VOICE SYSTEMS IN MANGGARAI: HOW SEMANTIC ROLES BEHAVE IN THE CLAUSES

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Abstract: This research evaluates Klamer's statement that says several languages in the Lesser Sunda Islands (and some languages in Sulawesi) do not have passive constructions. Therefore, this study aims to prove whether the Manggarai language has passive construction forms with different semantic roles. The data used in this study are clauses in the Manggarai language that contain five semantic role arguments: actor, patient, benefactive, instrumental, and locative. This is done by examining the semantic role argument to be positioned as the subject. The results show that the Manggarai language is indeed a language that has two voices, which means that active and passive constructions exist. However, Manggarai does not experience morphological changes in the verbs but is marked by the emergence of prepositions when changed into passive constructions. In the Kempo dialect of the Manggarai language, the preposition *le* 'by' not only introduces actors in passive constructions but also serves to introduce instrumental roles in active sentences. The preposition *latang* 'for' introduces a benefactive argument in both active and passive constructions. Preposition *one* 'in/on' serves to introduce a locative argument in active and passive clauses.

Keywords: manggarai; semantic roles; voice systems

East Nusa Tenggara is one of the islands in Indonesia where two primary language families meet and make language contact (Grimes, 1997: 5). The two language families are the Austronesian (AN) language and non-Austronesian (Non-AN/Papuan). It is estimated (based on archaeological evidence) that the Austronesians migrated south through the Philippine islands and moved to eastern Indonesia about 4,000 years ago (Klamer & Ewing, 2010: 2) before continuing eastward into the Pacific and finally settling the Polynesian islands around 1,000 years ago (Bellwood, 1985: 108; Bellwood, 2006: 113).

Malayo Polynesian group can be further stratified into two primary subcategories, as posited by Trudgill (2004: 308) Western Malayo Polynesian and Central-Eastern Malayo Polynesian. Within the expansive Malayo Polynesian language family, Western Malayo Polynesian (WMP) encapsulates languages spoken in diverse locales, including the Philippines, western Indonesia, mainland Southeast Asia, Madagascar, as well as Palauan and Chamorro of Western Micronesia, as delineated by Blust (1993: 40). Central-Eastern-Malayo-Polynesian, in turn, exhibits a further division into two subgroups: Central-Malayo-Polynesian (CMP) and Eastern Malayo-Polynesian (EMP).
Polynesian (EMP). CMP comprises Austronesian languages spoken across the Lesser Sunda and Maluku islands, stretching from Bima in the western reaches, extending northward through Central Maluku, and encompassing the Sula archipelago. It is noteworthy that the Manggarai language, situated within the Lesser Sunda Islands, falls within the purview of the CMP category. Manggarai is one of the languages spoken in the Nusa Tenggara archipelago, grouped into the Central Malayo Polynesia (CMP) family. The languages belonging to the Central Malayo Polynesian group have language features that are less complex than Western Malayo Polynesian. Esser and Jonker (in Blust 2008: 45-46) argued that the Manggarai language is classified into the Bima-Sumba language group. Manggarai language, as part of the CMP group, is also listed as a language that does not have affixes (Verheijen 1977: 35).

Documentation of the Manggarai language is done chiefly by missionary-linguists who come from outside Indonesia. Verheijen is one of the among non-native linguists who successfully described Manggarai language including his compilation of Manggarai-Indonesia dictionary (Elias, 2020: 11; Elias, 2018: 85; Blust, 2013: 85). Verheijen (1977), in “The Lack of Formative IN Affix in The Manggarai Language” mentions that there are several proclitic prepositions and suffixes in the Manggarai language derived from the proto-CMP. Some proclitic prepositions include de, le, ge, te, and be. The suffixes in the Manggarai language are shortened forms of possessive pronouns and personas. Verheijen (1977) exemplifies this in the clause ‘ngo etas ga’. The phrase ‘etas’ is a combination of the word ‘eta’ and the shortened form of the word ‘ise’ which is attached to the word that precedes it.

In addition to the grammatical descriptions carried out by Verheijen, the researcher, who is also a native speaker of the Manggarai language, Hagul (1993), did the same in his research entitled “Tata Bahasa Manggarai NTT”. Hagul specified his research regarding the morphological process of the Manggarai language in the Kolang dialect, one of the dialects spoken in the West Manggarai district. Hagul’s description of Manggarai grammar only reaches the morphological aspect, so the description of Manggarai grammar still needs to be fully completed up to the syntactical aspect.

