STUDIES IN PHILIPPINE LINGUISTICS

Volume 7 Number 1 1988

Fe T. Otanes and Austin Hale, series eds.

Harland Kerr. "Cotabato Manobo grammar" 1–123





ISSN 0116-0516 ISBN 971-1059-11-8

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Sample Citation Format

Ma. Lourdes S. Bautista. 1977. "The noun phrase in Tagalog—English code switching". Studies in Philippine Linguistics 1:1, 1–16. Online. URL: http://www.sil.org/asia/philippines/book_store.html#culture [etc.] + access date.

COTABATO MANOBO GRAMMAR¹

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ABBREVIATIONS AND SYMBOLS

ADJ adjective CA causative DEM demonstrative DET determiner distributive DIST DRV derivative future, actor focus, basic FA future, actor focus, repetitive FAREP PO future, object focus, basic **FOREP** future, object focus, repetitive future, referent focus, basic FR involuntary, future, actor focus IFA involuntary, future, instrument focus IFI involuntary, future, object focus IFO involuntary, future, referent focus IFR IMP imperative involuntary, neutral, actor focus INA involuntary, neutral, instrument focus INI involuntary, neutral, object focus INO involuntary, neutral, referent focus INR involuntary, past, actor focus IPA involuntary, past, instrument focus IPI involuntary, past, object focus IPO involuntary, past, referent focus **IPR** ligature LIG locative particle LOC neutral, actor focus, basic NA NEG negative neutral, instrument focus, basic NI neutral, object focus, basic NO neutral, object focus, repetitive NOREP neutral, referent focus, basic NR neutral, reciprocal NREC neutral, referent focus, repetitive NRREP OF object focus (suffix) past, actor focus, basic PA past, instrument focus, basic PΙ PO past, object focus, basic POREP past, object focus, repetitive past, referent focus, basic PR past, reciprocal PREC PRT particle RC reciprocal affix referent focus (suffix) RF RP reason particle SRC search for morpheme break impermissible construction ** subject is zero third person singular discontinuous morpheme (in gloss lines only)

0. Introduction

In presenting the grammar of Cotabato Manobo, priority is given to the statement of syntactic relationships. This approach is more or less inevitable in a language with so little inflection of verb or noun expressions. It is adopted in part as a reflection of the theory that meaningful utterances (other than those which are syntactically single units) comprise minimum syntactic units, immediate constituents, which enter into binary relationships with other immediate constituents to form constitutes. (A constitute is a combination of two immediate constituents.) An expanded utterance is compounded of layers of immediate constituents added unit by unit each to the most lateral of the central constituents which it presupposes. It is assumed that the relationship uniting the immediate constituents of any given constitute is a primary feature of language. Such relationships are defined as functions. The immediate constituents so united are defined as functives.

This theory has received its greatest impetus from the writings of Hjelmslev, more particularly his <u>Prolegomena</u> to a <u>Theory of Language</u> (1953). He distinguishes three principal relations: a subordinating relation in which a lateral immediate constituent is dependently related to a central immediate constituent which it presupposes; a coordinating relation in which two immediate constituents of equal status are independently related to each other; and a predicating relation in which two immediate constituents of equal status are interdependently related, each presupposing the other. (See also Pittman 1954.)

The various relations postulated by Hjelmslev are indicated formally as:

```
dependence ---> (going from the lateral to the central item) independence <--- ---> interdependence ---> <---
```

Of these relations that of predication is the most basic, establishing a constitute that is the building block for further expansion either by subordination or coordination. In most utterances the primary division must be made between two most central immediate constituents interdependently related to each other. One of these is the subject, the other the predicate. There is reason to believe that the opposition of subject and predicate is a universal of language.

It is well to remember that speech consists of a series of propositions. There must be something to talk about and something must be said about this subject of discourse once it is selected. This distinction is of such fundamental importance that the vast majority of languages have emphasized it by creating some sort of formal barrier between the two terms of the proposition. [Sapir 1921:119]

Utterances which are no more than a single formal syntactic unit may be subject to the same system of analysis. They do not invalidate the theory that a meaningful utterance is ultimately based on a relationship of interdependence. Even a minimum utterance must by intonation or some other

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feature indicate its relationship to something already said or to be said. Unless it is so related it can have no meaning. Such an utterance may contract interdependent, but more probably it contracts dependent relationship with the other utterance. The formal unit and its intonation contour may, however, comprise a self-contained constitute, for example, exclamations and commands.

The word and the units within the word have meaning only as they function in the context of the various relations operating within the utterance. Priority is therefore given to the analysis of the syntactic relations, and the morphology of the words is dealt with within this analysis.

In terms of relations there are two main groups of words: words which must have meaning and are members of a major distribution class (part of speech), and words which may or may not have meaning but indicate the relationships of words of the other group. The first group contracts function; the second group carries the function. Function may be indicated, however, by position only. Overt forms that indicate function will be referred to as valence-carrying morphs if they have no meaning. Those with meaning will be referred to as valence-carrying morphemes. A morph or morpheme may, however, be part of the word, belonging to a major distribution list.

Bloomfield's analysis of Ilocano (1942) is one of the earliest analyses of a Philippine dialect, and it is a basic reference. I have used his terminology in this analysis since it seems to be as valid for Cotabato Manobo as for Ilocano. For Ilocano, Bloomfield postulated a primary syntactic division according to function in open expressions and object expressions. Words are divided into three main classes: pronouns, which are always object expressions; full words, which by themselves are open but can be objectified by certain proclitic particles; and particles (which are open and can never be objectified).

Bloomfield's recognition of open and object expressions is particularly valuable. It parallels the division of English expressions into verbs and substantives respectively. Open expressions in Cotabato Manobo may also be words that function as descriptive lateral items, corresponding to English adjectives and adverbs.

In Cotabato Manobo there need be no subdivision of types of open expressions, more so since expressions which function as simple descriptives of nouns do not function as simple descriptives of verbs (adverbs) but rather become the nuclear verb of an utterance in which a nondescriptive open expression (true verb in English) is a lateral item. But since there are expressions that function as noun descriptives of object expressions, and since there are also expressions that function as descriptives of open expressions (time and location indicators), descriptive class words will be recognised within open expressions in my analysis.

An open expression, word or phrase, may be objectified by objectifying particles. The objectifying expressions in Cotabato Manobo are referred to as particles, though only one unit of the expression is strictly a particle. This unit, \underline{si} , elides with the following unit, which may by itself be an object expression, or may function with \underline{si} as an object expression. \underline{si} by itself may never be objectified.

Pike's (1958) "slot" concept is employed, referring to "same function." Words or groups of words are said to fill meaningful function slots in the sentence.

The various constitutes, as well as variations of each constitute and other features of the language, will be introduced as far as possible according to the principle laid down by Pittman (1954). The most basic and presupposed constitutes will be dealt with first, leading on to the least presupposed constructions in the language.

1. Sentence-forming verbal constructions

There are two basic sentence-forming patterns in Cotabato Manobo. the first, referred to as verbal constructions, one of the nuclear immediate constituents (ICs) is an open expression (verb). In the second, referred to as equational constructions (sec. 2), neither of the two central immediate constituents is an open expression; both are objectified expressions, i.e., substantives.

Verbal constructions include two major types: active verbal constructions (sec. 1.1) and stative verbal constructions (sec. 1.2). are differentiated by the affixes associated with the nuclear expression. Other types, less important, are described in sections 1.3-8.

1.1 Active verbal constructions

When active verbal constructions are reduced to their most elements, two nuclear immediate constituents are identifiable. One is an objectified expression, referred to as the subject. The other is an open expression, referred to as the active verb. These two constituents enter into an interdependent sentence-forming relationship.

There is, however, a strong pressure to add a lateral item to this central constitute. The members substituting in this lateral slot are always particles such as dé, pelà, etc.

```
mipanaw a<sup>2</sup> dé 'I will go/I'll move off.'
lumikù a dé 'I'll be going home now.'
kumaen ki pelà 'We'll eat now/Let's eat.'
```

Subclasses of active verbal constructions may be distinguished on the basis of the affixes associated with the open expression. They are designated as actor-subject constructions, non-actor-subject constructions, -en goal-subject constructions, -an constructions, and constructions with <u>i</u>-.

1.1.1 Actor-subject constructions (<-um> constructions)

The actor-subject affixes are:

'future/desire/mild imperative (with first-person plural)', -uminfixed before the first vowel of the root

'present continuous' 3 eg∽

'definite past' mig-

Examples:

l=um=ikù <u>a</u> dé go.home=FA=___ I PRT 'I am going home.'

eg=ipanawpanaw a NA=walk.about I

'I am just walking about.

m=ael <u>a</u> owong FA=make I canoe 'I am making a canoe.'

agulé, d=um=ineg then <u>hear</u>=FA=___

<u>sa kelupenit</u> DET small.bat 'Then the small bat listened.'

agulé, eg=likù dé <u>kelupenit</u> then NA=go home PRT small.bat

'Then the small bat went home.'

t=um=enà ma dé sunggud <u>sa</u> lay.down=FA= also PRT bride.price DET

'The father of Dulangan laid down the bride price.'

i Dulangan father DET Dulangan

'Then the young brother slept.'

l=um=agbet da <u>pana=en</u> <u>da ubal</u> 'They looked for <u>look.for=FA=</u> they shoot=FO they monkeys monkeys to shoot.'

d=um=agpak dé <u>sa busaw</u> <u>arrive=FA= PRT DET evil.spirit</u>

'The evil spirit arrived.'

endà dé g=um=emow <u>ké</u> dini not PRT <u>come.up</u>=FA= we here

'We will not come up here (into this house).'

k=um=uwa <u>a</u> tamuk, lima <u>get</u>=FA= <u>I</u> trade.items five

'I will get five trade items.'

amuk endà si emà eg=haa kenaken if not DET father NA=see me

'If father had not seen me (I would have died).'

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Many of these examples are intransitive. This seems to be typical of the actor-subject construction, which does not require an object, in contrast with the non-actor-subject construction. The subject in all cases is the actor.

1.1.2 Non-actor-subject constructions

The non-actor-subject affixes are:

In <-en> Constructions

```
    -en 'future/desire'
    eg- -en 'present continuous'
    -in- 'definite past', infixed before first vowel of the root
```

In <-an> Constructions

```
-an 'future/desire'
eg- -en 'present continuous'
-in- -an 'definite past'
```

In <i-> Constructions

<u>i-</u> 'present/future' ig- 'definite past'

The difference between the members within each of the three preceding sets seems to be more one of aspect than time. The last member of each set clearly indicates a completed action. The other members, while they may be used of an action occurring in the past, refer to a continuing action, contemporaneous with other actions in the same context. The completive affixes, however, are used only of actions that have already occurred; they never refer to a future complete action.

The affixes $-\underline{an}$ and $-\underline{en}$ may occur with or without \underline{eg} . As far as can be determined, the omission of the prefix does not alter the construction, though there are indications that \underline{eg} — may not occur in certain constructions with $-\underline{an}$.

These sets of affixes are referred to as active verbal affixes, but their usage with stative constructions is not excluded.

The construction may be transitive with a second substantive referred to as the object (in line with the terminology of previous investigators of Philippine dialects). This substantive always follows the verb expression. If it is a noun, the objectifying <an> particle is optional. If it is a pronoun, it belongs to pronoun series 4.

Should both subject and object be nouns and both follow the verb, the object must precede the subject. Both subject and object may be pronouns.

Example:

humaa a keniko look I you

'I want to watch you (ride bareback).'

Few examples have been recorded in which the subject is a noun or person and the object a series 4 pronoun. Where these two items are present in the same clause or sentence, the construction is usually equational. The following is not permitted:4

*mighaa kenagdi si Milug DET Milug see him

'Milug saw him.'

The concept may, however, be expressed as follows:

<u>si Milug</u> mighaa ya kenagdi DET Milug see DET him

'Milug is the one who saw him.'

Objectifying Particles (<sa> Particles)

With few exceptions an objectifying particle, usually class < sa>, must mark a subject following the verb if the subject is a noun or person. pre-verb position the objectifier is usually omitted, probably because this position is reserved for subject substantives.

If the subject is a pronoun, it belongs to abbreviated series 1. Members of this class are clitic to the verb and follow it immediately, taking precedence over any other class of verb postclitic.

- 1. si, personal marker, precedes personal names and occasionally series 3 pronouns.
- \underline{si} \underline{iya} > \underline{siya} > \underline{aya} > \underline{sa} 'the'. These last three forms seem to be derived from the full form si iya; sa is used most commonly and seems to have no distance connotation.
- 3. si ini > sini 'this' indicates something very close to the speaker.
- \underline{si} \underline{edo} > \underline{sido} 'that' indicates something at a distance from the speaker or actor.
- sak 'that thing'. The exact function of this particle is not known. It is occasionally used with one of the other particles as its head word, for example, <u>sak</u> <u>siya</u> 'that thing', or at times substitutes for the usual objectifiers.

<dé> Particles

A member of the postclitic class de usually follows the verb and the series 1 pronoun. The combination of the verb and both or one of these postclitics is referred to as a verb expression. Class <dé> particles are

<u>dé</u>, <u>pa</u>, and <u>pelà</u> (sometimes expanded to <u>pelawà</u>). These items are mutually exclusive in their distribution.

No particular meaning can be assigned to the various members of this class. Their principal function seems to be the closing off of the verb expression. They may convey a more specific time factor than that conveyed by the verbal affixes, but only a much more thorough knowledge of the language can clear up this point.

Members of this particle class occur much more frequently in actor-subject constructions than they do in non-actor-subject active constructions and stative constructions.

Pronouns

The monosyllabic series 1 pronouns (as well as series 2 pronouns) never stand alone but always follow an open expression or substantive. They are essentially clitics, though they take primary stress in the sentence (see "Intonation" in the Appendix), and so they are written as separate words.

SERIES 1 ABBREVIATED PRONOUNS <a>

	Singular	Plural
1st person	<u>a</u>	<u>ké</u> (excl); <u>ki</u> (incl)
2nd person	<u>ka</u>	<u>yu</u>
3rd person	Ø (positive)	<u>da</u>
	<u>di</u> (negative))

SERIES 4 PRONOUNS <kenaken>

•	Singular	Plural
1st person	<u>kenaken</u>	<u>kenami</u> (excl); <u>kenita</u> (incl)
2nd person	keniko	<u>keniyu</u>
3rd person	kenagdi	kenagda

1.1.3 Goal-subject constructions (<-en> constructions)

hau=wen	di	88	utan	'She saw the u	utan
see=F0	she	DET	utan	(plant).'	

agulé d=in=alem i Kenogon sa biahan <u>sa</u> 'Then the young girl then <u>put=PO=</u> DET maiden DET basket DET put the shoot in the basket.'

tugbung shoot

agulé pana=en di <u>sa ubal</u> then shoot=FO he DET monkey 'Then he shot the monkey.'

bangun=en sa kakay <u>sa hadi</u> raise.up=FO DET old.bro DET young.bro his

'The elder brother raised his younger brother up.'

that DEM honest person marry=PO= he

'The honest person. he married the good one.

<u>siya wé me=pion etaw</u> that DEM ADJ=good person

dineg=en di <u>sa kagi</u> <u>babuy</u> hear=FO he DET voice pig

'He heard the sound of the pig.'

k=in=uwa di ma <u>sa belagen</u> get=P0= he also DET rattan k=in=uwa di ma

'He also got the rattan.'

In the foregoing examples, as with most goal-subject constructions, there are two principal substantives. The principal nuclear substantive, with which the verb enters into the primary interdependent sentence-forming relationship, is identified as the subject. The secondary substantive is referred to, in line with Bloomfield's terminology, as the agent. If the agent is a pronoun, it must be a member of the series 2 $\langle \underline{ku} \rangle$ class. This series and series 1 prounouns are mutually exclusive in their distribution and substitute in the same slot immediately following the verb.

SERIES 2 PRONOUNS <ku>

	Singular	Plural
1st person	<u>ku</u>	ké (excl); ta (incl)
2nd person	ko	yu
3rd person	<u>di</u>	da

First-person exclusive and second- and third-person plural pronouns are the same in series 1 and 2.

If the subject and agent are both nouns or persons, the agent immediately follows the verb expression. A person agent further indicates its function by the preposed particle.

A $\langle \underline{sa} \rangle$ objectifying particle is optional with agent nouns.

