to be worth noting is that lexically the word panden is not a free lexicon. However, semantically the word panden shows an activity of making. The presence of possessive clitic -n in panden 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 primate 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) Wēlikue ende one-wie (verb as predicate)
    buy cake mother last night
    ‘Mother bought some cakes last night’

(9) Wēi-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 wēi ‘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>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Infinitive Verb</th>
<th>Process (of nominalization)</th>
<th>Result (nominalization)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Dere (to sing)</td>
<td>ata + dere (people sing)</td>
<td>ata dere (singer)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tako (to steal)</td>
<td>ata + tako (people steal)</td>
<td>ata tako (thief)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tombo (to speak)</td>
<td>ata + tombo (people speak)</td>
<td>ata tombo (speaker)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adong (to lie)</td>
<td>ata + adong (people lie)</td>
<td>Ata adong (lier)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(1) Derei Jon O R
    sing-3Sg.Ref Jon
    ‘John sings’

Derei hia
    sing-3Sg.Ref 3Sg.
    ‘John sings’

(verb as predicate)
OR
Hia dere
3T singing-3Sg.Ref
‘He sings’

(2) Ata dere lau-mai Jakarta
people sing from Jakarta
‘The singer(s) from Jakarta’

(3) Pisa-ata dere situ
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
people many in market
‘There are many people in the market’

(5) Cei ata mai no’o meseng
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 ‘people’ 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
child gentle that steal pig our last night
‘The boy stole our pig last night’

(7) Ami deko ata-tako km one wie
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-misi for noun misi “filter”, pe-muh for noun muh “eraser” and pe-ming for noun ming “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 sih “a means to winnow”, 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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Infinitive Verb</th>
<th>Process (of nominalization)</th>
<th>Result (nominalization)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Deko (to catch)</td>
<td>Apa + deko (what catch)</td>
<td>Apa deko (a thing to catch/trap)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seho (to winnowing)</td>
<td>Apa+ seho (what winnowing)</td>
<td>Apa seho (winnowing basket)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teong (to hang)</td>
<td>Apa + teong (what hang)</td>
<td>Apa teong (hanger)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
(1) Ami ngo diko lawo to’ong (verb as predicate)
   ‘We go to catch mouse in few minutes’

(2) Nia-i apa diko 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 diko “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 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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Infinitive Verb</th>
<th>Process (of nominalization)</th>
<th>Result (nominalization)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Hang (to eat)</td>
<td>hang + de (eat of)</td>
<td>Hang de (the way of eating)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>hang + n (his eating)</td>
<td>Hangn (the way of his eating)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Toko (to sleep)</td>
<td>toko + de (eat of)</td>
<td>Toko de (the way of sleeping)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>toko + n (his sleeping)</td>
<td>Tokon (the way of sleeping)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(1) Hangi 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 hangn 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’da “dream” is changed to li-ld-do “place of dreaming”; m’an “see” is changed to li-nman “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**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Infinitive Verb</th>
<th>Process (of nominalization)</th>
<th>Result (nominalization)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Boak (to bury)</td>
<td>palang + boak (place bury)</td>
<td>Palang boak (space/place to bury)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Toko (to sleep)</td>
<td>palang + toko (place sleep)</td>
<td>Palang toko (space/place to sleep)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(1) Ise boak jarang mata-s (verb as predicate)
they bury horse dead-3Sg.Plu.Ref.
The bury a dead horse'.

(2) Ho’o palang boak jarang mata hitu (nominalized verb as place to bury)
This place bury horse dead that
This is the burial place of the dead horse'.

(3) Toko-o’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 tokoin (3) are verbs as predicate in those sentences. Meanwhile, each of words boak in (2), tokoin tokoin (4), labar in (5), and tokoin tokoin (or ter-lako) in (6) have been nominalized by using the free word palang and bound morpheme ter- is denoting respectively a place to bury, 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”.

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**Note:** The table and text are based on the provided image, with some corrections and additions to ensure clarity and coherence. The examples and explanations are derived from the text content.
Based on the data, CMD has no special devices such as suffixes 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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Infinitive Verb</th>
<th>Process (of nominalization)</th>
<th>Result (nominalization)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Tulis (to write, loan word)</td>
<td>tulis</td>
<td>Tulis (writing)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inung (to drink)</td>
<td>inung (drink)</td>
<td>Inung (drinking)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tako (to steal)</td>
<td>tako (steal)</td>
<td>Inung (theft)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hang (to eat)</td>
<td>hang (eat)</td>
<td>Hang (remnant)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(1) Tulisone meja-i Jon writen table-3Sing.Ref. John 'John writes on the table'.

(2) Tulisdiong ho’o? writewhose this 'Whose writing is this'?

(3) Baca laku tulis hitu read by me write-3Sing.Poss. that 'I read his writing'.

(4) Mantar hitu takoi one-wie child that steal-3Sing.Ref. last night 'The child stole last night'.

(5) Do keta-s takon many so-3Sing.Ref. steal-3Sing.Poss. 'His thefts are so many'

(6) Ami inung kopil-km We drink coffee-1Sing.Plural.Ref. 'We drink coffee'.

(7) Inung diong so’o? drink whose these 'Whose drinks are these'?

(8) Hang diong so’o? eat whose these 'Whose remnant is this'?

The word tulis in (1) and (2), tako in (4), and inung in (6) are verbs functioning as predicates, while tulis in (3), takon 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 pada, “reason for arrival” or in padaeg “reason for being willing”, and padaedir “reason for leaving”. Based on the data, the CMD uses free word le/la/, or ali, or compounds wajo or wajo ali. Consider Table 17 and the examples.
Table 17: Process of verb nominalization denoting reason

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Infinitive Verb</th>
<th>Process (of nominalization)</th>
<th>Result (nominalization)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pa’u (to fall)</td>
<td>le + pa’u (because fall)</td>
<td>Le pa’u (because of falling)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inung (to drink)</td>
<td>le + inung (because drink)</td>
<td>Le inung (because of drinking)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tako (to steal)</td>
<td>le + tako (because steal)</td>
<td>Le tako (because of stealing)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(1) Retang reak hitu. Apa-tara Retang? (verb as predicate)

(2) Le pa’u (ali/wajole/wajoali pa’u) (nominalized verb)

(3) Retang le pa’u haju (nominalized verb)

(4) Langu (hi) ema mabuk-3Sg.Ref. he father (verb as predicate)

(5) Langu le inung tuak (nominalized verb)

(6) Bora le tako ata hitu (nominalized verb)

Pa’u in le pa’u in (2) and (3), inung in le inung (5) and tako in le tako (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.

Reference