Considering these conditions, this study intends to fill parts that have not been fully described in Manggarai grammar. This study aims to describe voice systems in the Manggarai language. There is a prevalent supposition that the Central-Eastern-Malayo-Polynesian languages are devoid of voice oppositions (Donohue, 2004: 73). Another distinct pattern of voice marking can be observed within numerous eastern Indonesian and western Melanesian languages. These languages stand apart from the better-documented Western languages, which employ explicit and dedicated voice marking morphology. Moreover, they diverge from the extensively described passive and passive-like morphemes found in linguistic analysis. Donohue's assertion necessitates empirical validation, particularly in the context of languages within the Central-Malayo-Polynesian group. This proposition contrasts the viewpoint Klamer (2002) put forth, asserting that passive constructions are absent in the Eastern Indonesian languages. Substantiating Donohue's claim while considering Klamer's opposing stance requires meticulous linguistic analysis and scrutiny.

Nagaya (2013) undertook a similar endeavor wherein the absence or constraints of voice systems in languages situated in eastern Indonesia were scrutinized. Nagaya provided empirical substantiation through a focused study of the Lamaholot language in East Nusa Tenggara. In the case of Lamaholot, the language employs periphrastic strategies, including using agreement markers, verb serialization, and word order as mechanisms to convey a range of voices and transitivity-related distinctions. In the context of the Manggarai language, there are several studies relevant to this present study, one of which was conducted by Arka & Wouk (2014), who stated that typologically the languages in Flores have an SVO (Subject-Verb-Object) structure and are isolated. Manggarai language is a head-initial language; the focus of the argument is located at the beginning of the clause. Isolated means that words in the Manggarai language are monomorphic or consist of only one morpheme. However, the Manggarai language has quite a lot of clitic forms. Meanwhile, in another study, Kosmas (2015) and Mangga
(2015) stated that passive markers in the Manggarai language are marked in the agent's argument, not in the verb. The passive marker is a preposition le, which can be shortened to l-pronouns, such as le hia (by him) becomes liha, le aku (by me) becomes laku, and so on. In addition, enclitics i and s appear on the locative object, which shows an anaphoric relationship with the subject in the clause. The enclitic i indicates that the subject of the clause is the third person singular, and the enclitic s indicates that the subject of the clause is the third person plural.

The limitations between previous research and this research lie in the focus of the discussion. Considering the previous studies, it is found that they only focus on passive markers in Manggarai language clauses. Meanwhile, this present research looks at the construction of clauses in the Manggarai language whose argument focus (agent, patient, locative, and instrumental) is positioned in active or passive clauses. In addition, this study concentrates specifically on the Kempo dialect, which has slightly different characteristics from the language data used in previous studies. Researchers assume that the data used in previous studies focused more on the Rahong dialect spoken in Manggarai Regency. Meanwhile, in the Kempo dialect, different form of clauses are found; for example, enclitics i and s are rarely found anymore in everyday communication. With the implementation of this research, it is hoped that it can contribute to the documentation of Manggarai grammar which is not only limited to one dialect but also covers other dialects, especially dialects found in West Manggarai Regency.

As previously mentioned, Austronesian languages (AN) are famous for their voice marking system or generally referred to as focus marking in Philippine-type Languages. An argument in a clause may directly connect with the verb used through the marking. Begus (2016: 4-7) and Blust (2002: 66) delineates four morphologically distinct voices in Proto-Austronesian. Specifically, the active voice is indicated by the infix *-um- embedded within the verb structure, whereas the passive voice finds its distinctive signature in the suffix *-en. Furthermore, the locative agent is denoted by the presence of *-an within the verb, while the instrumental voice is discerned through the prefix *Si-. A parallel occurrence of these linguistic features is observed in a typical Philippine language featuring five distinct voices (Chen & McDonnell, 2019: 174).

In these Philippine-type languages, voice markings can appear in various ways. Schachter and Otanes (in Blust 2013: 442) explain that Tagalog has a 'focus' feature of the verb predicate that determines the semantic relationship between the predicate and the topic. Schachter (in Blust 2013: 442) continues that in Philippine-type languages such as Tagalog, the subject is distributed to several types of clause constituents (topic, actor, actor-topic) and concludes that these languages do not have a real subject.

