

## Markers in Komerling Language Diathesis

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**Abstract:** The object of this research is active-passive clauses in Komerling language. Komerling language is one of the regional languages in the South Sumatra province in Indonesia. The linguistic corpus taken in this study is the Komerling language which is located in East Ogan Komerling Ulu Regency. The aim of this research is to know the form of active-passive clauses and markers in Komerling language. The results of this research show that active constructions in Komerling language have nasal- and passive di- markers. In addition, the passive with argument (A) has a passive form without a marker. Another marker found is the ke- passive marker. These markers appear in passive verbs that is increasing in form of valence degrees such as causative and applicative. Meanwhile, the ke-an confix passive markers also appear in the passive of Komerling language. However, this type of passive cannot be turned into an active clause because it is not a derivation of an active clause.

**Keywords:** active, passive, marking, causative, applicative, Komerling Language, diathesis.

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### 1. Introduction

Komerling language is one of the languages spoken by some people in the South Sumatra region, especially in three districts, they are East Ogan Komerling Ulu, South Ogan Komerling Ulu, and Ogan Komerling Ilir. The name of Komerling itself is taken from the name of Komerling river which stretches from the South Ogan Komerling Ulu district to the Ogan Komerling Ilir district and it empties in Musi River.

The influence of modernization and globalization also has an impact on the existence of regional languages in South Sumatra, including the Komerling language. In addition, the influence of immigrants also influences the existence of this language. However, as can be seen in the capital of East Ogan Komerling Ulu Regency, which is Martapura, the Komerling language is rarely spoken by the younger generation. They prefer to use Palembang Malay as the lingua franca or Indonesian. This was chosen because it was considered as a more practical and understandable way to the speech partner which is outside Komerling ethnic group, such as Javanese, Sundanese and Ogan tribes.

This ethnic and language diversity causes the Komerling language to slowly be faded by the times. Moreover, the lack of written documentation in the Komerling language is also very rare. Therefore, it is hoped that this research can be a way of documenting the Komerling language and as a provider for this language to be sustainable and to be known by the wider community. The documentation of the Komerling language has been attempted by the Language Institute and the Teacher Training Faculty of Education, Sriwijaya University (1979/1980) by Saleh, et al. (1984) on the morphology of Komerling language verbs, and by Wahab, et al. (1992) on the Komerling Language reduplication system. Another research on the Komerling language is about suffixes, confixes and prefixes, by Muhidin (2018, 2019). Meanwhile, the newest research on the typology of the Komerling language is research conducted by Inayah, Sawardi, & Sumarlam (2021). Thus, this research is a follow-up research on the typology of the Komerling language which specifically discusses the marking of the active-passive diathesis in the Komerling language. So far, there has been no research on marking active-passive diathesis in the Komerling language.

The typology study was conducted as an attempt to answer a question of "what is language X like?" (Basaria: 2016). In general, the study of typology has two main patients that cannot be separated. The first patient is to define the variations that may exist between the world's languages. Meanwhile, the second patient is to find the universal (Artawa and Jufrizal: 2018). Universality in this case is the same characteristic found in a language. One of the universalities of a language is that almost all languages in the world have two types of verbs, they are intransitive and transitive verbs. (Dixon: 1994). Dixon (1994) also made basic premises as a reference in determining a typology of language. Dixon said that basically the languages in this world work based on three primitive relations as follows:

S – intransitive clause subject

A – transitive clause subject

O – transitive clause object

The relation between S, A, and O will group languages into accusative, ergative, and neutral or mixed typologies. Inayah, Sawardi, and Sumarlam (2021) revealed that Komerling language is one of the languages with an accusative typology where the subject of an intransitive clause (S) is treated the same as the subject of a transitive clause (A) or S=A. Research that has been conducted by Inayah, Sawardi and Sumarlam (2021) is an initial foundation in research on Komerling language typology.