If both subject and agent are pronouns, the subject pronoun is a series 3 form (of the series 3 <aken> pronouns). Example:

> endà eg=hau=wen ku duu <u>kagdi</u> not NO=see=OF I NP him

'I cannot see him.'

SERIES 3 PRONOUNS <aken>

	Singular	Plural
1st person	<u>aken</u>	<u>kami</u> (excl); <u>kita</u> (incl)
2nd person	<u>kuna</u>	<u>kiyu</u>
3rd person	kagdi	kagda

If the agent is other than a pronoun, the subject pronoun reduces to the abbreviated series 1 < a > form, taking a position immediately following the verb. The agent noun or person follows with or without a < sa > objectifying particle.

in=uwit <u>a</u> mangan etaw PO=bring I spirit 'I have been brought (here) by an evil spirit.'

eg=hemued=en <u>ké</u> kilat, ka NO=bite=OF we lightning as 'We would be struck by lightning (for such an act) since they are our relatives.'

duma ta relatives our

egke=laep <u>ké</u> sa emà i Sida INO=disturb we DET father DET Sida 'We were disturbed by Sida's Father's singing.'

eg=duyuy NA=sing

Nouns and pronouns, subjects and agents, behave the same in all future constructions.

1.1.3.1 Actor-subject constructions

The two substantives in an actor-subject construction have been defined as the actor and object respectively in line with Bloomfield's terminology. In goal-subject constructions the two substantives have been referred to as agent and goal respectively. Many roots may enter into both constructions, the difference being structural rather than semantic. The one construction seems to be the reverse phase of the other, the actor of the former corresponding to the agent of the latter and the object of the former corresponding to the goal of the latter.

t=um=ulù <u>a</u> keniko <u>teach</u>=FA= I you

'I (actor) will teach you (object).'

eg=tulu=en ku <u>kuna</u> NO=teach=OF I you 'I (agent) will teach you (goal).'

There are numerous roots which enter readily into goal-subject constructions but are never or only very rarely found in transitive actor-subject constructions. These roots in actor-subject constructions are primarily intransitive.

It would seem to follow from this that actor-subject constructions are primarily concerned with establishing an active relationship between an actor and the action. If the action carries over to an object this is only of secondary significance. Should the object be an integral part of the concept, the goal-subject construction is preferably used. This is clearly illustrated by the following extract from the story "The First Man":

agulé h=um=aa <u>sa kakay;</u> hau=wen⁵ di then <u>see</u>=FA= <u>DET old.bro see=FO</u> he

'Then the older brother looked around. 'He saw a monkey.'

sa ubal DET monkey

agulé pana=en di <u>sa ubal;</u> agulé then shoot=FO he DET monkey then

'Then he shot the monkey. It fell stone dead.'

me=nabù dé <u>sa ubal</u> netebà stone.dead IFO=fall PRT DET monkey

sa hadi; pana-en 'Then the young agulé m=anà⁶ ma then FO-shoot again DET young.bro shot-FO brother shot with his

bow. He shot a female monkey.'

di sak kusapeng he DET female.monkey

The following are examples of expanded actor-subject constructions. Not all roots are intransitive in such constructions; there are numerous examples of transitive actor-subject constructions. A few might be termed bitransitive actor-subject constructions. The roots hated and sugu and a few others have been found in bitransitive sentences. (kayu must precede kenita in such constructions.)

> h=um=ated a saging Kaut ta take=FA=__ I bananas Kaut DET

'I will take some bananas to Kaut.'

eg=sugù <u>a</u> kayu keniko NA=order I wood you

'I will send you to get wood.'

saging and kayu may be regarded as objects. Keniko and Kaut may be classed as third parties.

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1.1.3.2 Expanded goal-subject constructions

The following are examples of expanded goal-subject constructions:

p=in=enù ku wayeg <u>sa latà</u> 'I filled the tin <u>fill</u>=PO=____ I water DET tin with water.'

eg=hagtay=en ku museng sa emal 'I keep the loris NO=live=OF I charcoal DET loris alive with charcoal.'

<u>si</u> <u>Deké</u> b=in=albal di timbak 'Deké was struck by DET <u>Deké strike=PO=</u> he rifle him with a rifle.'

The second substantive in these sentences seems to be an additional or supplementary agent.

It is usually not possible to express the foregoing concepts in actor-subject form. With at least one of the roots, <a href="https://hattay.com

*eghagtayan museng sa emal 'The loris is kept live charcoal loris alive with charcoal.'

The extra substantive in these constructions will be referred to as a supplementary agent.

1.1.4 -an constructions

The suffix $\{-\underline{an}\}$ comprises three alloworphs: $-\underline{an}$, $-\underline{en}$, and $-\underline{on}$. $-\underline{en}$ and $-\underline{on}$ are suffixed to roots in which the vowel of the final syllable is \underline{e} and \underline{o} respectively. $-\underline{an}$ occurs elsewhere.

<u>si</u> <u>Fled</u> eg=tulon=on i Megumpis 'Fred was informed DET Fred NR=inform=RF DET Megumpis (of the thing) by Megumpis.'

In -an constructions a distinction must be made between roots that combine with the goal-subject affixes <-en> and those that do not. Within the latter group a further distinction must be made between roots that combine with the affix set $<\underline{1}->$ and those that do not (see Kerr 1965).

The central sentence structure of each of the above subgroups parallels goal-subject. There is a subject and there is an agent taking the same positions and marked by the same objectifying particles as the equivalent substantives of the goal-subject constructions. In general, however, the semantic relationship between the subject and verb is not the same.

Group 1 roots, which combine with -en

eg=dalem=an ku palay sa <u>latà</u> NR=put=RF I rice DET can

'I'll put the rice in the can.'

di babuy sa apuy d=in=alem=an <u>sa apuy</u> DET fire put=PR=__=RF he pig

'He placed the pig in the fire.

**endà pa in=inem=an ko duu not yet PR=drink=RF you NEG 'You have not yet drunk from it.

With the majority of group 1 roots the subject is unambiguously location. A goal is usually explicit or implied. There are three central substantives: a third party (a location or sometimes a person), a goal, and an agent. Such constructions may be regarded as third-party constructions, the subject filling the role of the third party.

With some roots, however, location may be indicated by the affix -an, but no goal need be implied.

> eg=kagbul=en di <u>sa</u> <u>walingwaling</u> NO=climb=OF he DET orchid

'He climbs for the orchid.'

In the preceding example the goal is the object, or the motive, for his climbing. In the following example there is no motive for climbing; no goal is implied. Such constructions are simple two-party location-subject.

> eg=kagbul=an di <u>aken</u>, sa miyong NR=climb=RF he me DET cat

'The cat. he climbs up onto me.'

With other roots the subject item seems to be more a goal than location, for example:

> eg=temeg=en ku sa kayu NO=burn=OF I DET wood

'I'll burn the wood.'

eg=temeg=an ku sa apuy NR=light=RF I DET fire 'I'll light the fire.'

In this second example fire is the subject, but it scarcely seems to indicate location. Nor can it be said to be a goal in view of the preceding sentence, unless it is assumed that the meaning of the root is altered by the affix -an.

The root daig 'to burn' seems to pattern the same way:

eg=daig=en ku si Bunged NO=burn=OF I DET Bunged

'I'll burn Bunged (with a coal).'

eg=daig=en di <u>sa kuden tanà</u> magtu pelà 'She'll bake the NO=burn=OF she DET pot earth new still newly made earthenware pot.'

b=in=ael=an make=PR=___*RF

Again the subject of the second sentence can scarcely be a location, nor can it be a goal, unless the meaning of the root is altered by the addition of -an.

The root temeg may, however, be used in an unambiguously third-party location-subject construction:

eg=temeg=an ku apuy sa pesu tued, ani 'I'll set a fire in NR=burn=RF I fire DET base stump so.that the stump to kill it.'

egke=matay INO=die

Group 2 roots, which do not combine with <-en> or <i->

With group 2 roots, <-an> substitutes for <-en> indicating a simple goal-subject in a two-party construction. The subject is usually a person.

angat=an ku pa <u>kuna</u> wait=FR I still you 'I'll wait for you.

'They are helping me.'

eg=bulig=an da <u>aken</u> NR=angry=RF they me

'I was angry with

them.'

b=in=ulit=an ku <u>kagda</u> angry=PR= =RF I them

'Puppy is watching you intently.'

si Papi, eg=unung=unung=an di <u>kuna</u> DET Puppy NR=watch=watch=RF he you

'I'll tell them a folktale.'

eg=telaki=yan ku <u>kagda</u> NR=folk.tale=RF I them

'They speak Moro to us.'

eg=lenawen=an da <u>kita</u> NR=Moro=RF they us

An inanimate subject is indicated with the root bael 'to make/build':

eg=bael=an ké <u>sa</u> <u>dalesan</u> NR=make=RF we DET house 'We are building a house.'

This same root with -an, unlike the other roots, may indicate an instrument-subject (see sec. 1.1.5.3).

kopoh, ngingi b=in=ael=an di dalesan spider saliva build=PR=__=RF it house

'The spider, it builds a house with saliva.'

A group of roots indicating direct address enter into similar goalsubject constructions with <-an> though some of them also combine with <-en> to indicate another form of goal-subject. With -an the subject is a person, the addressee. The tendency of <-an> to indicate location is indicated in the associated question or command.

> eg=igsa=an ku <u>sa etaw;</u> miling <u>si Kaldon</u> 'I ask a person, like NR=ask=RF I DET person like DET Kardon Kardon, if he is going anywhere.'

eg=igsa=an ku amuk duen eg=angay=an NR=ask=RF I if there.is NR=go=RF

di in=ikagi=yan ku sa etaw, kedu=wan ko 'I asked the man, he PR=ask=RF I DET person from=FR you "Where have you come from?"'

ya eg=sugu=an ku <u>sidò etaw</u> ani PRT NR=order=RF I that person so.that

'I tell the person to come here.'

eg=angay dini NA=go here

Group 3 Roots, Which Combine with <i-> But Not with <-en>

A subdivision must be made within group 3 roots according to the function of the affix set <i-> with the particular root.

To the first subdivision belong the roots hated, tugkes, begay, and others. When these roots enter into combination with $\langle \underline{i} - \rangle$, the subject is the goal of the sentence. $\langle \underline{i} \rangle$ evidently substitutes for the affix set <-en>, with which these roots do not combine.

> ig=begay ku si Atudan, there.is also PI=give I DET Atudan, Atudan was a T-shirt.' duen ma

'The thing I gave

kamasita T-shirt

<u>sini</u> <u>saging</u> i=hated ku si Kaut these banana NI=take I DET Kaut

'I'll take these bananas to Kaut.' i=tagkes ku sa kudà NI=tether I DET horse 'I'll tether the horse."

These and similar roots with $\langle \underline{i} - \rangle$ indicate a third-party goal-subject construction in which a definite third party is implied even though it may not be explicitly indicated. The subject is a nonperson.

When these roots combine with -an, the third party becomes the subject (a location or recipient, etc.).

begay=an ku <u>si</u> <u>Atudan</u> sempek give=FR I DET Atudan shorts

'I'll give Atudan a pair of shorts.'

eg=hated=an ku saging <u>si</u> <u>Kaut</u> NR=take=RF I banana DET Kaut

'I'll take the bananas to Kaut.'

<u>sidò</u> <u>tued</u> eg=tagkes=an ku kudà 'I'll tie the horse that stump NR=tie=RF I horse to that stump.'

should be noted, however, that tagkes may enter into a totally different -an construction:

> eg=tagkes=an ku <u>sa</u> <u>palay</u> NR=tie=RF I DET rice

'I bind the rice.'

The exact translation is not certain but concerns the binding of rice at harvest. The affix -an substitutes for the affix set <-en> to produce a simple goal-subject construction implying no third party.

To the second subdivision of group 3 roots belongs the root bayad 'to pay for goods'. This root does not enter into simple goal-subject constructions with the affix $<\underline{\mathbf{1}}->$. With $-\underline{\mathbf{a}}\underline{\mathbf{n}}$ it commonly enters into third-party goal-subject constructions in which the recipient of the payment may or may not be indicated.

> bayad=an ku <u>sa</u> <u>utang ku</u> diyà keniko 'I'll pay up my debt pay=FR I DET debt my to you

to you.'

NR=pay=RF I DET chick to DET Mundi his chick.'

eg=bayad=an ku kuna NR=pay=RF I you

'I'll pay you.'

1.1.4.1 Benefaction

Most roots, irrespective of the particular group to which they belong, enter into beneficiary-subject -an constructions. In these the agent performs an action for the benefit of another party, usually a person, sometimes an animal.

> eg=tueges=an ku kuna uton NR=catch=RF I you fish

'I'll catch fish for you.'

eg=tudak=an da kami katilà NR=plant=RF they us swt.potato

'They'll plant the sweet potato for us.'

kuwa=an ku tamuk emà ku diyà get=FR I item father my from

'I'll get trade items for my father from you.'

keniko you

eg=edup=an di kuna wayeg NR=heat=RF he you water

'He'll heat the water for you.'

eg=sulu=an ku kuna NR=light=RF I you

'I'll light the way for you.'

eg=lagbet=an ku me=pion kaenen di <u>sa</u> NR=look=RF I ADJ=good food his

'I am looking for good food for the horse.'

kudà horse

With some roots a beneficiary may not occur except as the subject of an -an construction.

> eg=tudak=an ku kuna katilà divà sa NR=plant=RF I you swt.potato in DET

'I'll plant sweet potato for you in my patch.'

pelusak ku patch my

eg=tudak=an ku diyà keniko sa pelusak NR=plant=RF I for you DET patch

'I'll plant the sweet potato patch for vou.'

t=um=udak <u>a</u> katilà diyà keniko plant=FA= I swt.potato to you 'I'll plant sweet potato for you.' (I'll plant sweet potato on your land.)

The language assistant clearly distinguished betwen the three preceding sentences. In the first the sweet potato will be planted by ego on his own land and then given to the second party. (Ego owns the land and the sweet potato.) This is true benefaction. In the last two sentences the sweet potato will be planted by ego on the land of the second party. (Ego merely works for the second party.)

The same distinction is made with the root tayagpes:

Eg=tayagpes=an ku <u>kuna</u> pelusak. Amuk NR=clear=RF I you patch when

me=ubus <u>a</u> eg=tayagpes i=begay ku dé IFO=finish I NA=clear NI=give I PRT

'I will clear the land for a sweet potato patch. When I have finished I will give it to you.'

diyà keniko. to you

Example of benefaction:

eg=angat=an ku pelà <u>kuna</u> posot NR=wait=RF I still you betel.nut 'I'll wait and get the betel nut for you.'

Example of nonbenefaction:

eg=angat=angat <u>a</u> posot diyà keniko NA=wait=wait I betel.nut for you 'I'll wait for you to come back with the betel nut.'

1.1.4.2 $-\underline{an}$ conditioned by a question

An -an construction is also used, not so much to indicate location, recipient, or benefaction, but rather as a reply to the question keduwan ini. This phrase is often used without any reference to location though most commonly it is used as a location question 'Where did such and such or so and so come from?' Sometimes it is better translated as 'How did you come by such and such?'

Question: keduwan ini uton 'Where did these fish come from?' from this fish (How did you come by these fish?)

Reply: sini uton t=in=ueges=an i Umpit 'These fish were caught by this fish catch=PR= =RF DET Umpit Umpit.'

'I'll plant sweet

1.1.4.3 Actor-subject and -an constructions

Most -an constructions can be recast in actor-subject form without any marked change in the meaning of the sentence.

> eg=tudak=an ku katilà <u>sa pelusak ku</u>
> NR=plant=RF I swt.potato DET patch my potato in my patch.' aken, t=um=udak <u>a</u> pelusak ku I <u>plant=FA=__I patch my</u> 'As for me, I'll plant (sweet potato) in my patch.' b=in=egay=an ku sempek <u>si</u> <u>Atudan</u> 'I gave Atudan a pair <u>give</u>=PR= _=RF I shorts DET Atudan of shorts.' m=egay <u>a</u> kawal si Atudan 'I will give Atudan a FA=give I shirt DET Atudan shirt.'

'I'll pay Gebug money (if he works for me).' eg=sukay=an ku kulta <u>si</u> <u>Gebug</u> NR=pay=RF I money DET Gebug

'I will pay Gebug s=um=ukay <u>a</u> kulta si Gebug pay=FA= I money DET Gebug money.'