Blust describes the voice system as one argument that can be marked as having a special relationship with a verb (Blust 2013: 442). Keenan (1976: 249) describes verbs appearing in four 'voices' and arguments explicitly marked as subjects. The four voices in question are active voice (AV), direct passive (DP), local passive (LP), and instrumental passive (IP). Voice systems try to test whether the four voices can appear in a language. This research also retests Klamer's hypothesis (2002: 374), which states that several languages in Lesser Sunda islands and perhaps South Sulawesi are considered to have no fundamental passive constructions. In the absence of an active/passive contrast, these languages have no voice system at all.

Arka & Ross (2005: 7) divide voice systems in Austronesian languages into three types: multiple voices, two voices, and languages without voices. Multiple voice type languages are characterized by a verb morphology and often followed by a case marking of a noun argument. In this type of language, only one voice actor can be either transitive or intransitive. Noun phrases that become undergoers can take various semantic roles, namely patient, theme, location, instrument, beneficiary, and so on. Such a system is also called a Philippine-type languages. Some languages have two voices, actor and agent, equipped with applicative suffixes that allow locations, instruments, beneficiaries, and noun phrases from other semantic roles to become actors. This type of language with two voices is called the Indonesian-Type language. Languages with the other two types of voices can be constructed into active and passive forms but are not marked morphologically in the verbs. This is
characteristic of specific isolated languages in Flores, where the Manggarai and Palu'e languages are described in this book. Then the last is the type of language without voice. These languages usually have proclitic or pronominal subject prefixes, object enclitic or verb suffixes, and applicative derivative morphemes.

Ross & Teng (in Blust, 2013: 443) argue that applying this Filipino-type language framework to describe voice systems in other relatively syntactically conservative Austronesian languages can obscure essential generalizations. Using the term topic (subject), this focus will isolate the study of these conservative languages from the broader scientific world of Linguistics. As a survey conducted by Blust (2008) traces, many different terms are used to describe this voice-marking, including voice, focus, case, case/topicialization, topicalization, theme, verb class, centralization, and triggers. This vacillation in terminology is mainly due to the difficulty of matching the Philippine-type verb system with that of languages that are more familiar elsewhere. The term 'voice' is considered inappropriate for several reasons, one of which is that there are languages that can have three passives. The term 'focus' has also raised other objections, notably that it predated its use in general linguistic discourse for different purposes and that using one term for two very different phenomena can only lead to confusion. For this reason, the term 'voice' is preferred even though it is used interchangeably with the term 'focus' in the end.

METHOD

This study uses a qualitative descriptive method design that describes phenomena in specific languages. The researcher collected several active and passive clauses in the Manggarai language and discusses these data with three informants through the interview method. The three selected informants are community leaders who intensively use the Manggarai Kempo dialect in their daily lives. The three informants include the initials YS (62), AW (50), and ST (54). The researcher asked three informants whether the data of the selected clauses could exist and be used relatively in everyday communication. Next, the researcher formulates linguistic rules that summarize the three sources' explanations.

This study applies distributional or distributional methods to analyze clauses in the Manggarai language. The distributional method is a method for analyzing the language system or general rules that are regulatory in language based on behavior or linguistic characteristics of specific linguistic units (Sajarwa, 2021: 102). According to Sudaryanto's view (1993: 15-16), the distributional method is applied to examine parts or elements of the language of the object under study. In this research, the research object studied was in the form of clauses with different focus arguments, namely actor, patient, locative, and instrumental.

In analyzing the construction forms of these clauses, the constituents that make up the clause are identified using the direct element division technique. These constituents are identified based on their syntactic role. The actor role in the active clause or the patient role in the passive clause can fill the subject function. An advanced technique used to analyze voice systems in the Manggarai language is the change of form technique. This technique allows the constituents of a clause to change positions depending on whether the clause is an active clause or a passive clause. The active clause will cause the subject function to be filled by the actor role. However, if the active clause is changed to a passive clause, the subject function may be filled by patient, benefactive, instrumental, or locative. Furthermore, the data obtained are described based on their characteristics. Researchers tested whether the forms of voice systems in the form of active voice, direct passive, locative voice, and instrumental passive can appear in the Manggarai language.

RESULT AND DISCUSSION

Research Results

language adheres to an SVO (Subject-Verb-Object) syntactic structure. Therefore, it is imperative to elucidate the functions and roles associated with its syntax. Verhaar (2006: 70) delineates these syntactic functions, encompassing subject, predicate, object, complement, and description. Two distinct categories of fillers exist for syntactic functions: syntactic categories, which correspond to fillers based on the aspect of their form, and syntactic roles, which pertain to fillers contingent upon
the aspect of their meaning. Subsequently, the ensuing discourse will delve into a more extensive explication of the voice systems within the Manggarai Kempo dialect.