Dixon (2012: 205) stated that in accusative language there is usually a difference between active and passive. This can also be found in the Komerling language. It is as shown in the following example:

- (1) a. *Umak ng-akuk uwai*  
 Mom ACT-take water  
 ‘Mom takes water’
- b. *Uwai di-akuk (bak) umak*  
 Water PASS- taken (by) mom  
 ‘Water is taken by umak’  
 (M/17/I/21)

Clause (1.a) is an active clause where the agent (*Umak*) has a semantic role as a subject. Meanwhile, clause (1.b) is a passive clause, where the altered subject is no longer the agent as the subject, but the object who acts as the subject. This semantic role exchange becomes the characteristics that Komerling language is a language with an alternating active-passive diathesis. Mithun (2006) explained that diathesis or voice is known as a clause structure alternation system that has a different role, which is as a subject.

Another active-passive forms are also found in the Komerling language. They are as in the example below:

- (2) a. *Ia ny-(s)epok hurang*  
 He/She ACT-hunt shrimp  
 ‘He/She hunts shrimp’
- b. *Hurang [ ] ia cari*  
 Shrimp [ ] he/she (Passive) hunt  
 ‘Shrimp, he/she hunts’

Clause (2a) is an active form where the active marker is marked with the nasal prefix *ny-*. Meanwhile, in clause (2b), there is a passive form without markers. Another form of marking in the Komerling language is shown in the example below:

- (3) a. *Agas nge-hinggop-i bihngom*  
 Nyamuk ACT-land-LOCATIVE APPLICATIVE cheek  
 ‘Mosquito lands on the cheek’
- b. *Bihngom ke-hinggop-an agas*  
 Cheek PASS-land-LOCATIVE APPLICATIVE mosquito  
 ‘Cheek is landed by mosquito’  
 (MI/14/VII/22)

Clause (3a) is an active form of a verb with an increased valence. The clause pattern forms a causative construction. Meanwhile, clause (3b) is a verb with a passive form. The passive form of the verb (3b) has a temporary passive marker *ke-* and *-an* as an applicative marker.

Based on the examples above, in active diathesis, the agent has a semantic role as a subject. Meanwhile, in passive diathesis, it is the object that acts as the subject. Dixon (2012) suggests that active and passive can be considered as independent clauses. Also, the passive can be seen as a derivation of the active clause. In the example above, it is clear that each of the above clauses can stand alone as an independent clause. While clause (1b) is a derivation or derivative of the active clause. In addition to diathesis alternation, there are very clear marker differences between those two clauses. In active clause (1a), verbs are marked by a nasal prefix *ng-*, while in the passive clause (1b), they are marked by a *di-* prefix marker. Moreover, in the active clause (2a), verbs are marked by the nasal prefix *ny-*. Furthermore, in the passive clause (2b), passive verbs are presented

without markers. Example of (3a) shows a simplex argument in which active verbs are presented without a marker while in (3b) passive verbs are presented with a marker *ke-*, while *-an* is a marker as an increasing verb (raising).

Based on the theory and research data described above, Komerling language is a language with an accusative typology that has an active-passive diathesis. Obviously, the marker forms of active clauses are distinguished from passive clauses. Thus, this study will describe the form of active-passive clauses and their markers. Theoretically, this research is expected to enrich the literature on Komerling language research which is obviously still highly rare. While practically, this research can be a reference for researchers who are interested in typological studies in general and typological studies of the Komerling language in particular.