The subject of an -an construction (when it is a location or third-party person) if displaced to a nonsubject slot in actor-subject constructions may optionally be preceded by diyà.

> t=um=udak <u>a</u> diyà sa pelusak ku plant=FA= I at DET patch my 'I'll plant in my sweet potato patch.' m=egay <u>a</u> kawal diyà si Atudan FA=give I shirt to DET Atudan 'I'll give Atudan a

shirt.'

1.1.5 Constructions with <i->

There are three subgroups of i- constructions. (One has already been mentioned in connection with group 3 roots in sec. 1.1.4.).

$1.1.5.1 < \underline{i} >$ indicating goal-subject

The following are examples in context of a large group of roots which do not combine with the affix set $-\underline{en}$, but indicate goal-subject by the affix set \underline{i} -:

i=tudak ku <u>sa</u> <u>katilà</u> NI=plant I DET swt.potato 'I'll plant the sweet potato.'

i=begay ku <u>sa</u> <u>kawal</u> diya keniko NI=give I DET shirt to you 'I'll give you a shirt.'

**i=tagù ku dutu NI=put I there 'I'll put it there.'

dawat ig=tenà ku pen PI=down I 'I put the pen down.'

**agulé ig=hated i kawas dutu kenà di then PI=took swallow to place his 'Then the swallow took her to his house.'

ig=sanggat di <u>sa solok</u> PI=hang he DET basket 'He hung up the basket.'

i=taan di <u>sa</u> <u>bagting</u> NI=push.in he DET arrows 'He shoved the arrow (into the ground).'

 'I'll hide the money.

kalinguwan i=tagkes diya kayu kalinguwan NI=tie to wood 'The <u>kalinguwan</u> will be tied on to wood.'

ig=tukid ku keniyu <u>sa bunga't</u> <u>kayu</u> 'I shared the fruit PI=distribute I you DET fruit=LIG tree among you all.'

These sentences are not simple goal-subject constructions. A third party (a location or recipient, etc.) is usually implied or explicit. They may best be defined as third-party goal-subject constructions. The subject is generally inanimate or nonperson.

tudak 'to plant sweet potato in the ground' begay 'to give something to someone'

tagu 'to place something in something'
tenà 'to lay something down on the ground'
hated 'to take something to someone'
sanggat 'to hang something on something'
taan 'to shove something into something'
lidung 'to hide something from someone'
tagkes 'to tie something to something'
tukid 'to give something to everyone'

1.1.5.2 <i-> indicating person subject; <en-> indicating inanimate subject

One group of roots combine with both $\langle \underline{en} - \rangle$ and $\langle \underline{i} - \rangle$ to indicate goal-subject. In the four examples found to date the subject of the $\langle \underline{i} - \rangle$ constructions is inanimate, and the subject of the $\langle -\underline{en} \rangle$ constructions is a person. This may not be significant, though in the absence of anything indicating the contrary there is good reason to regard it as significant. The case for such division of function of the affixes is further supported by the use of $\langle \underline{i} - \rangle$ to indicate an instrument-subject (see sec. 1.1.5.3), which must always be inanimate. Further confirmation is found in the $\langle \underline{pe} - \rangle$ active constructions to be dealt with later (sec. 1.4) where \underline{i} indicates inanimate subject and $\underline{-en}$ most commonly animate, though it may also indicate inanimate subject.

It should be noted that the subject of the verb constructions dealt with in the section on "group 3 roots which combine with $\langle \underline{\mathbf{i}} - \rangle$ but not $\langle -\underline{\mathbf{en}} \rangle$)" (1.1.4) are usually inanimate or not a person. This is true of the great majority of roots in this class though a few may indicate a person subject. If, as seems to be the case with roots of this group, $\langle \underline{\mathbf{i}} - \rangle$ is substituting for $\langle -\underline{\mathbf{en}} \rangle$, it is to be expected that it would behave like $\langle -\underline{\mathbf{en}} \rangle$ in indicating both person and inanimate subject. The fact, however, that most of the subjects are inanimate even with these roots stresses the bias of $\langle \underline{\mathbf{i}} - \rangle$ towards inanimate subject.

'He threw a stone at me.' (He hit me.)

agulé ig=buung i kenogon <u>sa bukay beleg</u> then PI=throw DET maiden DET white eel

'Then the maiden threw the white eel away.'

umow=en da <u>kuna</u> call=F0 they you 'They are calling you (to come, etc.).'

ngadan <u>iya</u> <u>ig=umow ko</u> what that PI=call you 'What thing did you call for?'

<u>sa saging</u> ig=sugù ku si Atudan DET bananas PI=order I DET Atudan 'I ordered Atudan to get bananas.'

si Atudan s=in=ugù DET Atudan order=PO=___ they

'They ordered Atudan (to get bananas).

aken, endà duen <u>lenawen</u> ig≔tulù ku not there is Moro PI=teach I 'As for me, I did not teach (you) any Moro dialect.'

eg=tulu=en di kita NO=teach=OF she us

'She is teaching us.'

1.1.5.3 <i-> indicating instrument-subject

i- combines with many roots to indicate an instrument in subject slot.

sini pinsil i=sulat ku this pencil NI=write I

'I'll write with this pencil.'

sini manuk i=bayad ku sak in=utang ku diyà 'I'll pay my this fowl NI=pay I the PO=debt my to

indebtedness to you with a fowl.'

keniko you

<u>sa kesalaan i Kaldon i=tigtu di 'Kaldon will placa</u> DET fine DET Kaldon NI=put.right he Mama by his fine.'

'Kaldon will placate

si Mama DET Mama

sidò kayu, p=in=e=tigdeg, ig=kuwa babuy that wood PO=CA= __stand PI=get pigs

'That length of wood, erected (over there), was set up to catch pigs.'

sini kulta i=sukay ku amuk duen this money NI=pay I if there.is

'I'll give this money for payment if someone will work for me.'

eg=galebek diyà kenak NA=work for me

ngadan <u>iya</u> <u>i≖sulù</u> what that NI=light you 'What will you use to spotlight (the deer)?'

i=hiyup apuy <u>sa</u> <u>lebuk</u> NI=blow fire DET bamboo

'I use a bamboo cylinder to blow the fire.'

k=in=uwa di ma <u>sa belagen;</u> segulé get=PO=___ he again DET rattan once

'Once more he got rattan; he split it only once.'

daa t=in=epi only split=PO=___

**i=polot di sa lungun busaw NI=tie he DET coffin spirit.being

'He tied up the hollow log coffin of the spirit with it.'

**Question: ngadan angay=an sini selagi what go=FR this drum

'Where is the drum being taken to?'

**Reply: i=sunggud ku sawa ku NI=bride.price I wife my

weeds in clearing my

'I'm taking it to pay for my wife's bride price with it.'

It does not seem possible for an instrument-subject construction to be cast in actor-subject form, but it may be cast in goal-subject form.

Example of instrument-subject:

sini kelu i=tayagpes ku diyà sa me=doo this bolo NI=clear I in DET ADJ=many mebenes diyà tinibah ku

'I'll use this bolo to clear up the many weeds in my farm clearing.'

Example of goal-subject:

t=in=ayagpes ku tabas sa me=doo mebenes 'I cleared the pile clear=PO= I tabas DET ADJ=many weeds

of weeds with a tabas (long bolo).'

1.1.6 bael, a special case

The root <u>bael</u> 'make' does not combine with either $\langle -\underline{en} \rangle$ or $\langle \underline{i} - \rangle$. Some utterances have been recorded in which instrument seemed to be indicated by -an.

tumbaga b=in=ael=an da selagi copper make=PR= =RF they drum

'They used copper to make the drum.'

ngingi b=in=ael=an di dalesan saliva make=PR= =RF he house

'It (spider) made its house from saliva.'

b-in-ael-an kuden <u>sa</u> <u>tanà</u> make=PR= =RF pot DET earth

'The pot was made from earth.'

1.1.7 Summary of active verbal constructions

There is a major structural division between <-um-> actor-subject constructions on the one hand and non-actor-subject constructions on the other. This difference may be expressed by calling the former constructions a keniko constructions after such typical expression as:

> h=um=aa <u>a</u> keniko see=FA= I you

'I would like to watch vou.'

Non-actor-subject constructions are referred to as ku kuna constructions after such typical expressions as:

> ku kuna h=in=aa see=PO= I you

'I saw you.'

All roots may occur in <-um-> constructions either intransitively or as transitive a keniko constructions. Actor-subject constructions tend to be single-party intransitive constructions, in which the relationship ties the subject to the verb as an actor.

Should the significant relationship be established between the verb and an other-than-actor substantive, the verb root associates with an affix of the non-actor-subject series. All such constructions fall under the heading of non-actor-subject constructions. They are essentially constructions presupposing both a subject and agent.

Within these constructions a distinction is commonly made between persons and nonpersons in subject slot. This distinction is made by a group of roots which combine with both <-en> and <i->, the former indicating person subject, the latter nonperson subject. The same distinction is very commonly made by the same affixes in active pe-constructions, to be dealt with later (sec. 1.4).

There are other roots that combine with both $\langle \underline{i} - \rangle$ and $\langle -\underline{en} \rangle$ in which this distinction is restricted to the former affix, <i-> indicating an inanimate instrument in subject slot, but <-en> permitting either person or inanimate thing in subject slot.

Should a root not combine with $\langle -\underline{en} \rangle$, the function of $\langle -\underline{en} \rangle$ is usually taken over by $\langle \underline{i} - \rangle$. This tends to bring a third party into the central sentence structure. The subject is the goal, as with $\langle -\underline{en} \rangle$, and is usually inanimate or a nonperson (e.g., horse). A third party is implied. It may be inanimate and indicate location, or it may be a person who is the recipient of the action, etc. This party is commonly brought into subject slot by the affix $\langle -an \rangle$.

 $-\underline{an}$ may also substitute for <- \underline{en} > in goal-subject constructions, which are generally two party indicating a person subject. It may also indicate a person subject even with those roots which combine with <- \underline{en} >. In such constructions the person (or sometimes animal) subject is the beneficiary of the action, the recipient of the goal.

1.2 Stative verbal constructions

Stative verbal constructions, which are labelled "involuntary" in the examples following Johnston (1975), are indicated by the affixes $\underline{\text{meke-}}$, $\underline{\text{peke-}}$, $\underline{\text{me-}}$, and $\underline{\text{ke-}}$. The last three are found in combination with affixes already identified as active verbal affixes, but they neutralize their active component. None of the affixes, however, are found in combination with the goal-subject affix $-\underline{\text{en}}$.

A time-aspect contrast is made within <u>meke-</u> and <u>me-</u> by the replacement of <u>m</u> by <u>n</u>. This seems to be achieved by the infixation of -in- followed by the reduction of the initial <u>mi</u> (i.e, <u>me- + -in- > mine- > ne-</u>). This time-aspect contrast presumably parallels the contrast already mentioned under active verbal constructions. Time-aspect contrast is indicated in <u>ke-</u> forms by the actor-subject affixes <u>mig-</u> and -um-, though <u>eg-</u> is most commonly associated with ke-.

1.2.1 meke- constructions

A number of roots enter into combination with <u>meke</u>— that have not been found in combination with active verbal affixes. Such roots seem to be semantically stative in themselves, implying a state rather than an action.

neke=lowon <u>sidò</u> diyà siya diisek IPA=longer that to the little 'That is longer than the short one.'

neke=tigdulas <u>a</u> IPA=skid I

'I skidded (on an object).'

neke=bulug <u>a</u> eg=angay sabun IPA=waste I NA=go soap

'I made a wasted trip for soap.'

neke=sugat sa ebà ku <u>sa kayu</u> IPA=strike DET mouth my DET wood 'The wood struck my mouth.'

**meke=uma diya palay IFA=reach to rice

'The bodies will be kept until rice harvest for burial.'

In none of the foregoing sentences is the action premeditated by the subject. Attention is drawn to the state of the subject or to the result of an action. The subject is always passively involved in the action and is never an actor.

With roots that may also enter into combination with active verbal affixes the stative nature of the constructions is not always so obvious.

> amuk endà meke=tayagpes <u>ké</u>, bulit=an da if not IFA=clear we angry=FR they

'If we do not clear land they'll be angry with us.'

kami us

**iya pelà meke=gemow that just IFA=come.up

'He has just managed to get up (a dog trying to climb up into house).'

<u>si Tom, meke=ipanaw da</u> dé DET Tom IFA=travel they PRT

'Tom and the others, they are on their way.'

In these and similar sentences the emphasis is not so much on the action as the achievement of the action. Attention is drawn to a fact. This may best be indicated in English by the auxiliary has or have in, for example, "he has climbed up" and "they have gone."

A clear contrast between stative and active is made by the root iling 'like'.

Active examples:

eg=iling=an di <u>Papi</u> ya NR=imitate=RF she Puppy DET

'She is imitating Puppy.'

tugkeling egailing etaw tugkeling NA=imitate people

'The tugkeling bird imitates people.'

Stative examples:

neke=iling bekong keletiloy IPA=imitate bekong keletiloy

'The keletiloy is like a bekong lizard.' me=doo etaw meke=iling sa linadu 'Many people have the ADJ=many people IFA=imitate DET sickness same disease.'

An equally clear distinction is made by the root \underline{ledak} 'to break down'. Active example:

eg=ledak=en ku <u>sa katilà</u> 'I'll mash up the NO=break.down=OF I DET swt.potato sweet potato.'

Stative example:

amuk utuh=an ta <u>sa ihi uled</u>, meke=ledak 'If we step on snake if step=FR we DET urine snake IFA=rot urine, our feet will rot.'

lisen ta feet our

When an action is indicated by the verb, this action is not premeditated by the subject but is the result of some outside agent.

meke=buung <u>sa batu</u> ig=buung ku IFA=throw DET stone PI=throw I 'The stone I threw ricocheted off.'

While the same root is used in both cases, the first open expression clearly indicates action set off by a party other than the subject.

Unpremeditated action is again indicated in the following use of the root hadek 'to smell'. Used in an active expression it implies a deliberate act of smelling. In the following utterance the action is by no means deliberate, since those who smell the busaw 'evil spirits' are said to die. They are said to smell the evil spirits because the odour envelops them.

meke=hadek <u>ké</u> nadeg busaw, me=matay <u>ké</u> 'If we should smell IFA=smell we odour spirit IFO=die we the spirit we would die.'

Ability, inherent quality, or timeless fact is commonly indicated by meke-.

Example of ability:

endà meke=layang \underline{di} ka pulung tukééy 'It can't fly because not IFO=fly it as so little it is so little.'

Example of inherent quality:

meke=hilu <u>sidò dalem di, sobuy</u> IFA=intoxicate that inside it sobuy 'The inside of the sobuy gourd is intoxicating.'

Example of timeless fact:

amuk endà duen ngingi, endà meke=kaen if not there.is saliva not IFA=eat

'If we had no saliva we would not be able to eat.'

<u>ki</u> we

<u>meke-</u> is found in both transitive <u>a keniko</u> constructions and intransitive constructions referred to as <u>a+</u> constructions. It has been found only once in a <u>ku kuna</u> construction. [The <u>meke-</u> affixes are used with both actor/agent/experiencer focus and instrument focus; see Table 2 in Johnston 1975. R.E.]

duen <u>me=doo</u> <u>tamuk</u> meke=begay ta sa there.is ADJ=many tamuk IFI=give we DET

'We have to give many trade items to the father of the girl (if our son marries).'

emà bayi father girl

1.2.2 peke- constructions

<u>peke-</u> constructions closely parallel <u>meke-</u> constructions. All roots that combine with meke- may also combine with peke-.

Although <u>peke</u>— commonly occurs with <u>eg</u>—, it must be classified with stative affixes. It does not combine with any of the other active verb affixes. Constructions into which it enters are semantically stative rather than active. It seems to indicate ability more often than <u>meke</u>—. This would seem to be its main role. It may, however, indicate ability, achieved fact, inherent quality, or timeless fact.