Types of Semantic Roles and Their Examples in Manggarai Language

Active Voice
The focus or topic of the active clause is an actor. Voice or focus, according to Blust (2013, p. 445), can be in the form of noun phrases, personal nouns, and pronouns, whether singular or plural. Lapolla (2006: 142-143) states that the NP that precedes a verb is called an action actor represented by a verb if the verb is an action-type verb and is in the active voice form.

(1) Aku tebol acu ho’o.
AG-1sg av-hit PNT-dog this
(I hit this dog)

(2) Anak hitu tebol acu ho’o.
AG-Child that av-hit PNT-dog this
(That child hits this dog)

(3) Hau tebol acu ho’o.
AG-2sg av-hit PNT-dog this
(You hit this dog)

(4) Hia tebol acu ho’o.
AG-3sg av-hit PNT-dog this
(He/She hits this dog)

The four clauses above are in active voice form marked by the action verb tebol ‘hit.’ The action verb tebol ‘hit’ in the Manggarai clause certainly explains who did the action and someone or something that affects the action. Thus, it can be concluded that the person who performs the act of hitting is what comes before the verb tebol in active voice clauses which is referred to as the actor, while someone/something receiving the act of ‘hitting’ is acu ho’o ‘this dog’ which is referred to as the patient. As previously mentioned, the clause structure of the Manggarai language is no different from that of Indonesian; that is, it has an SVO structure. The actors in the clause are aku, anak hitu, hau, and hia as actors in the active voice clause of the Manggarai language. The active clause structure of the Manggarai language is indeed straightforward. No unique markers show the relationship between the subject and the verb (subject-verb agreement) and the object and the verb.

The actor in clause one above becomes the focus of the clause, so it is marked with the term F-actor. The abbreviation av refers to the form of the voice, a verb that focuses on the actor. Meanwhile, NF-patient is a noun phrase that fills the object function and is not the focus of the clause. There is no corresponding subject in the Manggarai language, so whatever role the actor fills in the subject in the active clause, be it a pronoun, complete noun phrase, or proper name, will not change the morphological form of the verb.

Passive Voice
As previously mentioned, someone/something that receives an action is referred to as a patient. The noun phrase that follows the verb is referred to as patient, benefactive, or recipient, which is represented by the verb. In the active clause above, the patient appears after the verb or is also called backgrounded. However, in a passive clause, the patient can fill in the subject or foreground function by passing the clause. The active voice form for the patient role focus occupying the object function is no different from the actor role focus active voice form, which occupies the subject function as in clauses 1 to 4 above. So, the passive voice form in clause 1 looks like the one below.

(5) Acu ho’o tebol le ata (lata) hitu.
PNT-Dog this pv-hit by AG-person that
(This dog is hit by that person)

In clause five above, the focus of the clause changes to the patient acu ho’o ‘this dog’ after changing its construction to a passive clause. Verbs in this construction are marked with the term passive voice (PV), meaning the clause’s focus lies on the patient. There is also no change in the form of the verb in the passive clause of the Manggarai language. Meanwhile, the actor placed in the final position has added the preposition le as a passive construction marker in the Manggarai language.

(6) Acu ho’o tebol le aku (laku).
PNT-Dog this pv-hit by AG-me
(This dog is hit by me)
In clause six above, behavioral actors cannot appear after the patient and before the verb in the Manggarai language. In other words, passive forms like this are not found in the Manggarai language because the form will be the same as clause five above.

(7) **Tebol le aku (laku) acu ho’o.**
  **pv**-Hit by **AG-me** **PNT** dog this  
  (This dog is hit by me)

Apart from the form in clause six above, other forms commonly used in the Manggarai language declarative clauses are seen in clause seven above. In this form, the focus of the clause, namely the patient, can also be placed at the end. In contrast, the verb is placed first, followed by an actor, and preceded by the passive preposition *le*.

**Benefactive Voice**

As previously mentioned, the noun phrase that follows a verb can be patient, benefactive, or recipient, depending on the form of the verb. Generally, it is known that a verb requires two objects at once, namely a direct object and an indirect object. The direct object is usually filled by the instrumental role, while the benefactive or recipient role can fill the indirect object. A preposition indicates benefactive in the active clause of the Manggarai language in the background.