## 2. Methods

This research is about active-passive forms in Komerling language using a language typology approach. This research includes qualitative research. According to Moleong (2004), qualitative methods show the nature of the relationship between informants and researchers directly. The data were obtained by interviewing native Komerling language speakers. This was selected because there are still very few written sources in the Komerling language. Informants selected as informants have several criteria. This is so that researchers get the appropriate data. In addition, accuracy in selecting informants is expected to speed up the research process. Mahsun (2005) stated that in a research, the informant should be more than one. If it is only one informant, it is feared that the researcher will not be able to check the validity of the data just in case during the collecting the data there are irregularities. Thus, the researcher determined the criteria for the informant as follows:

1. Native speaker of Komerling language;
2. 18-59 years old;
3. Capable of speaking Indonesian;
4. No speech disorder.

Data collection uses speaking method. This method is a conversation between researchers and informants (Mahsun, 2005). The method used in this study is the distributional method. It is a method where the determinant aspects are in the language that is being studied, such as words, syntactic functions, clauses, syllables, and others (Sudaryanto: 2018). The data is analyzed using the read marker technique. The mark reading technique is a technique that has the aim of showing markings about the authenticity of a lingual unit or the identity of a particular constituent. Furthermore, the ability to read the role of markers means the ability to determine the intended activity. Meanwhile, the way to use this technique is to observe directly at the markers that are concerned syntactically and morphologically. In this study, the marker reading technique that was used was morphological, because the concerns of observation are the passive marker which is the derivation of the active clause (Sudaryanto: 2018).

## 3. Results

### 3.1 Markers of Active *Nasal-* and Passive *di-* Verbs

The Komerling language has common markers that are attached to transitive verbs. These markers are nasal markers. The presentation of marked verb data will be presented along with the derivation of active into passive verbs. Examples of transitive verb clauses with nasal prefixes are shown below:

- (4) a. *Adi nge-liak kudo lapah*  
 I ACT-see horse walking  
 'I see a horse walking'
- b. *Kudo lapah di-liak bak Adi*  
 Horse walking PASS-see by Adi  
 'The horse walking is seen by Adi'  
 (M/17/I/21)
- (5) a. *Ani ng-(k)ating riang-riang*  
 Ani ACT-hold cricket  
 'Ani holds cricket'
- b. *Riang-riang di-kating Ani*  
 Cricket PASS-hold Ani  
 'Cricket is held by Ani'

(M/17/I/21)

(6) a. *Ani ng-(k)erok bunga*  
 Ani ACT-water flower  
 'Ani waters flower'

b. *Bunga di-kerok Ani*  
 Flower PASS-water Ani  
 'Flower is watered by Ani'  
 (M/17/I/21)

(7) a. *Andi nge-lirik Ani*  
 Andi ACT-glance Ani  
 'Andi glances Ani'

b. *Ani di-lirik Andi*  
 Ani PASS-glance Andi  
 'Andi is glanced by Andi'  
 (M/17/I/21)

(8) a. *Ani m-baco pisaan<sup>1</sup>*  
 Ani ACT-read pisaan  
 'Ani reads pisaan'

b. *Pisaan di-baco Ani*  
 Pisaan PASS-read Ani  
 Pisaan is read by Ani'  
 (M/17/I/21)

(9) a. *Andi m-(p)isah jelma ribut*  
 Andi ACT-separate fighters  
 'Andi separates fighters'

b. *Jelma ribut di-pisah bak Andi*  
 Fighters ACT-separate by Andi  
 'Fighters are separated by Andi'  
 (M/17/I/21)

(10) a. *Ani n-(t)abuk Ira*  
 Ani ACT-punch Ira  
 Ani punches Ira

b. *Ira di-tabuk Ani*  
 Ira PASS-punch Ani  
 Ira is punched Ani  
 (M/17/I/21)

(11) a. *Ani n-(t)oktok daging manuk*  
 Ani ACT-slice meat chicken  
 'Ani slices chicken meat'

b. *Daging manuk di-toktok Si Ani*

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<sup>1</sup>Komerling's oral literature in the form of rhymes. It is usually performed at weddings or the awarding of traditional Komerling titles. Pisaan contains a moral message for better changes or it can also be memories from the past, advice from parents, grandparents, or relatives (Komerling Indigenous Community Network (JAMAK): 2014).