Examples of ability:

endà egpeke=angay <u>di</u> diatas not INA=go he top 'He could not go to the top.'

endà egpeke=enaw <u>di</u>, ka dakel buneg di not INA=rise he as big goiter his

'He could not rise because his goiter was large.'

endà egpeke=bohol \underline{a} not INA=understand I

'I can't understand it.'

endà dé egpeke=bigkat di not PRT INA=walk

'He cannot walk.' (His foot is infected.)

endà egpeke=begay <u>a</u> keniko timus, enù not INA=give I vou salt because

'I can't give you salt as there is none.'

ka endà dé duen di RP not PRT there.is it

Examples of achieved fact:

**endà pa egpeke=temeg not yet INA=light

'It has not been lighted yet.'

endà egpeke=piedigus sini batà not INA=wash this child

'This child should not be washed (should he?).'

agulé buyu dé peke-uma sa busaw then almost PRT INA=reach DET spirits

'The spirits had nearly reached there.'

Example of inherent quality:

endà egpeke=hilu not INA=intoxicate it

'It is not intoxicating.'

Examples of timeless fact:

iya maendiya egpeke=haa ké linadu this reason INA=see we disease

'That is how we become sick.' (That is how we see the disease.)

siya wé tugnus peke=buung diyà that DEM evening.breeze INA=throw to

dagat, egpeke=tipay sea INA-pass.over

'The evening breeze hurls itself into the sea and passes over (our house).' (Our house is sheltered from the wind under the crest of a hill.)

peke- is found most commonly with intransitive a+ or a keniko transitive constructions. It has been found only twice in a ku kuna construction.

me=malà <u>a</u> keniko endà duen IFO=ashamed I you not there.is 'I am ashamed to see you, since I have given you nothing.'

peke=begay ku keniko INI=give I you

egpeke=lapeg ku <u>kuna</u> eg=polot INI=together I you NA=tie 'I have tied you up together (with the post).'

(This last example was said when someone had been accidentally caught up by the rope while it was being wound around a post.)

1.2.3 me- and ke- stative constructions

<u>me</u>- and <u>ke</u>- stative constructions will be treated together since they enter into structurally parallel constructions. Roots that enter into combination with these affixes divide into three fairly clearly defined groups. The one group enters into <u>a keniko</u> constructions, the other into <u>ku kuna</u> constructions, and the third into $\underline{a+}$ constructions.

The first group of roots have not been found in active constructions and are inherently stative. The second group of roots commonly occur in active constructions and may be inherently active.

The primary division between <u>a keniko</u> and <u>ku kuna</u> constructions has already been noted for active verbal expressions. Where the same root enters into both, one is usually a simple structural reversal of the other, the semantic difference being a minor feature of the contrast.

This primary division is evidently an important feature of the total language structure, since it appears again in stative constructions with inherently stative roots.

Group 1 Roots

memalà <u>a</u> keniko 'I am ashamed to you' egkemalaan ku <u>kuna</u>

I you

mebukul a keniko mebukulan ku <u>kuna</u> sad I you

ashamed

'I am sad for you'

egkebukul <u>a</u> keniko egkebukulan ku <u>kuna</u> sad I you 'I am sad for you'

melimedang <u>a</u> keniko afraid I you 'I am afraid of you'

egkelimedangan ku <u>kuna</u> 'they were afraid of me' nelimedangan da dé <u>aken</u> afraid they PRT me

mebugà <u>a</u> keniko 'I long to see you' mebugaan ku <u>kuna</u> egkebugaan ku <u>kuna</u> miss I you

egkebayat <u>a</u> keniko 'I have to laugh at you' egkebayatan ku <u>kuna</u> laugh I you

melepay <u>a</u> keniko 'you are new to me' melepayan ku <u>kuna</u> new I you

mehidu <u>a</u> keniko 'I love you' mehiduwan ku <u>kuna</u> love I you

egkelepay <u>a</u> keniko 'you are new to me' egkelepayan ku <u>kuna</u> new I you

Judging by native speaker reaction, the <u>a keniko</u> and <u>ku kuna</u> forms with the same root are simple structural variants and semantically identical.

All the above roots refer to the emotions, which tends to confirm the fact that they are inherently stative.

It is interesting to recall that some active roots that enter into two-party goal-subject constructions do not enter into two-party transitive actor-subject constructions but are primarily or exclusively intransitive in actor-subject constructions. This is paralleled by roots which are inherently stative.

The roots <u>lipeng</u> 'to forget' and <u>tiig</u> 'to know' have been found only in stative constructions.

ne=lipeng=an ku \underline{sak} $\underline{d=in=ineg}$ \underline{ku} 'I forgot what I IPR=forget=RF I \underline{DET} \underline{hear} =PO=____ I heard.'

kuna me=tiig=an ko dé <u>siya in=ikagi ku</u> 'You know what I said you IFR=know=RF you PRT that PO=say I to you last night.'

egoh sigep time night

endà me=tiig=an ké <u>imatay ungéh</u> not IFR=know=RF we kill rat 'We don't know how to kill rats.'

These roots do not enter into <u>a keniko</u> constructions, only into constructions bearing a structural similarity to intransitive actor-subject constructions.

me=tiig <u>a</u> doo IFO=know I PRT 'Yes, I understand.'

ne=lipeng <u>a</u> IPO=forget I

'I forgot.'

These two expressions may, however, be expanded into \underline{a} keniko constructions by the addition of a secondary transitive active verb expression.

me=tiig <u>a</u> eg=kuwa't ungéh IFO=know I NA=get rat 'I know how to catch rats.'

ne=lipeng <u>a</u> eg=uwit manuk IPO=forget I NA=bring bird 'I forgot to bring the bird.'

It would appear that -an functions with stative roots after the manner of -en with active roots.

The parallel between active and stative <u>a keniko</u> constructions is mostly structural. With active constructions the subject is unambiguously the actor. With stative constructions the subject is passively related to the verb. This is particularly apparent with roots that refer to the emotions. With such roots the nonsubject <u>keniko</u> item is the active party giving rise to the emotion of the subject.

There is an interesting deviation from the norm with a very small group of roots of this class. With other roots, active or stative, -an is invariably associated with \underline{ku} \underline{kuna} constructions. With this subgroup -an may associate with \underline{a} \underline{keniko} constructions.

egke=mala=an <u>a</u> keniko INR=shame≠RF I you 'I am ashamed to be seen by you.'

egke=limedang=an <u>a</u> keniko INR=afraid=RF I you 'I am afraid of you.'

ne=magtu=an <u>a</u> keniko IPR=new=RF I you 'You are new to me.'

egke=magtu=an <u>a</u> keniko INR=new=RF I vou 'You are new to me.'

egke=dilung=an <u>a</u> keniko INR=hide=RF I you

'You block my view.'

In these the subject is undoubtedly passively related to the verb expression, but some measure of initiative would appear to lie with the subject. This is brought out by the following utterance:

éhé sidò dalesan, amuk me=doo etaw e.g. that house if ADJ=many people

dutu amuk endà duen sempek oy there if not there.is shorts or

kawal ku egke=mala=an <u>a</u> kenagda shirt my INR=ashamed=RF I them 'For instance, that house, if there are many people there and I have no trousers or shirt, I would be ashamed to be seen by them.'

In this the embarrassment is a result of the subject's condition, though undoubtedly conditioned by the presence of the second party. This distinguishes it semantically from the more usual stative a keniko constructions not associated with -an, in which the emotions of the subject are presumably stimulated entirely by the activity or condition of the second party.

The expression <u>egkedilungan</u> <u>a keniko</u> has been found in contrast with <u>egkedilungan</u> <u>ku kuna</u>. In this case the contrast is both structural and semantic and indicates the interesting active-yet-passive role of the subject in the <u>a keniko</u> construction, as against the entirely passive nature of the subject in the ku kuna construction.

egke=dilung=an ko <u>aken</u>, iya maen di ya INR=obscure=RF you me the reason its

**endà eg=hau=wen di duu <u>aken</u> not NO=see=OF he NEG me 'You prevent my being seen (I have been hidden blocked from his sight by you) so he cannot see me.'

egke=dilung=an <u>a</u> keniko iya maen di ya INR=obscure=RF I you that reason it

**endà eg=hau=wen ku duu not NO=see=OF I NEG 'You block my view (I have been blocked out of sight by you) so I can't see him.'

Group 2 roots

Roots that occur in active constructions have not yet been found in a keniko stative constructions and presumably may not occur in this form. They commonly enter into ku kuna constructions, which are essentially two-party constructions with subject and agent. In active constructions the agent is the active participant or performer of the action. In stative ku kuna constructions the agent, while it undoubtedly performs the action implied by the verb root, is not always the prime mover or controller of the action. Even where the agent is the prime mover, the total construction refers to the state following the action rather than the action itself.

me=haa ta<u>sa linadu</u> IFO=see we DET sickness 'We saw the disease.' (caught the sickness)

The Manobos believe that certain diseases are supernaturally inflicted. As far as can be determined the person so infected must first have seen something which causes the sickness. It is obvious from this that the agent of the above construction would not be looking for such a thing but would only see it if the thing unavoidably came into view. In a sense, the initiative lies with the subject.

endå egke=bekad ku duu <u>sa</u> <u>sagpeng</u> not INO=remove I NEG DET lid 'I can't remove the lid.'

In this utterance the initiative would again appear to lie with the subject. The lid is so firmly fixed that it will not yield. The sentence could better be translated, "The lid will not yield to me."

The essentially stative nature of the construction is indicated by the idiom nekuwa di aken 'He's got me' (I can't answer him).

In active constructions the root kuwa means to 'take/catch':

endà ne=kuwa ku duu not IPO=catch I NEG 'I was not able to catch it.' (The bird eluded me.)

In this utterance <u>kuwa</u> carries its active meaning, but the initiative would appear to lie partly with the subject.

me=uma ku <u>sa saging</u> IFO=reach I DET banana.tree 'I can reach the the banana tree.' (It is within my reach.)

egke=ambak kelamag <u>sa kayu</u> INO=collide wind DET tree 'The tree is jostled by the wind.'

egke=hagtay museng <u>sa</u> <u>emal</u> INO=live charcoal DET loris

'The loris can be kept alive by charcoal.'

egke=lagang <u>ki</u> apuy INO=scorch we fire 'We would be scorched by the fire.'

endà dé egke-tagped di <u>siya</u> <u>kayu</u>, ka endà not PRT INO-cut he the tree as not

'He could not cut the wood up because he had no bolo.'

duen gelay di there.is bolo his

Most of the above utterances and others of like nature are parallel in structure with active goal-subject constructions and appear to be restricted to simple two-party constructions. There is a difference in meaning illustrated by the following contrasts which probably hold good for most of the other roots.

> endà dé egke=tagped di <u>sa kayu</u> not PRT INO=cut he DET wood

'He could not cut the wood.' (He had no axe.)

endà t=in=agped di sa kayu not cut=PO= he DET wood 'He did not cut the wood.'

egke=hagtay museng sa emal INO=live charcoal DET loris 'A loris can be kept alive with charcoal.' (It can be fed on charcoal.)

eg=hagtay=en ku museng sa emal NO=live=OF I charcoal DET loris 'I am feeding the loris with charcoal to keep it alive.'

*eghagtayen museng sa emal is not permitted since an inanimate thing may not be the agent of an active verbal construction except as a supplementary agent to a person agent. It may be and commonly is the principal agent of stative constructions with me- and ke-.

The roots of this group have also been found in combination with -an in stative ku kuna constructions. The relationship between these and the previous ku kuna constructions is not clear, but they appear to be goal-subject different, the -an construction approximating active constructions more closely than the other.

> amuk si Labu me=dapag=an di iya apuy when DET Labu IFR=near=RF he that fire

'When Labu would come near to the fire (it would move off).'

egke=salid=an da kagdi INR=leave=RF they him

'Thev left him behind.'

egke=sukay=an di aken INR=pay=RF he me

'I have been paid by him.'

egke=besék=én a INR=splash=RF I

'I have been splashed on.' (a reduced ku kuna expression)

egke=tulik=an ku <u>sa i=begay ko kenak</u> INR=keep.tally=RF I DET NI=give you me

'I would keep count of the things you would give me.'

ne=legdaw=an kuleman IPR=light=RF pressure.lamp DET

'The room has been illuminated by the pressure lamp.'

luwang room.interior

With a few roots such constructions have been found in which the subject is an implied or explicit location, reminiscent of active -an constructions. [The a+ construction represents a clause consisting of the verb and one substantive as the subject (actor or experiencer) but no other substantive with an object or agent role.--R.E.]

> egke=uma=an ku <u>sidò kenà i</u> INR=reach=RF I that place DET Kuma

'I got as far as the house of Kuma.

me=telu=wan <u>ké</u> daa agdaw IFR=three=RF we only day

'We will stay only three days (at that place).'

Group 3 roots

Many roots enter into simple a+ constructions with me- and keinvolving a subject but no other substantive corresponding to the object of a keniko constructions or the agent of ku kuna constructions. construction represents a clause consisting of the verb and one substantive as the subject (actor or experiencer) but no other substantive with an object or agent role. R.E.]

> egke=genaw a INO=cold

'I am cold.' (malarial chills)

egke=edup a INO=hot

'I am hot.' (malarial fever)

egke=sakit <u>sa</u> <u>pigså</u> INO=pain DET boil

'The boil is painful.'

me=begat <u>sa etaw</u> ADJ=heavy DET person 'The man is heavy.'

me=daet <u>iya wé</u> ADJ=bad that DEM

'That is bad.'

The meaning of the prefixes in these expressions is best illustrated by contrast with the -an forms with the same roots.

> ne=genaw=an danà di mig=angay dutu Kulaman IPR=cold=RF by he PA=go to Kulaman

'He caught malaria from going to Kulaman.'

egke=edup=an a't agdaw INR=hot=RF I=LIG sun

'I am hot from being in the sun.'

ne=sakit±an <u>ka</u>, Umpit IPR=pain=RF you Umpit

'Have you been hurt, Umpit?'

egke=begat=an siya dalesan INR=heavy=RF that house

'The house was overweighted (and collapsed).'

egke=daet=en <u>sa</u> <u>kedungon</u> INO=bad=OF DET abaca

'The abaca has been knocked down.

In a+ constructions ke- and me- indicate spontaneous or inherent state of activity. A boil is inherently painful, a person with malaria is presumably considered to develop his fevers and chills spontaneously, a person is inherently heavy, and an action may be inherently bad. -an introduces an outside factor responsible for the condition of the subject. A person catches malaria from living in a certain locality; a person becomes hot from being in the sun; a person feels pain if someone treads on his foot or has toothache; a house is overweighted when many people climb into it; a tree or machine becomes bad, useless, broken down when something is done to spoil or smash it.

A similar contrast exists between <-en> goal-subject constructions and at me- constructions. me- indicates spontaneous action; -en, the intervention of a person agent.

p=in=adeng ku <u>sa palitaan</u> <u>put.out=PO=</u> I DET lantern

'I put out the lantern.'

ne=padeng <u>sa</u> <u>palitaan</u> IPO=put.out DET lantern

'The lantern has gone out.'

t=in=epi ku <u>sa kayu</u> <u>split</u>=PO= I DET wood

'I split the timber.'

ne=tepi <u>sa</u> <u>kayu</u> IPO=split DET wood 'The timber is split.'

The contrast between \underline{me} and $\langle \underline{-en} \rangle$ does not always parallel the foregoing, for example:

s=in=agpeng ku <u>sa latà</u> close=PO= I DET can 'I closed down the lid of the tin.'

ne=sagpeng <u>si</u> <u>Papi</u> IPO=shut <u>DET</u> Puppy 'Puppy has been shut out.' (from the house)

But the $\underline{\text{me}}-$ form refers to the result of the action whereas the $-\underline{\text{en}}$ construction stresses the action.

These $\underline{a+}$ constructions should not be confused with formally similar constructions which are a reduction of \underline{ku} \underline{kuna} constructions by the omission of the agent.

egke=dilek <u>a</u> INO=spear , I 'I have been speared.'
(by someone, the
agent being implied)

There are two forms of the prefix \underline{me} -: \underline{me} - and \underline{ne} -. As far as can be determined the difference between these forms is a time factor, which parallels the time factor involved in the active verbal affixes. \underline{ne} -indicates a past or achieved state, \underline{me} - a present or future state.