(8) **Hia weli buku ho’o latang anak hitu.**
  **AG-3sg bv-buy Instr-book this PREP-for B-child that** 
  (He/She buys this book for that child)

(9) **Hia weli anak hitu buku ho’o.**
  **AG-3sg bv-buy B-child that Instr-book this** 
  (He/She buys that child this book)

From clause (8) above, it can be seen that there is an addition of the preposition *latang* before the benefactive role if the position is after the instrumental role (direct object). Meanwhile, if the benefactive position is placed after the verb, as in clause nine, the preposition is no longer used.

(10) **Buku ho’o weli le hia (liha) latang anak hitu**

Clauses (10) - (12) demonstrate the potential placements of the benefactive role within a sentence structure. In clause (10), the instrumental voice *buku ho’o* occupies the initial position, while the agent *hia* adopts a passive construction and follows the verb. The benefactive element remains situated after the clause. In clause (11), the verb takes precedence at the sentence's outset, followed by the agent. Clause (12) illustrates that the benefactive can only be shifted to the initial position when the instrumental component is relegated to the sentence's final segment.

These examples underscore that the primary constituents in these three clauses consist of a verb and an agent. The verb *weli* is characterized as a transitive verb necessitating an agent as its object, and its position remains static, with the agent consistently trailing the verb. In contrast, the instrumental and benefactive components are interdependent, permitting their omission. In an active clause, the benefactive voice can assume a passive role, as exemplified in clause (12) above, introduced by the preposition *latang* (for).

**Instrumental Voice**

The noun in the ergative case is called an argument. The reference is inanimate (not alive). Instrumental roles can appear in transitive clauses and not appear in intransitive clauses.

(13) **Anak hitu tebol acu na (acun) le dongkar hitu.**
  **AG-Child that iv-hit PNT-dog his with Instr-stick that** 
  (That child hits his dog with that stick)
In active clauses like clause 12 above, the instrumental role appears in the final position after a patient. The instrumental in this active clause is also indicated by a preposition le. In other words, the preposition le not only functions as a passive signifier but also as a preposition for an instrumental role.

(14) Anak hitu tebol dongkar hitu duha acu na (acun).

AG-Child that iv-hits Instr-stick that on PNT-dog his.
(That child hits that stick on his dog)

However, the preposition le will only be recovered if the instrumental noun appears after the verb. Meanwhile, the patient positioned at the end of the clause will be preceded by a duha preposition while simultaneously changing its role function to locative.

(15) Dongkar hitu tebol le anak hitu duha acu na (acun).

Instr-Stick that iv-hit by AG-child that on PNT-dog his
(That stick is hit by that child on his dog)

According to Saloni (as cited in Shibatani 1988), noun phrases marked instrumentally within passive clauses do not represent the underlying subjects but serve as semantic instruments, fulfilling the same instrumental function observed in active clauses. Consequently, a transformation into the passive voice is necessary to emphasize or bring into focus the instrumental role as a subject (Keenan, 2006: 360). Saloni contends that actors should be regarded as constructs with the potential for removal, as exemplified in clause 14, thereby rendering the formulation 'dongkar hitu tebol duha acu na' linguistically acceptable within the Manggarai language. This acceptability arises from the possessive marker 'na,' which pertains to an actor already familiar to the participants.

**Locative Voice**

Verbs like mai (come) in the clauses below always need the locative role. The locative in the active form is introduced by a preposition, as seen in clauses 16 and 17 below.

(16) Ata ho’o mai lambu one sekang diha.

AG-Person this iv-comes to LOC-house his
(This person comes to his house)

The preposition one in the Manggarai language is usually used to introduce the locative, and its position is always at the end of the active clause.

(17) Sekang diha mai lambu le ata (lata) ho’o.

LOC-House his iv-come/visit by AG-person this
(His house is visited by this person)

Like other Filipino-type languages, Manggarai also has a passive form, namely by placing the locative as the subject. When the locative role is transferred to the subject position, the preposition one is omitted, whereas the actor positioned in the object part is introduced by a preposition le. If looking at both active and passive forms, there is no change in the verb phrase in the Manggarai language.

**Discussions**

The change from active to passive by positioning the agent to a patient at the end of the clause is the most common thing in the Manggarai language. Passivating this semantic role in the Manggarai language is not marked by a change in the verb but rather by a difference in the agent (Arka et al. 2005; Mangga 2015). Verbs exhibiting distinct grammatical relations or voices within the Manggarai language are characterized by variations in the linear arrangement of their arguments, while their morphological forms remain consistent (Arka, 2008). Changing the focus from actor to patient adds the preposition le to the beginning of the pronoun.