Chicken meat 'Chicken meat (M/17/I/21)	PASS-slece is sliced by Ani'	Ani	
(12) a. <i>Umak ny-(c)angking kerejang langsak</i> Mom ACT-carry duku basket 'Mom carries duku basket'			
b. <i>Kerejang langsak di-cangking (bak) Umak</i> Duku basket PASS-carry by Mom 'Duku basket is carried by Mom' (M/17/I/21)			
(13) a. <i>Bik Cik ny-(c)oruk kawai</i> Auntie ACT-sew clothes Auntie sews clothes			
b. <i>Kawai di-coruk (bak) Bik Cik</i> Clothes PASS-sew by Aunty 'Clothes is sewed by Aunty' (M/17/I/21)			

Data (4.a-13.a) shows the pattern of transitive active clauses in Komerling language with nasal variation markers *n-*, *m-*, *ng*, and *ny-*. Meanwhile, the data from 4.b -13.b are forms of passive sentences or derivations of transitive active sentences. The passives mentioned above are passives which are marked by a certain affix (in this cases are *di-* prefix) attached to the verb. This kind of passive is also called as canonical passive. Dixon (2012: 206) states that the canonical passive derivation has several criteria as below:

- It is applied to a transitive clause and has the derivation form of an intransitive clause
- O in transitive active verbs becomes S in transitive passive verbs
- Argument A shifts to a peripheral function, marked by non-core cases, appositions, etc. This argument can be omitted, although there is always an option to include it.
- It has a formal marker; explicit in passive constructs. Generally, these markers are attached to verbs in the form of affixes.

In the example above, it is very clear that the Komerling passive form of 4.b – 13.b is a canonical passive. The change of active clause to canonical passive derivation based on Dixon's (2012) theory above, can be illustrated in the chart below:

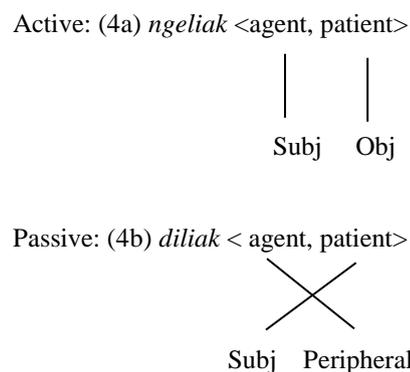


Figure 1: The canonical passive derivation of the Komerling language

The difference in subject and object mapping in (4a) and (4b) occurs due to differences in affixes attached to verbs. In verb (4a), the attached affix is *ng-* which is the marker of the active clause. Meanwhile in clause (4b), the affix attached is the affix *di-* which is a passive marker. Based on Dixon's theory, the formation of the canonical passive in transitive verbs shifts the patient O (object) to S (subject) in passive verbs which shifts to intransitive. Meanwhile, agent (A) shifts to peripheral.

### 3.2 Passive without markers

The next type of passive is passive without any markers. This type is presented in basic or simplex clauses in Komerling language. Passive verbs without markers in Komerling language appear in ecatransitive verbs or transitive verbs with one object, as in the example below:

(14) a. *Ia ny-(s)epok hurang*  
 3SG ACT-hunt shrimp  
 'He/She hunts shrimp'

b. *Hurang [ ] ia cari*  
 Shrimp [ ] 3SG hunt  
 'Shrimp, She/He hunts'

(15) a. *Sikam ng-uwai lubang*  
 1PL ACT-dig hole  
 'We dig a hole'

b. *Lubang [ ] sikam uwai*  
 Hole [ ] 1PL dig  
 'Hole, we dig'

(16) a. *Tiyan nge-banduh ram*  
 3PL ACT-punch 1PL  
 'They punch us'

b. *Sikam [ ] tiyan banduh*  
 1PL [ ] 3PL punch  
 'We, they punch'  
 (M/17/I/21)

(17) a. *Nyak ng-akuk uwai*  
 1SG ACT-take water  
 'I take water'

b. *Uwai [ ] nyak akuk*  
 Water [ ] 1SG take  
 'Water, I take'  
 (M/17/I/21)

The clauses in (14a) – (17a) are examples of active verb clauses. Meanwhile, verbs (14 b) – (17 b) are passive clauses that appear without markers. After the subject, in clauses (14 b) – (17 b), a pause [ ] appears which indicates that passive clauses without markers appear more often in spoken variety. Verbs without markers in Komerling appear without causing problems if the agent is a pronoun. However, if the agent's argument is not a pronoun then the di- marker must appear. The example below will show a clause with an agent instead of a pronoun.