<u>ke-</u> does not indicate time, but time may be indicated in <u>a+</u> constructions when <u>ke-</u> combines with the <-<u>um-</u>> affix set:

segepalay pa k=um=e=dakel <u>sini tuyang</u> one.year yet <u>DRV</u>=FA= __=big this dog

'In a year's time this dog will become very big.'

mig=pelaguy <u>sa langit</u> egoh di PA=flee DET sky time it 'The sky fled away at the time it became very high.'

mig=ke=hagtaw PA=DRV=high

 $\underline{a+}$ constructions are the only constructions in which $\underline{ke-}$ has been found in combination with $-\underline{um-}$ and $\underline{mig-}$. The stative function of $\underline{ke-}$ overrules the active function of $-\underline{um-}$ and $\underline{mig-}$ to produce a stative utterance.

1.2.4 Expanded ke- constructions

ke- has occasionally been found in constructions more expanded than those so far described. These constructions resemble in their complexity active constructions rather than stative. In one utterance, the only one of its kind recorded, ke- is found in combination with the affix ig- to produce a distinctly third-party construction.

> ig=kehidu ku keniko <u>sini ig=begay ku</u> PI=love I you this PI=give I

'The thing I gave you was to show my affection for you.'

This example again stresses the essentially third-party role of the affix set <1-> and its consistent indication of nonperson subject.

> egke=limun=an ku kelatas sa dawat INR-cover-RF I paper DET pen

'I have covered the pen with paper.'

This is a further example of an expanded ke- construction involving a supplementary agent.

1.2.5 ku kuna constructions

There are two slots common to all ku kuna constructions, active and stative. These slots have been defined as subject and agent slot respectively. Both slots may be filled by nouns.

> sini atep me=sambi=an this roof IFR=replace=RF libi

'This roof will be replaced with libi palm.'

egke=hagtay museng sa emal charcoal DET loris INO=live

'The loris is kept alive with charcoal.'

egke=ambak kelamag <u>sa</u> <u>kayu</u> INO=collide wind DET tree

'The tree is being jostled by the wind.'

dogo buyu ne=uma't apuy siya dalesan near almost IPO=reach fire the house

'The house was very nearly reached by the fire.'

langun sini sugudsugud ne=sangkap wayeg all these plains IPO=inundate water

'All these plains were inundated with water.

relationship of the item substituting in slot may agent occasionally be indicated overtly by danà.

> ne=pelé a danà keluwen IPO=wet I by grass

'I was soaked by the (wet) grass.'

The subject noun may occur before or after the verb; but the agent noun, which must follow the verb, takes priority for position immediately following the verb. If the agent is overtly indicated by dana, it follows the subject.

A combination of a pronoun goal and noun agent in \underline{ku} \underline{kuna} constructions bears a formal similarity to \underline{a} \underline{keniko} constructions, which can be misleading.

egke=laep <u>ki</u> sa emà i Sida INO=disturb we DET father DET Sida

eg=duyuy NA=sing 'We have been disturbed by the singing of Sida's father.'

egke=bekol <u>a</u> agdaw INO=dry.out I sun

eg=ikagi <u>sa</u> <u>langit</u>, egke=sugat <u>a</u> sa NA=sav <u>DET</u> sky INO=struck I DET 'I have been dried out by the sun.'

'The sky said, "I have been struck by the pounding stick."'

selu pounding.stick

1.3 Verbal question constructions

Though most questions are expressed in equational form (see sec. 2.5), questions may be verbal constructions. In these the question particles function as close attributes of the open verbal expression, occurring sentence initially and taking as clitics those items normally following the verb.

nengan <u>di</u> m=angay dini when he FA=go here

nengan <u>ko</u> t=um=ulù kenami when you <u>teach</u>=FA=___ us

nengan <u>ko</u> h=in=emued when you <u>bite=PO=</u>

kenà <u>ko</u> t=in=ebek place you <u>inject=P0=</u>

maen <u>ko</u> eg=angay dini reason you NA=go here 'When will he come here?'

'When will you teach us.'

'When were you bitten?'

'Where were you injected?'

'Why did you come here?'

ngadan has not been found in verbal constructions.

It should be noted that series 1 $<\underline{a}>$ pronouns never occur as clitics to the question particles. It seems that the series 2 \underline{ku} pronouns substitute for the series 1 pronouns in this position.

kenà ko tinebek is presumably derived from kenà ka tinebek, ka being the subject of the verbal tinebek.

1.4 Active <u>pe-</u> constructions (causative constructions)

The prefix <u>pe</u>-combines with the four active affix sets already dealt with. In general the use of this prefix implies the intervention of a party who does not perform the action stated in the verb root, but who sets the action in motion.

1.4.1 egpe- Constructions

<u>si</u> <u>ema</u> eg=eked eg=pe=tebek DET Father NA=dislike NA=CA=inject 'Father dislikes being injected.'
(Father refused to be injected.)

m=eked <u>a</u> eg=pe=sabà FA=dislike I NA=CA=hold

'I dislike being held.' (I avoided being caught.)

In these and similar sentences the subject of the major nuclear verb stands in the relation of an object to the minor verb. The actor of the minor verb is an implied second party.

A similar relationship is implied in the following sentences with a single verb. The second party performs the action reflecting back on the subject who initiates the action.

pe=bulung <u>a</u> kenagda CA=medicine I them

'I will get them to give me medicine.' (I will get them to medicine me.)

eg=pe=baba <u>a</u> keniko NA=CA=carry.on.back <u>I</u> you 'I'll get you to carry me.'

eg=angay \underline{a} eg=pe=tebek keniko NA=go \overline{I} NA=CA=inject you

'I am going to get you to inject me.'

eg=pe=gudgud <u>a</u> keniko NA=CA=rub.down I you 'I get you to rub me down.'

The action, however, does not reflect back in quite this manner in third-party constructions.

eg=pe=uwit <u>a</u> sulat keniko NA=CA=take <u>I</u> letter you 'I get you to take a letter for me.'

pe=kuwa <u>a</u> kayu kenagdi CA=get I wood him 'I get him to get wood for me.'

In the foregoing sentences the goal obligatorily precedes the performer of the action. The subject initiator becomes the beneficiary of the action. This was confirmed by the language helper, who equated the following two sentences (the second being the command form of a beneficiary $-\underline{an}$ construction):

pe=kuwa <u>a</u> kayu keniko CA=get <u>I</u> wood you 'Get wood for me.'

kuwa=i ko pa <u>aken</u> kayu get=IMP you PRT me wood 'Get wood for me.'

Another construction is involved in the following sentences, in which (especially in the second, third, fifth, and sixth) the subject is clearly the object of its own action. The constructions in these sentences correspond fairly closely to the English reflexive.

**1. eg=pe=belabag diyà sebang NA=CA=straddle at river.mouth 'It (the crocodile) straddles the river mouth.'

2. takà eg=pe=baluk awang dò <u>sa</u> constantly NA=CA=throw air LOC DET

'The porpoises constantly throw themselves into the air.'

embung porpoise

3. eg=pe=hagtaw <u>sa</u> <u>dalit</u> NA=CA=high DET eagle 'The eagle lifts itself in flight.'

4. eg=pe=belagtay <u>ki</u> diyà me=doo buluh NA=CA=lie.over we on ADJ=many floor 'We stretch ourselves over the numerous floor bearers.'

5. eg=pe=batung <u>sa</u> <u>emal</u> NA=CA=lift <u>DET</u> loris 'The loris hauls itself up.'

6. eg=pe=tuntun <u>sa kopoh</u> NA=CA=lower DET spider 'The spider lowers himself (by his thread).'

In more obscure cases it is assumed that the same interpretation holds:

si Papi eg=pelaway
DET Puppy NA=jump

'Puppy leapt down.'
(hurled himself after another dog)

A somewhat parallel construction is seen in the following expression in which the action of the subject reflects back on the subject and an object indicating the resulting state is added.

mig=pe=baluy bituen telu <u>sa</u> PA=CA=possible star three DET

muna etaw first person 'The first man turned himself into (became) the three stars constellation.'

<u>egpe</u>- constructions may also be formed with stative roots to indicate a state of the subject actively conditioned by the subject as in the following example, which closely parallels the preceding one.

amuk <u>aken</u> mig=pe=daet dutu, endà if I PA=CA=bad there not

meke=angay <u>a</u> dutu IFA=go I there 'If I had been bad there, I would not go there (for fear of revenge).'

In all the \underline{pe} - constructions dealt with so far the reflexive element seems to be a common feature. This is not the case in such expressions as:

eg=pe=delug <u>a</u> owong . NA=CA=slide I canoe

eg=pe=sawa <u>a</u> sa anak ku NA=CA=marry I DET child my 'I slide the canoe along.'

'I marry my child off.'

In these cases, especially the first, the action in no way reflects back on the subject. The action implied by the verb root is, however, performed by something or someone as a result of intervention by another initiating party, the subject. If the canoe were to slide spontaneously, the expression would be dumelug sa owong.

 $\underline{pe}-$ also enters into constructions with the affix series $<\!\!-\underline{en}\!\!>, -\underline{an},$ and $<\!\!i-\!\!>.$

With many roots there is a clear distinction of function between the various combinations.

uwit 'bring/take':

eg=pe=uwit=en ku kuna sulat dutu dagat 'I'll get you to take NA=CA=take=OF I you letter to sea

a letter to the coast for me.'

dò LOC

ig=pe=uwit ku keniko <u>sa</u> <u>begas</u> dutu Kaut PI=CA=take I you DET rice to Kaut

'I'll get you to take some rice to Kaut.'

đò LOC

si Kaut p=in=e=uwit=an ku sa timus DET Kaut CA=PR= =bring=RF I DET salt

'I sent salt to Kaut by Mundi.'

diyà si Mundi. to DET Mundi

kuwa 'get':

eg=pe=kuwa a kayu keniko NA=CA=get I wood you

'I want you to get wood for me.'

eg=pe=kuwa=en ku kuna kayu NA=CA=get=OF I you wood

'I'll get you to get wood for me.'

ig=pe=kuwa ku keniko <u>sa</u> <u>felaselait</u> PI=CA=get I you DET torch

'I got you to get me the flashlight.'

With these and roots of equal transitivity the performer of the action (as distinct from the agent who requests or initiates the action) is brought into the subject slot by the affix <-en>. The ultimate goal of the action (generally a nonperson) is brought into the subject slot by the affix set $\langle \underline{i} \rangle$. If the action is performed for the benefit of some party other than the initiator of the action, this new party may be brought into the subject role by the affix set -an.

With roots that are transitive in simple actor-subject constructions, $\langle \underline{pe--en} \rangle$ and $\langle \underline{ipe-} \rangle$ produce three-party constructions involving an initiating agent, an intermediate third party who performs the action implied by the verb root, and a second party which is the ultimate goal of the action. With -en the intermediate party becomes the subject of a transitive expression. With \underline{i} - the ultimate goal becomes the subject.

-an used with certain roots produces a four-party construction in which the intermediate party performs an action for the benefit of the fourth party.

1.4.2 pe- constructions with <-en>

With stative roots and roots that are intransitive in actor-subject constructions, <-an> produces a simple two-party construction with no intermediate party. (Stative roots are those which enter into **a**+ constructions with me-, never into ku kuna constructions with me-, including all those roots which function as simple descriptives of noun, either as free roots or prefixed by me-.) The first-party agent performs the action. The second party, which fills the subject slot, bears the same relationship to the verb that the subject of the equivalent simple actor-subject construction or stative construction bears to its verb. If the verb root of the pe- construction is an active root, the subject functions as the performer of the action. If the verb root of the peconstruction is stative, the subject equates with the quality or state indicated by the root. There is no ultimate goal of the action, which is essentially intransitive. In all cases, however, the subject is the goal of the activity of the first-party agent.

> eg=pe=diisek=en ku <u>sa keugpit ku belagen</u> NA=CA=little=OF I DET pare I rattan

'I cut the rattan down fine.'

diisek sini belagen little this rattan

'This rattan is small.'

eg=pe=hapun=en da sa manuk NA=CA=roost=OF they DET hen

'They are putting the hens up to roost.'

h=um=apun dé <u>sa</u> <u>manuk</u> <u>roost</u>=FA= PRT DET hen

'The hens will roost.'

amuk tali eg=pe=item=en, endā me=bugtus if rope NA=CA=black=OF not IFO=break

'If the rope is blackened, it will not break.'

di it

me=item <u>iya wé tali</u> ADJ=black that DEM rope 'That rope is black.'

endà eg=pe=susu=wen di sa anak di, ka not NA=CA=suck=OF she DET child her as

'She won't let her offspring suck since she has just given birth (to them).'

magtu pelà eg=anak new still NA=born s=um=usu <u>sa anak di</u> suck=FA= DET child her 'Her offspring will suck.'

eg=pe=angay=en ku dini <u>lima kedoo etaw</u>
NO=CA=go=OF I there five number people

'I'll send five people here.'

um=angay <u>a</u> dutu dagat dò FA=go I to sea LOC

'I am going to the coast.'

eg=pe=delug=en ku <u>sa owong</u> NO=CA=slide=OF I DET canoe

'I'll slide the canoe (down to the sea).'

 $\begin{array}{cccc} d=um=elug & \underline{sa} & \underline{owong} \\ \underline{slide}=FA= & \underline{DET} & \underline{canoe} \end{array}$

'The canoe is sliding (of its own accord).'

<pe- -en> associates most commonly with stative or intransitive active roots to produce simple two-party constructions.

1.4.3 pe- constructions with <i->

<ipe-> is most commonly associated with roots that are transitive in
actor-subject constructions. This produces three-party constructions with
an initiator, performer of the action, and ultimate goal. The goal always
fills subject slot.

ig=pe=ipat di dema dutu sidò PI=CA=care.for she again to that

'She will hand over her necklaces to her young sister.'

ig=pe=lengon ku eg=pe=kuwa keniko \underline{sa} PI=CA=all I NA=CA=get you \overline{DET}

'I got you to get all the bamboo (I needed).'

<u>lebuk</u> bamboo

ig=pe=lomò di kenaken <u>Papi</u> <u>ya</u> PI=CA=feed he me <u>Puppy</u> DET

'He got me to feed Puppy (during his absence).'

ig=pe=gatuk di kenaken PI=CA=name she me

'She got me to name it.'

kayu ig=pe=kedan di duen me=doo there.is ADJ=many wood PI=CA=remove he

'He got me to move a lot of wood.'

kenaken me

i=pe=baba di kenaken<u>sa batà</u>, amuk NI=CA=carry she me DET child if

'She will give me the baby to carry if we go walking.'

m-ipanaw ké FA=walk we

The intermediate performer of the action is not always explicit.

**endà i=pe=sagbay ku i duu not NI=CA=borrow I PRT NEG

'I will not let anyone borrow it.

<ipe-> may combine with stative roots. But whereas <egpe- -en> with stative roots always produces a two-party construction with no intermediate performer, <ipe-> generally produces a three-party construction with an implied or explicit intermediate performer of the action.

> i=pe=diisek ku kenagdi <u>sa</u> <u>belagen</u> NI=CA=little I him DET rattan

'I'll get him to cut the rattan down fine.'

<ipe-> may, however, combine with a stative root to produce a two-party construction with no intermediate party. Only one example of this type has been found:

> endà ig=pe=sugat <u>di</u> diyà sidò ig=sekeg not PI=CA=strike it to that brace

'It (the nail) was not driven into the brace.'

Where $\langle -\underline{en} \rangle$ combines with a stative root, the subject of the $\langle \underline{pe}-\underline{-en} \rangle$ construction equates with the root. In the preceding < ipe-> example it is the nonsubject which equates with the root, as seen from the following usage of the root sugat:

> eg=tilò <u>a</u>, ani endà me=sugat a 'I dodge so that I will not be hit.' NA=dodge I so.that not IFO=strike I

<ipe-> has also been found (but only occasionally) with intransitive active roots to produce two-party constructions. A distinction can again be made between <pe--en> and <ipe-> two-party constructions. In the former the subject becomes the actor with reference to the verb root. With the latter the subject may not function as the actor of the same root used in simple actor-subject constructions.

ig=pe=liyu di <u>sa</u> <u>belad di</u> PI=CA=behind he DET hands his 'He put his hands behind his back.'

ig=pe=tugkolò ku diyà iyug i Papi \underline{sa} 'You perched the form PI=CA=perch you on back DET Puppy \overline{DET} on Puppy's back.'

bauku form

 $\underline{\text{liyu}}$ 'go behind/outside' and $\underline{\text{tugkol}}$ 'to perch (on a drum, etc.)' require active subjects when used in simple actor-subject constructions.