However, adding the preposition le must follow the following rules. First, the preposition le can be directly attached to a pronoun such as the first-person singular 'I', the first plural 'we', the second singular 'you', the second plural 'you', the third singular 'he' and the third plural 'they'.

**le + pronouns**

- First singular = le + aku = laku
- First plural = le + hami = lami
The process of repositioning an agent to the end of a clause to function as a patient, as illustrated in examples (5) and (6), demonstrates a consistent pattern of change within the Manggarai language. Consequently, abbreviations such as this, where the preposition le remains attached to the pronoun it modifies, are deemed more linguistically acceptable than separating le from the associated pronoun.

Second, the first rule cannot be applied if the agent in the active voice is a proper name or object. In other words, the preposition le cannot be attached to people's names and nouns when they are passive by positioning the agent as a patient. In more detail, Mangga (2013) differentiates between the forms of prepositions that appear before pronouns and proper names. If the agent is a proper name, then the type of preposition is li + proper name. The preposition le is used when the pronoun is a proper name preceded by a consonant.

On the other hand, if the agent is a pronoun, then the preposition is l + pronoun (Mangga 2016, p. 61; Aritonang 2018, p. 62). However, whether li, le, or l still refers to passive markers. This present research, however, does not differentiate between the three variations of prepositions because, in the case of the Manggarai language of the Kempo dialect, when the preposition is attached to a pronoun, le is never mentioned separately, as in the examples presented in this research.

Moreover, transitioning from the active to the passive voice within the locative voice framework facilitates the transformation of the actor or person mentioned in clause (15) into the patient role. This is achieved by introducing 'le' at the beginning of the actor, adhering to the principles outlined in the first rule. Consequently, when the preposition le follows the word ata (person), it can be directly combined as le + ata (forming lata), as exemplified in instance (16). Thus, this also proves that there is a notable exception to the second rule above, where the preposition le can also be attached to a noun.

As presented earlier, clauses (5) and (6) can be streamlined into alternative clauses by modifying the agent. Initially positioned after the passive voice, where it assumes a backgrounded role, the agent can be relocated to the outset of the clause, thus foregrounding it and transforming it into the focal point of the sentence.

Le aku (laku) tebol-n acu hitu.
By me hit-PRN dog that
PREP+1Sg-AG + Verb+PRN + PNT+DP (The dog was hit by me)

In the clause above, the agent in the passive voice is the focus clause. Verbs also have the clitic -n added at the end, which functions as a pronoun referring to the third person singular pronoun (Aritonang 2018, p. 60). This kind of clitic can be compared to the pronoun -nya in Indonesian. The patient comes after the verb and returns to the final position, as in the case of active sentences.

The three primary semantic roles can also assume a passive voice construction, provided they retain the essential constituents of a clause: a verb and an agent. As previously discussed, verbs and agents constitute the core elements of both active and passive voices. In the passive voice structure, an agent consistently follows the verb, typically introduced by the preposition le (by). In contrast to the locative and instrumental roles in passive voice constructions, which entail relocating these components to the beginning of the clause, the benefactive role necessitates the inclusion of the preposition latang (for). This preposition is indispensable and cannot be omitted within the clause. Omitting the preposition will make the clause unacceptable, so a benefactive (someone who benefits) in the Manggarai language must be accompanied by a preposition latang (for).

CONCLUSION

By paying attention to the discussion above, it is clear that the Manggarai language is indeed a type of language with two voices. The form of a voice in question has the construction of active and passive forms, but it is not marked morphologically in the verb but rather the addition of a preposition to its semantic role. In other words, there is no change in the verb construction of active and passive clauses in the Manggarai language.
Several prepositional markers introduce their semantic role. It can be explained that in the Manggarai language, the prepositional marker le not only indicates a passive construction but also appears to introduce an instrumental semantic role in the active construction form, as seen in the example of clause 12 above. Furthermore, the preposition le can be attached to the pronoun phrase it follows to become a proclitic. This form is generally found in passive actor roles. The preposition latang introduces its prominent benefactive role in the active clause. The preposition one serves to introduce the locative role. The benefactive role cannot be focused on being subject to passive constructs.

Research on voice systems in the Manggarai language has yet to be available. There is an opportunity for further investigation into simplifying voice systems in Austronesian languages, which may have broader implications. Alterations in the voice systems of Austronesian languages appear to align with migration patterns. Specifically, the voice system in Austronesian languages tends to exhibit a greater degree of simplification when compared to Western Austronesian languages, exemplified by the Philippine-type languages.

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