(18) a. *Ani ng-akuk uwai*  
 Ani ACT-take water  
 'Ani takes water'

b. *Uwai di-akuk Ani*  
 Water PASS-taken Ani  
 'Water is taken by Ani'

c. *\*Uwai Ani akuk*

Water Ani PASS-take  
 'Water Ani takes'

(MI/15/XI/22)

- (19) a. *Meranai sina n-(t)usuk tanihi Andi*  
 That young man ACT-stab Andi's stomach  
 'That young man stubs Andi's stomach'
- b. *Tanihi Andi di-tusuk meranai sina*  
 Andi's stomach PASS-stubbed by that young man  
 'Andi's stomach is stubbed by that young man'
- c.\* *Meranai sina tanihi Andi tusuk*  
 That young man Andi's stomach PASS-stub  
 'That young man Andi's stomach stub'  
 (MI/15/XI/22)

Clauses (18a) and (19a) show active clauses with nasal verb markers. The passive in (18a) and (19b) does not pose a problem because these clauses can be accepted with the passive prefix *di-* marker. Then problems arise in clauses (18c) and (19c) where verbs without passive markers are unacceptable in active clauses with agents that are not pronouns. This causes confusion in the order of clauses and causes the clause to be incomprehensible to speakers. Unlike the clauses in (14 b – 17 b), where passive verbs without markers that appear in clauses with pronoun agents are acceptable. Thus, the appearance of the marker becomes obligation in clauses that do not require pronoun agents.

Differences in acceptability of verbs without markers also appear in verbs with applicative constructions. Applicative constructions are constructions with an increasing verb valence. Crystal (2008) states that applicative is a construction in several languages that has two objects (a direct object and an indirect object). In this verb, the appearance of passive verbs with markers is a must for a clause to be acceptable, such as the examples below:

- (20) a. *Ubak ng-(g)uwaiko Budi layangan*  
 Dad ACT-make- BENEFACTIVE APPLICATIVE Budi kite  
 'Dad makes Budi a kite'
- b. *Budi di-guwaiko ubak layangan*  
 Budi PASS-make- BENEFACTIVE APPLICATIVE dad kite  
 'Budi is made by dad a kite'
- c.\* *Layangan guwai-ko ubak Budi*  
 A kite make- BENEFACTIVE APPLICATIVE Dad Budi  
 'A kite is made by dad Budi'  
 (MI/14/VIII/22)

- (21) a. *Umak nasakko Ani sambol tempoyak<sup>2</sup>*  
 Mom ACT-cook-APL Ani sauce tempoyak  
 'Mom cooks Ani tempoyak sauce'
- b. *Ani di-nasakko Umak sambol tempoyak*  
 Ani PASS-cook- BENEFACTIVE APPLICATIVE mom sauce tempoyak  
 'Ani is cooked Mom a tempoyak sauce'
- c.\* *Sambol tempoyak umak nasakko Ani*  
 Tempoyak sauce mom cooks Ani  
 'Tempoyak sauce mom cooks Ani'  
 (MI/14/VIII/22)

In verbs (20) – (21), there are three clause patterns, they are: a. active verb clause with the nasal-

<sup>2</sup>Tempoyak is one of the special foods of South Sumatra which is made from fermented durian. It is usually cooked into processed chili sauce or fish paste and other cooking.

marker as the active marker and *-ko* as the applicative marker; b. passive verb clauses with *di-* and *-kan* as applicative markers; and c. passive verb clause without markers. Different from previous transitive verbs which can have passive verbs with and without markers, active verbs and their derivatives only have passive verbs with *di-* markers. In fact, the appearance of a clause with a verb without a marker causes a clause to be unacceptable and does not have a complete meaning.