As with simple active constructions $\langle \underline{i} - \rangle$ may be used with $\underline{pe}-$ to indicate inanimate instrument-subject.

amuk <u>tali</u> eg=pe=item=en endà me=bugtus <u>di</u> 'If the rope is if rope NO=CA=black=OF not IFO=break it blackened, it will not break.'

Question: ngadan ig=pe=item

what PI=CA=black

'What was used to blacken it?'

Reply: tudi

tree.wax

'Tree wax.'

1.4.4 pe- constructions with -an

While $\langle \underline{pe--an} \rangle$ may enter into constructions indicating beneficiary-subject, it is more commonly found in constructions which appear to be two-party goal-subject with no intermediate actor. The construction may, however, indicate location, either in the subject or by implication in the total sentence structure.

Simple goal-subject

eg=petuyuh=an di <u>kiyu</u> NR=watch=RF he you 'It (the snake) is keeping you under observation.'

eg=pe=duwa=an ku eg=saba <u>sa bubun ku</u> NR=CA=two=RF I NA=hold DET thigh my 'I am holding my thigh with both hands.'

p=in=e=gilu=wan i Malayu <u>Balut ta</u> <u>CA</u>=PR=___=orphan=RF DET Malayu Balut DET 'Balut was adopted by Malayu.'

eg=pe=unut=an da <u>siya</u> <u>timul</u>
NR=CA=accompany=RF they the south.wind

'They are following up the south wind.' (in the canoe)

Question: kedu-wan ini kudà from=FR this horse

'Where did this horse come from?'

Reply: **p=in=e=sunggud=an CA=PR= =bride.price=RF DET 'It was obtained as a bride price item by Mama for Gotun (his daughter).'

Mama diyà si Gotun Mama for DET Gotun

eg=pe=legdaw=an ku sini luwang NR=CA=light=RF I this room

'I'll light up the room.'

Location implied (-an indicating location)

Ouestion: kenà i Palul place Palul 'Where is Palul?'

Reply: **p=in=e=sugu=an sidò amelikano

**PR=CA= =order=RF that American

'He has just been told to come here by

the American.'

Location-subject

sidò Melatunol eg=pe=sawa=an ku sa that Melatunol NR=CA=marry=RF I DET

'I married my sister off at Melatunol.'

tebay ku sister my

<pe- -an> may also combine with stative roots to produce two-party goal-subject constructions.

> si Mali, p=in=e=poko=on di sa lisen 'Marie shortened the DET Marie PR=CA=___short=RF she DET leg trouser legs.'

seluwel trouser

1.4.5 Summary of pe-constructions

pe- functions for the most part to produce three-party constructions but may commonly be used with stative or intransitive roots to produce transitive constructions.

The active affixes with which pe-combines behave in much the same way as they do in simple active constructions. The non-actor-subject affix sets $\langle -en \rangle$, $\langle i- \rangle$, and -an most commonly indicate goal-subject. This parallels the situation in simple active constructions where <-en> most commonly

indicates goal-subject, though $\langle \underline{i} - \rangle$ especially, and $\langle -\underline{an} \rangle$ less commonly, may substitute for <-en> to indicate goal-subject.

pe- goal-subject constructions with <-en> differ from goal constructions with <i->. This difference again parallels the situation in active constructions, where <-en> generally indicates two-party constructions, and <i> (for the most part) three-party goal-subject constructions.

The more specific functions of -an and (i-) are again apparent in peconstructions. In a few cases -an may indicate beneficiary-subject or imply a location, <i-> may occasionally indicate instrument-subject.

1.5 b and p class verbs

There is a subclass of active verbs that includes all roots beginning with the three bilabial consonants \underline{b} , \underline{p} , and \underline{m} . Roots with initial \underline{p} or \underline{b} when they combine with the infix -um- uniformly take the consonant m as their first phoneme. Two explanations are possible. These roots may not inflect the same as the other roots with -um-, but merely change the first consonant to indicate the inflection, or -um- may be infixed as usual and the initial CV of the combination omitted.

```
maeg, egbaeg 'to wear a G-string'
migkat, egbigkat 'to walk'
mitiyala, egbitiyala 'to hold a meeting/discuss a dispute'
magtang, egbagtang 'to fell (timber, etc.)'
manà, egpanà 'to shoot an arrow'
mipi, egpipi 'to wash (clothes)'
mayad, egbayad 'to pay'
```

Roots with m initial do not take the infix -um-:

```
mamà 'betel nut mixture'
mamà -um- (actor-subject form) 'to chew betel nut'
```

The $\underline{\mathbf{b}}$ and $\underline{\mathbf{p}}$ forms of the root indicate command and occur with affixes other than -um-.

```
'I will pay ...'
mayad a
bayad ka
                              'Pay up!'
bayadan ku <u>kuna</u> 'I'll pay you.' ibegay ku <u>sa kawal</u> 'I'll give the shirt.'
egpanaen di <u>sa ubal</u> 'He shot a monkey.'
```

Roots with initial h may sometimes behave the same way:

```
angayen ku humaa <u>sa manuk</u> ---> angayen ku maa sa manuk
       I see DET chicken
```

1.6 Reduced verbal constructions

An agent is always implied in active non-actor-subject and stative constructions, and is usually explicitly indicated. It may, however, be omitted to produce a reduced construction.

h=in=aa dé <u>sa tanà</u> <u>see</u>=PO= PRT DET earth

'The earth appeared.' (The earth was seen.)

(mi=iyap a doo) amuk begay=an a IFO=like I PRT if give=FR I '(Yes, I would like it) if I am given it.'

eg=awang=an <u>sa tanà</u> NR=clear=RF DET land

'The land is being cleared.'

'The house has been raftered.' (Rafters have been erected in the house.)

<u>bayi</u> b=in=ulung gona agdaw girl medicines=P0= other day

'The girl was treated with medicine the other day.'

Similar abbreviations occur with ke- and me- constructions.

egke=kuwa=an a INR=get=RF I

'I have been taken from.'

Certain of the unusual a keniko constructions into which me- and -an open expressions have been found to enter may be derived by reduction from double open expressions. This was suggested by such expressions as the following volunteered by the language helper:

> egke=mala=an a eg=haa keniko INR-embarrass-RF I NA-see you

'I am embarrassed at being seen by you.'

egke=bayat a eg=haa keniko INO=laugh \overline{I} NA=see you

'I am forced to laugh when I watch you.'

egke=lepay a eg=haa keniko INO=see=first I NA=see you

'I have seen you for the first time.' (You are new to me.)

Not all <u>a keniko</u> constructions of the <u>me</u>- and ke- + -an type can be interpreted as reductions, at least as reductions in which the implied second verb is eghaa or one of its forms. Further investigation may show that some other verb is implied.

egke=magtu=an <u>a</u> eg=edà implanu INR*new=RF I NA=ride plane 'Flying in a plane would be a novel experience for me.' (while flying on a plane)

Should this be so, this would reduce the basic expansions of me- and ke- constructions to two: simple intransitive a+ and ku kuna constructions. It is significant that the stative a keniko constructions are rather uncommon in the language, more the exception than the rule.

1.7 Commands

Three main command forms are distinguished: actor-subject commands, goal-subject commands, and a form which relates to both the $-\underline{an}$ and $<\underline{i}>$ non-actor-subject constructions, referred to as $<-\underline{i}>$ commands. It is characteristic of all these command forms that the second-person pronoun is obligatory to the verb expression. Besides these, the stative root \underline{uma} gives command forms, and there are also double commands and reduced commands.

1.7.1 Actor-subject commands

Actor-subject commands derived from simple active constructions consist of the verb root and the series 1 second-person pronoun singular or plural.

angay <u>ka</u> dé dahedò go you PRT over.there 'Go over there.'

lengag <u>ka</u> look.up you 'Look up!'

gaté <u>ka</u> dé hurry you PRT 'Hurry up!'

na, likù <u>ka</u> dé now, go.home you PRT 'Come on! Go off

home!'

temeg <u>ka</u> apuy light you fire 'Light the fire!'

luwit <u>yu</u> pa siya wé bark you PRT those DEM 'Strip those (poles).'

egpe- constructions in command form consist of the root plus pe- and the series 1 second-person pronoun.

pe=siyapat <u>ka</u> dé CA=fast you PRT 'Hurry up (with what you are doing).'

The following is an example of me-> a+ constructions in command form with the root téél:

> me=téél ka dé ADJ=fast you PRT

'Hurry up!'

This is identical with the simple narrative construction 'you are fast.' The form tétéel ka! 'hurry up!' was recorded once under circumstances that suggested identity with metéél ka dé.

1.7.2 Goal-subject commands

Commands derived from simple <-en> goal-subject constructions consist of the verb root and a series 2 second-person pronoun.

**kuwa ko get you 'Get it!'

**bekut ko dé wrap.up you PRT 'Wrap it up!'

**uwit ko dé bring you PRT 'Bring it!'

**dini ko here you 'Bring it here!'

ini dineg ko this listen you

'Listen here!'

**telisi ko pelà split.up you still 'Just split it up!'

Commands derived from pe- and se- constructions consist of the verb root prefixed by pe- and se- respectively with a series 2 pronoun following:

> ko sa pala pe=liyang CA=lie.on.back you DET spade

'Turn the spade on its back.'

se=lapeg ko dé RC=include you PRT

'Take them up in one handful.' (Take them up together.)

1.7.3 <-i> commands

No distinction is made between commands derived from $-\underline{an}$ and $<\underline{i}->$ non-actor-subject constructions.

begay=i ko <u>aken</u> give=IMP you me 'Give (something) to me.'

<u>sini kawal ko</u>, begay=i ko kenaken this shirt your give=IMP you me

'This shirt of yours, give it to me.'

The first of the preceding two sentences is a third-party recipientsubject construction, corresponding to such a construction as the following in narrative:

> begay=an ku gatas sa miyong give=FR I milk DET cat

'I'll give milk to the cat.'

The second sentence is a goal-subject construction, corresponding to such a narrative sentence as:

Duen ma i=begay ku si Atudan, there.is also NI=give I DET Atudan

'I will give something to Atudan, namely a shirt.'

kamasita shirt

 $\langle \underline{igpe} - \rangle$ and $\underline{egpe} - \underline{an}$ narrative constructions also lose their formal identity in command constructions, both becoming $\underline{pe} - \underline{i}$ constructions.

**pe=batas=i ko sa wayeg CA=cross=IMP you DET river

'Carry (it) over the river.'

i=pe=batas ku <u>sa tuyang</u> NI=CA=cross I DET dog 'I will carry the dog over the river.'

eg=pe=uwit=an ku <u>kuna</u> bulung
NR=CA=bring=RF I you medicine
pe=uwit=i ko <u>aken</u> bulung diyà si
CA=bring=IMP you me medicine to DET

'I will send medicine to you.'
'Send me the medicine by Umpit.'

Umpit Umpit

1.7.4 The root uma in commands

The stative root uma gives interesting command forms:

in≂uma ko aken dagat dò PO=reach you me sea LOC 'Catch me up at the

sea!'

**in=uma ko kawà PO=reach you reach.out 'Reach up for it.'

**ne=uma ko pa IPO=reach you PRT 'Reach!'

ko pa Undia duu, Umpit IPO=reach you PRT Mundi DET Umpit

'Umpit, catch up

to Mundi!'

The following two sentences, which were given as a correlated sequence by the language helper, suggest that the ne- prefix may indicate emphasis as much as command. Command and emphasis might even be synonymous with some roots, for example, nenabù ka 'look out, you'll fall'.

> Order: ne=uma ko pa Undia Umpit INO=reach you PRT Mundi Umpit

'Umpit, catch up

to Mundi.'

Reply: m=ikagi Umpit, ne=uma ku doo FA=say Umpit INO=reach I indeed

'Umpit' will say, "Indeed, I will catch

up to him."'

1.7.5 Double commands

Double commands are not common, but their existence is confirmed by the following examples:

**uwit ko angay dini bring you go here

'Bring (it) here!'

angay ko temag=i sa apuy go you light=IMP DET fire 'Go and light up the fire.

1.7.6 Reduced commands

There is a construction which has been identified as a command but that differs from the preceding types of commands. It probably parallels the previously mentioned reduced verbal constructions (sec. 1.6). On the few this command form was recorded it was derived from -an non-actor-subject constructions.

bayad=an a manuk, Umpit pay=FR me chicken Umpit 'Pay me with a chicken, Umpit.'

angat=an <u>a</u> pelà wait=PR me still 'Wait a while for me.'

In the foregoing examples and a few similar command forms, the second-person pronoun is dropped. It is obligatory with the other forms of command.

The usual command forms with these roots are:

bayad=i ko <u>aken</u> manuk, Umpit pay=IMP you me chicken Umpit 'Pay me with a chicken, Umpit.'

angat=i ko pelà <u>aken</u> wait=IMP you still me 'Wait a while for me.'

The parallel statement forms of the expressions are:

eg=bayad=an ko <u>aken</u> manuk NR=pay=FR you me chicken 'You will pay me for the chicken.'

angat=an ko pelà <u>aken</u> wait=FR you still me 'You will wait awhile for me.'

It will be seen that the $-\underline{an}$ affix of these unusual commands is retained from the statement construction.

1.8 External relationship

A common feature of Cotabato Manobo is a substantive standing outside the main structure of the sentence that specifies more particularly the nature of a substantive within the sentence, or that reinforces or emphasises it. The external substantive is usually separated from the rest of the expression by a slight pause.

> ne=ubus <u>a</u> dé, aken i IPO=finish I PRT I PRT

'I have finished.'

meke=hilu <u>sidò</u> <u>dalem</u> <u>di</u>, sobuy IFA=intoxicate the inside its sobuy

'The flesh of the sobuy is intoxicating.'

endà mi=iyap <u>di</u> eg=pe=tulù, sa sawa ku not IFO=want she NA=CA=teach DET wife my 'My wife, she does not want to be taught.'

duen ma <u>busaw</u> <u>wa</u> daya, bayi There is also spirit DET there woman 'There is a female spirit there.'

ma i=begay ku si Atudan, there.is also NI=give I DET Atudan

'I will give something to Atudan, namely, a shirt.'

kamasita shirt

l=in=ohot di <u>Igid</u> da, sa tuyang follow=PO= he Igid DET DET dog

'The dog followed Igid.'

aken, endà duen t=um=ulù kenaken not there.is <u>teach</u>=FA=____me

'There is no one to teach me.'

si Mundi, eg=bayad=an ku <u>sa</u> <u>utang ku</u> DET Mundi NR=pay=RF I DET debt my 'Mundi, I'll pay up my debt to him.'

diyà kenagdi to him

A structurally "external" substantive may stand within the sentence:

amuk endà me=legà <u>di</u>, ludeng, if not IFO=cook it taro

'If the taro is not cooked. it will cause soreness of the throat.'

meke=lapa IFA=throat.itch

Descriptive stative words may also contract a similar relationship with a substantive. The relationship between the substantive and the descriptive is not so tight as that existing between the two ICs of a noun-descriptive constitute in which the descriptive stands between the objectifying particle and the following noun head word.

> in-uwit di sa kelu di, amayan PO=bring he DET bolo his large

'He brought his bolo; it was big.' (He brought his big bolo.)

di, Menubù aken i emà DET father his Manobo

'I am his Manobo father.'

A similar form of complementary external relationship occurs with certain pronouns, most commonly the first-person plural pronouns of series 1 and 2. A speaker talking in the first-person plural may specify the other member covered by the pronoun, as follows:

> amuk duwa ké, si Sida, mi≔iyap a doo two we DET Sida IFO=like I

'If there are two of us (Sida and I), I would like (to go).'

si etom, meke=ipanaw da dé DET Tom IFA=travel they PRT 'They have gone, Tom among them.'

2. Sentence-Forming Equational Constructions

There is in Cotabato Manobo a construction that corresponds with what in other languages has been identified as an equational construction. In its simplest form an equational construction consists of two objectified immediate constituents (substantives), interdependently related to each other. There is usually a slight pause between the two nuclear ICs of equational utterances.

There is little difficulty in interpreting expressions that consist of two nuclear substantives. Likewise, those expressions in which one of the nuclear ICs is a series 5 possessive pronoun are also readily identifiable as equational expressions.

However, when one of the nuclear immediate constituents is a time or location expression, difficulty arises. If such an expression is interpreted as an open expression, the total construction is verbal. If the time or location expression is identified as an object expression, the construction is equational. (See secs. 2.3 and 2.4 for examples.)