### 3.3 Valenced Verb Markers

Valence refers to the ability of a verb that occupies a function as a predicate to bind arguments. The concept of valence refers to the number of arguments needed by verbs that occupy predicate positions (Budiarta: 2015). Dixon (2012) revealed that there are two main ways to change verb valence. The first way is causative and the second way is applicative. Causative and applicative have two basic possibilities. In the causative, the probability is that S turns into O, and introduces a new argument to function A. While in applicative, S is changed into A and introduces a new argument to function O. Verbs that experience increased valence have explicit markers. In the presentation below, it will explain marking on valenced verbs, they are causative and applicative.

#### 3.3.1. Causative Verb Markers

Place Causative is a construction related to verbs that causes a situation or event (Kridalaksana: 2011). Causative is one of the verbs that is increasing in degree or valence. In causative, it also has an explicit marker, such as in the examples below:

(22) a. *Ani n-(t)iyak-ko                      mangga*  
Ani ACT-drop-CAUS mango  
'Ani drops the mango'

b. *Mangga di-tiyak-ko                      bak Ani*  
Mango PAS-drop-CAUS by Ani  
'Mango is dropped by Ani'

(23) a. *Umak      n-(t)ijang-ko                      buwokni*  
Mom      ACT-long-CAUS                      hair  
'Mom longs her hair'

b. *Buwokni                      di-tijang-ko                      bak Umak*  
Her hair                      PASS-long-CAUS                      by Mom  
'Her hair is longed by mom'

In the example clause above, it can be observed that the verb in clause (22) has the base word *tiyak* 'fall' and the verb clause (23) has the base word *tijang* 'long'. These two basic words, if formed into a clause, will form an intransitive clause as follows:

(22) c. *Mangga tiyak*  
'Mango drops'

(23) c. *Buwok panjang*  
'Long hair'

If the two intransitive clauses experience an increasing valence to become causative, then it will bring up new markers, they are active nasal and causative *-ko*. In accordance with what was stated by Dixon (2012: 240) that the canonical causative derivation can be applied to intransitive clauses and turns into transitive clauses; arguments that function as S turn into O functions on the causative; a new argument (causer) is introduced into function A; and there are some formal markers of causative construction.

In the clause above, it can be concluded that verbs that experience an increasing valence (causative) in the active clause have nasal- active markers and *-ko* causative markers. Furthermore, the passive has a passive marker *di-* and has a *-ko* causative marker. In addition to the markers *di-* in the passive and *-ko* in the causative passive construction, the Komerling language also has *to-* passive markers and *-an* markers. As in the example below:

(24) a. *Umak ng-asin-ko iwak*  
 Mom ACT-salt-CAUS fish  
 'Mom salts the fish'

b. *Iwak ke-hasin-an bak umak*  
 Fish PASS-salt-CAUS by Mom  
 'Fish is salted by Mom'  
 (MI/14/VII/22)

In the above clause, it indicates the presence of a passive with the *ke-* marker. This passive is not as much as in- passive. In addition, passive markers usually appear in verbs that have an increased degree of valence, both causative and applicative. The next causative construction markers are active markers with nasal and causative with -i, as well as passive markers with di- and causative with -i. As the example of clause below:

(25) a. *Bik cik nge-basoh-i uwai*  
 Aunty ACT-water-CAUS clothes  
 'Aunty waters the clothes'

b. *Uwai di-basoh-i bik cik*  
 Clothes PASS-water-CAUS Aunty  
 'Clothes are watered by Aunty'  
 (MI/14/VII/22)

Based on the data that has been stated above, verb markers with an increasing degree of valence on verbs causatively have marker variations including in active clause that is marked by nasal- and causative with -ko while in the passive it is marked by di- and causative with ko. The second is the active marker with nasal and causative with -ko, and passive with ke- and causative with -an. The third is the active marker nasal- and the causative marker with -i and the passive marker with di- and the causative marker with -i.

### 3.3.2. Applicative Verb Markers

As mentioned above, Komerling is a language with the accusative type. As an accusative language, applicative constructions can be maintained (Basaria: 2011). Artawa (1998) argues that applicative is a construction that leads to a derivation process which includes increasing degree (valence) of the verb. Crystal (2008) explains that verb affixes in applicative construction are coded as a role, such as a benefactive and locative role. This construction can be analyzed as a type of diathesis (voice). In valencing verbs in Komerling language, marking can be seen in the following example:

(26) a. *Ira nge-hojong-i kersi*  
 Ira ACT-sit-LOCATIVE APPLICATIVE chair  
 'Ira sits on the chair'

b. *Kersi di-hojong-i Ira*  
 Chair PAS-sit-LOCATIVE APPLICATIVE Ira  
 'Chair is sat by Ira'  
 (M/17/I/21)

(27) a. *Adi ny-(s)eborang-ko akas Usman di rangraya*  
 Adi AKT-CROSS-BENEFACTIVE APPLICATIVE grandpa Usman on the road  
 'Adi crosses grandpa Usman on the road'

b. *Akas Usman di seberang-ko Adi di rangraya*  
 Grandpa Usman PASS-CROSS-BENEFACTIVE APPLICATIVE Adi on the road  
 'Grandpa Usman is crossed by Adi on the road'  
 (M/17/I/21)

(28) a. *Agas nge-hinggop-i bihngom*  
 Mosquito ACT-reach-LOCATIVE APPLICATIVE cheek  
 'Mosquitos reach on the cheek'

- b. *Bihngom ke-hinggop-an* *agas*  
 Cheek PAS-reach- LOCATIVE APPLICATIVE mosquitoes  
 'Cheek is reached by mosquitoes'  
 (MI/14/VII/22)

Before experiencing application, in the example clause above it can be observed that the verb in clause (26a) has the base word *hojong* 'sit' and clause (27a) has the base word *a* 'across'. Both of these base words experience applicability both locatively as verbs in clauses (26) and (27) which have active markers *nasal-* and *ko-* applicative markers. Moreover, passive clauses have *di-* and *-ko* as applicative markers. Passive markers appear differently in clause (28b). In clause (28a), the verb *ngehinggopi* 'reach' has an active marker *nasal-* and an applicative marker *-i*. Meanwhile, in the passive clause (28b), the verb *kehinggopan* 'reached' has passive and applicative *-an* markers. Unlike the *di-* marker which is generally attached to the passive marker with the intensity of its frequent appearance, the *ke-* passive marker is very rarely found.

In addition to the above forms, there are several verbs that have two passive forms. This passive verb can be marked *di-* and *ke-*. As in the example below:

- (29) a. *Ani nge-ratong-i* *Ira di lumbahanni*  
 Ani ACT-visit-APPLICATIVE LOCATIVE Ira in her home  
 'Ani visits Ira's home'
- b. *Ira di-ratong-i* *Ani*  
 Ira PASS-visit- APPLICATIVE LOCATIVE Ani  
 'Ira is visited by Ani'
- c. *Ira ke-ratong-an* *Ani*  
 Ira PASS-visit- APPLICATIVE LOCATIVE Ani  
 'Ira is visited by Ani'

Clause (29) has two passive forms. They are *di-* and *ke-*. While the locative applicative marker in the passive *di-* has the marker *-i*, and the passive with the *ke-* marker has the applicative form *-an*. The appearance of passive with these two markers, of course, cannot be predicted certainly. Moreover, not all passive derivations like the one above can be marked by *ke-* marker. The presence of passive markers that have two forms is very rare. For example, the verb *miwangi* 'cries' only has the passive form *'dimiwangi'* does not have the passive form *kemiwangan*.