2.1 Objectified expression ---> <--- objectified expression

bébé di, aken grandmother his I

'I am his grand-mother.'

si kuna, épé di DET you master his

'You are his master.'

iya ke=sabà, iya wé that DRV=hold that DEM

'That is the way to hold it.'

épé di tuyang, iya wé master his dog that DEM

'Who is the owner of this dog?'

kesalaan, ini i fine this DEM 'This is the fine (for the crime).'

ini, ke=dineg ku, um=ukit kenà i this DRV=hear my FA=pass.thru place DET 'This is what I heard; it will pass through Ubing's

Ubing

place.'

Ubing

2.2 Objectified Expression ---> <--- Series 5 Possessive Pronoun

hagdi iya wé kudà his that DEM horse

'That is his horse.'

naken ini i mine this DEM 'This is mine.'

2.3 Equational constructions with time expression

lima agdaw ke=bayad ku sini kawal five day DRV=pay I this shirt 'It will take me five days to pay for this shirt.'

pila gebulan sa ke=tebow duma ko how.many month DET DRV=arrive friend you

'How many months to the arrival of your friend here?'

dini here

2.4 Equational constructions with location expression

dahedò dalesan emà ku there house father my 'There is the house of my father.'

Such words as <u>dahedò</u> 'there (at a distance)', <u>dahiya, daya</u> 'there (no particular distance)', and <u>dahini, dini</u> 'here' seem to function as objectified expressions in such contexts as the preceding. The roots of these words, <u>edò</u>, <u>iya</u>, and <u>ini</u> respectively, when used in typical stative verbal constructions are prefixed by \underline{ka} - (possibly a variant of \underline{ke} -). Examples:

kaini <u>a</u> 'I'm here.' **kaedò é 'There it is.' kaiya <u>ke</u> 'Here we are.'

However, the expressions <u>dini</u> and <u>daya</u> have been found as the nuclear open expression of verbal utterances.

daya <u>da, Telaki i</u> there they Telaki DET

'There they were, Telaki among them.'

Simple time expressions have also been found functioning as nuclear open expressions.

sekepadiyan <u>ka</u> dutu kenà ko dò, one.week you to place your LOC 'You had been gone one week on your way home when my mother died.'

ne=matay inay ku IPO=die mother my It may therefore be best to interpret all expressions with time or location indicators as a central immediate constituent, that is, as verbal expressions rather than as equational.

The subject substantive of equational constructions may precede or follow its complementary nuclear immediate constituent in the clause or sentence. If it is a pronoun, it is usually preceded by <u>si</u> in sentence-initial position. <u>si</u> does not seem to be used if the pronoun occurs sentence finally. The forms <u>ini</u> 'this' or <u>iya</u> 'that' may substitute in subject slot. If they occupy sentence—or clause—final position, they are usually followed by <u>i</u> or <u>wé</u> respectively, for example, <u>ini</u> <u>i</u> <u>iya</u> <u>wé</u>. The complementary nuclear immediate constituent often stands without an objectifying expression, but may sometimes be preceded by the objectifier iya.

 \underline{iya} used as an objectifier with either the subject or nonsubject IC may be expanded to \underline{iya} wé.

2.5 Questions

Most questions are expressed in equational form. They may also be expressed as verbal constructions (sec. 1.3), but the equational form seems to be the most common.

Questions are introduced by <u>nengan</u> 'when', <u>kenà</u> 'where', <u>ngadan</u> 'what', <u>enù</u> 'how', <u>maen</u> 'why'.

nengan ke=tulù <u>ko</u> kenami eg=sulat when DRV=teach you us NA=write 'When are you going to start teaching us to write?' (When is your teaching us to write?)

nengan ke=angay yu dutu sidò eg=linadu when DRV=go you to that NA=sick 'When are you going to the sick person?'

enù ke=kuwa ko uton how DRV=get you fish 'How do you catch fish?' (How is your catching fish?)

ngadan bael=an ko ya what do=FR you PRT 'What are you doing?'

agulé um=igsà, maen ko dini, guwaen i then FA=ask reason you here said DET

'Then he asked, "Why are you here?" said the small bat.'

kelupenit small.bat $\underline{ke}-$ in the above expressions converts an open verbal expression into an objectified expression.

kenà ko dé place you PRT 'Where are you?'

This last sentence is particularly interesting. If it is regarded as a complete sentence consisting of two interdependently related nuclear immediate constituents, the primary break in the sentence is made between \underline{ko} and $\underline{d\acute{e}}$. The structure can be indicated as follows:

kenà ko ---> <--- dé

The particle \underline{de} substitutes as a predicate item interdependently related to the other immediate constituent $\underline{ken\hat{a}}$ \underline{ko} . The break might, however, occur between $\underline{ken\hat{a}}$ and \underline{ko} :

kenà ---> <--- ko dé

Or, it might occur between kenà ko dé and a zero implied location:

+ ---> <--- kenà ko dé

The first interpretation is the most obvious. The occurrence of $\underline{d\acute{e}}$ might suggest that $\underline{ken\grave{a}}$ ko is an open expression and the whole sentence verbal rather than equational.

Equational constructions are also formed without such explicit question indicators as <u>nengan</u>, <u>ngadan</u>, etc. The following sentences are used with great frequency as a common form of greeting. They resemble the <u>ngadan</u>-type questions.

1. angay=an ko ya go=FR you PRT 'Where are you going?'

2. kedu=wan ko ya from=FR you PRT 'Where are you from?'

The next four sentences are clearly equational constructions. One of the nuclear objectified expressions in each case is the question indicator ngadan. In examples 3 and 5 the complementary nuclear IC is an objectified open expression in which the objectifying role of the suffix -an is reinforced by the objectifying postclitic particle ya. In example 4 the complementary IC is the pronominal expression iya wé. In example 6 iya wé functions as an objectifying lateral of the expression kiiyapan. Comparison of these examples with 1 and 2 shows that the postclitic ya is merely a displaced lateral objectifier.

 ngadan bael=an ko ya what do=FR you PRT 'What are you doing (making)?'

4. ngadan iya wé what that DEM 'What is that?'

5. ngadan ki=iyap=an ko ya what DRV=want=RF you PRT 'What do you want?'

6. ngadan iya wé ki=iyap=an ko what that DEM DRV=want=RF you 'What do you want?'

The role of <u>ya</u> in the first two of the preceding sentences is different. If they follow the pattern of the other sentences, two nuclear ICs must be identified. Several interpretations may be suggested. <u>angayan ko ya</u> and <u>keduwan ko ya</u> may be regarded as nuclear objectified expressions and the complementary IC a zero implied location, or perhaps the question intonation contour. It seems, however, that the primary break is between <u>ya</u> on the one hand and the rest of the sentence on the other. This would elevate <u>ya</u> to the status of a nuclear IC.

This parallels the interpretation of $\underline{\text{kenà}}$ $\underline{\text{ko}}$ $\underline{\text{d\'e}}$ in which a normally lateral item, $\underline{\text{d\'e}}$, is elevated to nuclear status.

2.6 Verb <--- verb constructions

Manner expansions equivalent to the English <u>I ran quickly</u> do not follow the expected pattern of verb <--- manner descriptive. The construction seems rather to be a double verbal form.

me=téél <u>a</u> eg=pelaguy ADJ=fast I NA=run 'I run fast.'

me=lugay <u>a</u> eg=dineg bobtail IFO=long I NA=hear bobtail 'I have heard "bobtail" for a long time now.' (Our house boy kept asking us what we meant by the word.)

endà iseg <u>ki</u> egpeke=tudug not very we INA=sleep 'We are not able to sleep so well.'

tibubu <u>da</u> pelà eg=kaen still they still NA=eat 'They are still eating'

muna ulu <u>di</u> eg=hulu first head he NA=climb.down 'He climbs down head first.'

buyu <u>a</u> dé eg=tebow almost I PRT NA=arrive

'I have nearly arrived.'

In verb <--- verb constructions, items which, by analogy with noun <--- descriptive constructions, one would expect to be lateral descriptive items function as the central open expression of the sentence. taking the series 1 subject pronouns as clitics.

Certain of these items, notably endà iseg (which always occurs as a compound expression, iseg never occurring alone), always substitute in what would appear to be major verb slot. Others sometimes follow the verb in what would appear to be a descriptive slot lateral to the verb.

> t=um=ebow ki, buyu arrive=FA=___we almost l=um=agti <u>a</u> takà dodge=FA= I constantly

'We have almost arrived.'

'I kept on dodging around (to avoid him).'

In such cases, however, there is a slight intonational pause between the final item and the rest of the sentence.

The verb <--- verb construction is also apparent in such an expression as:

> ini <u>a</u> pelà eg=tebow this I just NA=arrive

'I have just arrived.'

The major open expression must be taken to be ini ... pelà since ini is never found occurring by itself in parallel constructions.

There is another such construction in which a stative verb normally used intransitively becomes the nuclear verb of a transitive construction.

> ne=lipeng a eg=uwit manuk IPO=forget I NA=bring hen

'I forgot to bring the hen.'

mi=iyap a eg=kuwa timus IFO=want I NA=get salt

'I want to get some salt.'

me=tiig ka dé eg=ikagi Menubù IFO=know you PRT NA=speak Manobo

'You know how to speak Manobo.'

amuk endà me=gaga ku duu m=itiyalà ... if not IFO=able I NEG FA=dispute

'if I am not able to dispute the matter'

It is also common to find two eg- type verbs in the verb-verb relationship. The verb root angay occurs with a particularly high frequency as the first verb of such constructions.

eg=angay=en di eg=balbal \underline{sa} \underline{anak} \underline{di} 'He is going to beat NO=go=OF he NA=beat \underline{DET} child his his child.'

**m=angay t=um=igbokol dutu agdaw FA=go <u>lie.in.sun=FA=</u> in sun

'He is going to lie out in the sun.'

sa manuk angay≍en ta m=aa we FA=see DET hen

'We are going to find the hen.'

With few exceptions the second $\underline{e}\underline{e}$ verb takes the actor-subject affix series -um-.

Where the total construction is non-actor-subject the first verb takes the non-actor-subject inflection and the second takes <-um-> actor-subject inflection.

> in=angay ku eg=haa kuna PO=go I NA=see you

'I went to look for you.'

eg=teleseb=en di eg=buung siya manuk NO=flush.out=OF he NA=throw the hen

'He hurled a stone to flush out the hen.'

ig=pe=lengon ku eg=pe=kuwa keniko sa DET PI=CA=all I NA=CA=get you

'I got you to get all the bamboo for me.'

lebuk bamboo

**legayday=en ké pelà t=um=elalag complete=FO we just roof.cross=FA=___ 'We will soon finish off laying the roofing cross pieces.'

The object of the double verb combination most commonly follows the second verb, but it may stand between the two verbs.

> eg=taka=an da kita eg=suntuk NR=frequent=RF they us NA=strike

'They (the Moros) frequently strike us.'

Sentences have been recorded in which the first verb is stative and the second a non-actor-subject active verb. In most cases such constructions have been intransitive.

> me=tegas pelawà eg=hugut=en sa badung ADJ=hard still NO=withdraw=OF DET bolo

'The bolo is still a bit hard to withdraw (from the sheath).'

endà mi=iyap <u>di</u> eg=tulu=en, <u>sa sawa ku</u> 'My wife does not not IFO=want she NO=teach=OF DET wife my want to be taught.' **me=ubus t=in=adtad, eg=dalem=en kuden 'When it has finished IFO=finish <u>cut.up</u>=PO=____NO=into=OF pot being cut up, it will be put in the pot.'

Multiple open expression constructions have been recorded, for example:

endà iseg <u>ka</u> me=siyapat eg=sulat not very you ADJ=fast NA=write

'You are not so fast at writing the Manobo language.'

kagi='t Menubù language=LIG Manobo

2.7 Double verb constructions with different actors

Verb <--- verb constructions with different actors occur, but they are infrequent.

> eg=unung=unung=an ku kuna eg=sulat NR=watch=watch=RF I you NA=write

'I am watching you write.'

In many of the examples already cited the subordinate concept in the English becomes the nuclear concept in Manobo. The following are typical examples:

> meke=duwa <u>a</u> dé agdaw um=ugpà dini IFA=two I PRT day FA=stay here

'I intend to stay here for two days.'

k=um=e=duwa batà l=um=esut FA=DRV= __=two child emerge=FA=___

'Two children come out.' (when there are twins)

duwa <u>k</u>é agdaw diyà sa dalan two we day on DET road

'We were two days on the road.'

2.8 Existential duen

duen 'there is .../he has ...' is a very commonly used nuclear open expression, which may, though only rarely, take the affixes mig- or -um-. characteristic of this expression that the associated nuclear substantive is never marked by a $\langle \underline{sa} \rangle$ class objectifying particle. It may occasionally be marked by a reduced form of the objectifying particle ini:

> yak duen ini kawalamuk not there is this shirt if

'There would not be this shirt if'

All Philippine dialects seem to have an equivalent open expression characterized by the same feature.

duen <u>sawa ko</u> there.is wife your 'Do you have a wife?'

duen pa <u>kugit ko</u> wé there.is still matches your PRT

'Do you still have any matches?'

endà dé duen <u>di</u> not PRT there.is it 'There is none.'

d=um=uen dema <u>sulu ku</u> be=FA=__ again nail my 'I'll get another nail again.' (He had lost his thumb nail.)

**mig=duen dema PA=be again

'He got it again.'
(a yaws infection)

pengagbet <u>ka</u> duen épé katilà look.for you there.is ownwer swt.potato 'See if there is anyone with sweet potato.'

duen <u>niko ig=sugù kenaken</u>, angay=en there.is your PI=order me go=FO

'Is there anything you called me about, that you want me to get?'

ku I

Expressions headed by $\underline{\text{duen}}$ very commonly substitute for simple substantives.

endà duen <u>in=uwit ku me=begat</u> not there.is PO=bring I ADJ=heavy 'I brought nothing heavy.'

ini goh endà pa duen <u>ig≃begay</u> <u>di</u> this time not yet there.is PI=give he

'Up to now he has given me nothing.'

<u>kenak</u>

mе

amuk duen <u>etaw t=um=igbas</u>, if there.is person <u>slash</u>=FA=___ 'If someone chops up (a person) he will be imprisoned.'

me=bilanggu IFO=imprison

duen <u>me=tiig eg=kuwa't ungéh</u> there.is IFO=know NA=get rat 'There are those who know how to catch rats.'

aken, endà duen <u>t=um=ulù kenake</u>n 'I have no one to not there.is teach=FA= me teach me.'

<u>in=angay ku</u> dahini 'There was something there.is PO=go I there I came to get here.'

3. Negation

There are three negative expressions in Cotabato Manobo: endà, yak, and beken. A possible fourth is yaka, which may be related to yak.

beken is used as a negative of substantives.

amuk beken kuna ... 'If it had not been if not you for you ...'

amuk dakel, beken duu langus 'If it is large, it is not NEG praying.mantis not a praying mantis.'

beken m=iling <u>sak si Polok lobing</u> 'Not one like Polok's FA=like the DET Polok dress dress.'

endà is a negative of verbal expressions. In the great majority of sentences endà immediately precedes the verb.

> endà mi=iyap a eg=ugpà diyà keniko 'I do not want to not IFO=want I NA=stay with you stay with you.'

amuk endà umow=en yu duu aken ... 'If you do not call not call=FO you NEG me i f me ...'

endà meke=layang <u>di</u> ka pulung tukééy 'It cannot fly not IFA=fly it as very little because it is very small.'

endà sometimes functions as a close attribute of the open verbal expression. In such cases it precedes the verb and is followed by the <dé> particle, which normally follows the open expression. It is not followed by the pronouns clitic to the verb. This is particularly common with the open expression duen 'there is'.

> endà dé duen di not PRT there.is it

'There is none.'

endà dé g=um=emow <u>ké</u> simag not PRT <u>come.up</u>=FA=___we tomorrow

'We will not come upstairs tomorrow.'

ini goh endà pa duen <u>ig≔begay di</u> this time not yet there is PI=give he 'Up to now he has given me nothing.'

kenak me

**endà pa inemen=an ko duu not yet drink=RF you NEG

'You have not yet drunk from it.'

endà is distinguished from all other verb attributes by the unusual deviation from the norm when the subject of the verb expression is the third person singular pronoun. In all other constructions this pronoun is a zero feature. With endà the third person singular form di of series 2 nonsubject pronouns is substituted immediately following the nuclear open expression.