The applicative of verbs causes several markings explicitly (Dixon: 2012). In addition, Dixon (2012) also mentions that the canonically applicable derivation of intransitive verbs (such as the example in clauses 26-28) has several specifications applied, such as when applied to intransitive verbs, the basic form will change to a transitive form; argument that function S shifts into function A; and arguments with peripheral functions in intransitive base clauses (applicatives arguments) are moved to core and the O function is called as 'AP-O' (applicative object).

Based on Dixon's theory above, the application of intransitive verbs to transitive can be described as below:

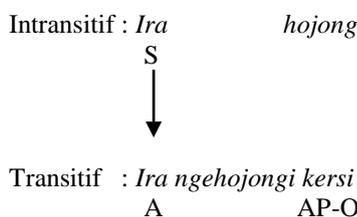


Figure 2: Changing intransitive verbs into transitive in applicative

Besides being applied to intransitive verbs, applicative can also be applied to transitive verbs. In transitive verbs, canonical applicative derivations have several criteria according to Dixon (2012: 296). According to him, applicative can be applied to transitive clauses with core arguments A and O and their derivatives remain transitive clauses (in some languages it can be considered as extended transitive clauses). The second is that the argument that functions A remains in its function in the applicative derivation. Third, an argument with a peripheral function in the transitive clause (applicative argument) is moved to the core, in the O



However, this passive marker cannot be changed into active sentences, since the appearance of this passive verb is not derived from an active sentence. For example in the clause below:

- (32) *Ani ke-liak-an*                      *sodih*  
Ani PASS-look-PASS              sad  
'Ani looks sad'

In the example above, the direct passive marker is marked by *ke-an*. This is of course different from the marking patterns in the examples of causative and applicative passive clauses, where only *ke-* and *-an* passive markers that are causative and applicative markers. This type of passive is more commonly found in the Komerling language. For example in the passive example below:

- (33)a. *ke-tahu-man*                      : found out  
b. *ke-mawas-an*                      : oversleep  
c. *ke-bingi-an*                         : benighted

However, this double meaning in passive verbs can be found in verbs with the prefix. For example, in the following:

- (33) a. *Iwak ke-hasin-an*              *bak umak*  
Fish PASS-salt-CAUS      by mom  
'Fish is salted by mom'

(MI/14/VII/22)

- b. *Sambolni kehasinan*  
'The sauce too salty'  
(MI/14/VII/22)

In the causative passive construction (33a) *kehasinan* 'salted' is a passive verb derivation from the verb *ngasinko* 'salted'. Meanwhile in clause (33b) *kehasinan* is an adjective which means 'salty' or too salty. *Kehasinan* is a form of the same word that has two different meanings because it comes from different sources and the meaning that appears depends on the object of conversation.

#### 4. Conclusion

Komerling language is a language with an accusative typology that has an active-passive diathesis. Markings in the Komerling language that are attached to transitive active verbs are nasal markers. While the derivation which is a passive clause has a di- marker. Besides from the di- marker, in Komerling language, there is also a passive without the marker. This passive has an obligatory pronoun argument requirement (A). If argument agent (A) is changed to other than a pronoun, then the passive that appears must use the di- marker. If there is no marker, then a clause with argument agent (A) which is not a pronoun will be ambiguous and unacceptable.

Meanwhile, for verbs that increase in valence, the markers that appear in active verbs either causatively or applicatively show the nasal- active markers with causative or -ko and -i applicative markers. Meanwhile, the markers that appear in passive verbs which increasing in valence causatively or applicatively are di- marker for causative and -ko or -i for applicative markers. Meanwhile, another passive marker is passive with *ke-*. This passive with *ke-*, is the derivation of the active clause which increasing in valenced verb. Therefore, passive certainly has a causative or applicative marker, which is *-an*. Passive markers with *ke-an* are also found in Komerling. However, this *ke-an* passive in this type is not a derivation of an active verb and cannot be converted into an active sentence.

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