> endà pa iseg di me=doo neke=sunggud not yet very it ADJ=many IPI=bride.price

'Not so very many bride price items were handed over.'

endà egpeke=hilu di, bugan not INA=poison it bugan

'Bugan is not poisonous.'

endà dé duen di not PRT there is it 'There is none.'

ani endà me=utuh=an so.that not IFR=stamp=RF it

'... so that it will not be stamped on.'

simag endà pa t=um=udak <u>di</u> katilà 'He will not plant tomorrow not yet <u>plant</u>=FA=<u>he</u> s.potato sweet potato

tomorrow.'

yak is used as a strong negative of verbal expressions. It occupies a position immediately preceding the verb.

> amuk endà umow=en yu duu aken, yak if not call=FO you NEG me not

'If you do not call me, I will not come here.'

um=angay a dini FA=go I here

yak duen $\underline{\text{ini}}$ $\underline{\text{kawal}}$ amuk beken kedu 'I would have no not there is this shirt if not from shirt but for you

shirt but for you.'

keniko you

yak k=um=e=lani <u>kunul ko</u> <u>ya</u>, amuk ont DRV=FA= =smooth skin your DET if b

'Your skin would not be smooth if you had skin disease.'

duen <u>bugis</u> there.is skin.disease

yak t=um=udug <u>sa batà</u>... not <u>sleep=</u>FA= <u>DET child</u> 'The child will not sleep (because of its bad fever).'

In at least two of the preceding examples <u>yak</u> functions as a conditional negative.

yak has mostly been found with actor-subject constructions. It has been found once with a non-actor-subject construction:

ig=hemued PI=bite

yaka is often used in isolation as a general negative command, "Don't do it." Also it is often used, in cases of real urgency, in a rapidly repeated expansion, yaka yaka yaka.

With negative commands the full form is typically as follows:

yaka eg=enaw kenak not NA=wake me 'Don't wake me up.'

yaka pa eg=angay ya dini simag not yet NA=go NEG here tomorrow 'Don't come here tomorrow.'

In normal speech, however, there is the usual elision between the two contiguous vowels resulting in the following form:

yaka eg-enaw kenak ---> yagenaw kenak

A clitic $\{\underline{ya}\}$ is frequently postposed to the verbs of negative commands.

yag=daya ya not=there NEG 'Don't stand there.'

yag=angay ya dutu not=go NEG there 'Don't go there.'

yag=gemen na not=laugh NEG 'Stop laughing.' (Don't laugh.)

yag=sinegaw wa not=cry NEG 'Don't cry.'

On the basis of a rather limited number of examples it would seem that negations of goal-focus commands are indicated by the negative form yoko. If this is so, it is almost certain that yaka and yoko may be broken down into two units with vowel harmony between the vowel of the negative morpheme ya— and the vowel of the particular pronoun used, ka actor-subject or ko goal-subject.

4. Non-Sentence-Forming Constructions

4.1 Attribution of Nouns

Constitutes consisting of noun head words with lateral attributes that are open expressions are not very common.

There are two principal forms of attribution. In the first the descriptive (usually a me-expression but occasionally a free root such as dakel 'big') precedes the noun. If there is an associated objectifying particle, the descriptive occurs between it and the noun.

um=angay <u>da</u> dé dutu sidò me=diyù FA=go they PRT to that ADJ=distant

'They are going to a distant place.'

tanà land

There is no contrast between $\underline{me}-$ and $\underline{ne}-$ open expressions in this slot. Only $\underline{me}-$ expressions may function as descriptives of nouns.

A few words, notably <u>langun</u> 'all', may precede the objectifying particle, though it may also substitute in the same slot as <u>me</u>-expressions.

langun sini sugudsugud ne-sangkap wayeg 'All these plains all these plains IPO-inundate water were inundated with water.'

In the second type of noun attribution, the open expression follows the noun and is separated from it by a slight pause.

k=um=uwa <u>a</u> tamuk, lima get=FA=__ I items five 'I will get five trade items.'

in=uwit di <u>sa</u> <u>kelu di, amayan</u> PO=bring he DET bolo his large 'He brought his large bolo.'

Noun expressions attributive to other nouns (other than possessive nouns) may occasionally substitute in the same slot as \underline{me} type attributes.

apiya me=bau <u>sak diyà béléng ko</u> even IFO=healed the on cheek your 'Even if the yaws on your cheeks is healed, come here tomorrow.'

<u>katel</u> m=angay <u>ka</u> doo dahini simag yaws FA=go you here tomorrow

4.2 Possession

4.2.1 Pronominal possession

Pronominal possession may be indicated by either of two sets of pronouns. The most commonly used set has already been identified as series 2 $\langle\underline{ku}\rangle$ pronouns lateral to verbs in non-actor-subject constructions. This clitic pronoun series always immediately follows its substantive head word.

 $\begin{array}{lll} \text{b\'eb\'e} & \text{di} & \underline{\text{aken}} \\ \text{grandmother his} & I \end{array}$

'I am his grandmother.'

me=sakit <u>ulu ku</u> IFO=pain head my 'My head hurts.'

iya kenà pedu ko ya, <u>si Mama</u> that place gallbladder your DET DET Mama 'Mama is the one to keep guard over you.'

sebaen daa <u>emà da</u> one only father their 'They have the one father.'

eg=hemued=en <u>ki</u> kilat ka duma ta NO=bite=OF we lightning as relatives our

'We would be struck by lightning since they are our relatives.' (if we committed incest)

Possession may also be indicated by a series of possessive pronouns referred to as series 5 < naken> pronouns.

SERIES 5 PRONOUNS <naken>

Singular Plural

1st person naken nita (incl); nami (excl)

2nd person niko niyu

3rd person hagdi hagda

me=diyù

These pronouns are free roots and occur most commonly with substantives of equational or stative verbal constructions. The possessed IC generally follows the open expression or nonpossessed complementary IC.

labi <u>sak naken ke=sakit</u> half the my DRV=pain

ADJ=distant your house

niko dalesan

me=doo <u>naken eg=bael=an</u>
ADJ=many my NR=make=RF

Bagobo, <u>hagdi</u> <u>sawa</u> Bagobo his wife

me=diyù <u>hagda in=angay=an</u>
ADJ=distant their PR=go=RF

'It only hurts half as much as my pain.'

'Your house is a long way off.'

'I have made many things.'

'His wife is a Bagobo.'

'They went to a distant place.'

The series 5 pronoun invariably precedes the head noun. In most constructions of the above type the possessed expression is not marked by a \underline{sa} objectifying particle. Examples have been recorded in which the objectifying particle \underline{iya} or the particle \underline{i} stands between the possessive pronoun and its head word.

me=diyù <u>naken i kedu=wan</u> ADJ=distant my PRT from=FR

angay=en ta <u>nami</u> <u>iya</u> <u>tebay</u> go=FO we our that sister

me=pion <u>hagdi</u> <u>iya</u> <u>ke=kaen</u> ADJ=good his that DRV=eat

niko iya kenà, ostelaliya your that place Australia 'I come from a distant place.'

'We will go and get our sister (if the bride price is not paid).'

'It (rabbit) makes good eating.'

'Australia is your country.'

4.2.2 Noun possession

Possession of one noun by another is indicated by juxtaposition of the two nouns, the nuclear noun taking first position. Where the lateral possessing noun is a person, the relationship is further indicated by the particle i between the two nouns.

t=in=ebek di <u>sa inay i Limbey</u> inject=PO= she DET mother of Limbey 'She injected Limbey's mother.' When both are nonperson substantives and the final syllable of the first noun is open, the particle \underline{t} occurs as a clitic to this noun.

balu't ulu 'hair of head' <u>balu</u> 'hair' hair head

kutu't miyong 'fleas of the cat' <u>kutu</u> 'flea' flea cat

The clitic \underline{t} following a consonant has been observed only once. In this case, it was following \underline{l} in the expression \underline{epol} \underline{t} belad 'tattoo of the arm'. The \underline{t} is, however, often omitted with this expression.

There is an interesting possessive construction in which personal possession is indicated in a manner very similar to the series 5 pronoun possession. The possessing person occurs between the objectifying particle and the nuclear possessed substantive and takes the personal objectifying particle si:

beken m=iling sak si Polok lobing not PA=like the DET Polok dress

'Not one like Polok's dress.'

4.2.3 Ligature t

The ligature \underline{t} is very commonly used between a verb expression (consisting of a verb and a series 1 and 2 pronoun) and a following substantive. Since all series 1 and 2 pronouns are single open syllables, the use of the ligature in this slot parallels its occurrence in noun possession. The phonemic-syntactic conditioning factors can be formulated as follows:

A noun...CV t noun
B verb expression...CV t noun

The final noun of both constructions is never marked by a <u>sa</u> objectifying particle or any other class of objectifying particle.

eg=bael \underline{a} ='t owong NA=make \underline{I} =LIG canoe

'I am making a canoe.'

**p=in=enù ku='t wayeg <u>fill</u>=PO= I=LIG water 'I have filled it with water.'

t=um=epi \underline{a} ='t kayu \underline{split} =FA= \underline{I} =LIG wood

'I will split the wood down the middle.'

... danà di eg=haa='t legleg by he NA=see=LIG light '... from his seeing the light (of the fire).' m=aluk <u>a</u>='t dalesan ku dò FA=rush I=LIG house my LOC 'I will rush to my house.'

 \underline{t} may also occur as a ligature following verb expressions closed by a $<\underline{d\acute{e}}>$ particle the members of which are also vowel final.

eg=angay <u>da</u> pa='t Melatunol dò NA=go they still=LIG Melatunol LOC 'They are going to Melatunol.'

Noun subordination seems to be the feature common to both uses of the ligature. In A the noun is subordinate to another noun. In B it is subordinate to a nuclear verb.

4.3 Subject markers [glossed as DET in the examples]

4.3.1 <u>sa</u>

Most subject expressions when marked take an objectifying $\langle \underline{sa} \rangle$ class particle. But since members of this class may optionally mark nonsubject item, position rather than objectifier usually indicates the subject.

4.3.2 <u>i</u>

Postclitic particles may mark subject expressions. One of the most common is the particle \underline{i} , a rather versatile item indicating in other constructions person, possession, etc. This particle is postposed to the subject of \underline{a} + or \underline{a} keniko verbal constructions or equational constructions.

m=ipanaw dé <u>kenogon i</u> FA=walk PRT maiden DET 'The maiden went off.'

aken i emà di, Menubù I DET father his Manobo 'I am his Manobo father.'

<u>kuna</u> i Kunsiyal Kulaman you DET Councillor Kulaman 'You are Councillor from Kulaman.'

eg=lenebleneb <u>kemel</u> <u>ta i</u>
NA=smear fingers our DET

'Our hands are covered with grease.'

ne=ubus <u>a</u> dé, <u>aken i</u> IPO=finish I PRT I DET 'I have finished.'

agulé t=um=ebow dé <u>busaw i</u> dutu then <u>arrive</u>=FA=___ PRT spirit DET at 'Then the spirit arrived at the house.'

sidò dalesan that house

4.3.3 <u>i</u> duu

The particle \underline{i} (sec. 4.3.2) may be involved in the compound clitic expression \underline{i} \underline{duu} , which seems in general to substitute for an objectifying particle. (See sec. 4.5 on sentence particles.)

i=pe=bulung ku pelà <u>palì</u> <u>ku i duu</u> NI=CA=medicine I just wound my DET PRT 'I am just going to have my injury treated.'

4.3.4 <u>ya</u>

A particle of the allomorphic series $\{\underline{ya}\}$ is often postposed to a subject noun or person equational construction ($\underline{a+}$ or \underline{ku} kuna constructions). The allomorph \underline{ya} follows expressions ending in a vowel. Substantives ending in closed syllables take a particle whose first consonant reduplicates the final consonant of the substantive. (This form of clitic occurs with all constructions.)

h=in=aa ku <u>Papi</u> <u>ya</u> gina <u>see=PO=</u> I Puppy DET recently

h=in=emegaw=an i Labu <u>Mison na</u> warn.off=PR=__=RF DET Labu Mison DET

duen ma <u>busaw wa</u> daya, bayi there.is also spirit DET there woman

ngadan <u>tanà</u> <u>ya</u> kenà di eg=lesut what land DET place he NA=emerge

eg=sinegaw <u>batà</u> <u>ya</u> NA=cry <u>child DET</u> 'I saw Puppy a while ago.'

'Mison was warned off by Labu.'

'There is a female spirit there.'

'In what land was he born?'

'The child is crying.

A similar clitic is used with verbs in commands, presumably to imply particular emphasis:

yaggemen na yagsinegaw wa yagdaya ya

yaka pa eg=angay ya dini simag not yet NA=go PRT here tomorrow 'Don't laugh.'
'Don't cry.'
'Don't stand there.'

'Don't come here tomorrow.'

4.4 Nonsubject markers

Some nonsubject substantives may be marked by {ya} particles in the same way as subject nouns. (These particles never occur with subject substantives in preverb position, only with substantives in postverb position.) The conditions under which nonsubject items may be marked are so far quite unpredictable as seen from the following:

kuwa <u>a</u> lepò ya get I coconut DET 'I will get coconuts.'

 $\frac{el\hat{e}}{walingwaling} \text{ 'very valuable orchid', } \frac{bat\hat{a}}{bat\hat{a}} \text{ 'child', } \frac{kayu}{wood', } \frac{wanuk}{wanuk} \text{ 'chicken' may not. These words cannot be marked by such a particle in the context } \frac{kumuwa}{kumuwa} \frac{a...}{kumuwa} \frac{a...}{kum$

uwiti ko <u>aken</u> manuk ka bring you me chicken PRT 'Bring me a chicken.'

Whether or not a particular word may be so marked seems to depend on the verb root used and the verb construction. (There is no evidence for the existence of noun classes.)

Similar marking of nonsubject items is seen in the following constructions:

bayad=an \underline{a} ='t manuk ka pay=FR me=LIG hen DET 'Pay me with a hen.'

egke=bekol \underline{a} ='t agdaw wa INO=dry.out \underline{I} =LIG sun DET

'I have been dried out by the sun.'

In such cases the nonsubject item may receive additional emphasis by its association with the {ya} clitic.

4.5 Sentence particles

4.5.1 duu and doo

No definite meaning can be assigned to either of the particles \underline{duu} or \underline{doo} , which are two among many similar sentence particles. They do not seem to relate to any one immediate constituent of the sentence in which they occur but rather to the sentence as a whole. They are treated apart from other particles since they represent a clear contrast in function, the former associating with negative sentences, the latter with positive sentences.

duu is more frequent in its occurrence than doo. They indicate a particular emphasis on the negative and positive aspect of the sentence respectively. They may occur in reduced form: du and dé do respectively.

duu occurs with a wide range of sentence types and takes a position immediately following the verb or the series 2 agent pronoun should one be present.

With beken 'not':

amuk dakel, beken duu langus not NEG praying.mantis if big

'If it is large, it is not a praying mantis.'

With yaka 'don't' in commands:

yag=pe=bagel duu not=CA=strong NEG

'Don't tense up.' (Don't tense your

muscles.)

yag=selepan duu wé not=play NEG PRT 'Don't play about.'

With endà 'not':

**endà eg=hau=wen ku duu not NO=see=OF I NEG

'I can't find him.'

**amuk endà i=begay da duu diyà kenami ... not NI=give they NEG to us

'If they do not give (our sister) to us'

With inday 'to not know':

inday ta duu ne=matay dé iya not.know we NEG IPO=dead PRT that

'We don't know whether our young brother is dead.'

di, Hadi egoh ya appearance his young.brother DET

duu has not yet been found with negative actor-subject constructions.

dog associates with positive statements and follows the nuclear open expression:

> ... um=angay ka doo dini simag FA=go you indeed here tomorrow

'... you will come here tomorrow.'

**egke=bekad ku doo INO=open I indeed

'It vields to me.' (I opened it.)

**uwit=en da doo take=FO they indeed 'They will take.'
(in reply to: 'Will
they take the dog with
them?')

m=iling doo apus, tamelang FA=like indeed apus tamelang 'Tamelang is like the apus bamboo species.'

palan doo tamuk all indeed trade.items 'They are all trade items.'

duen doo there.is indeed 'There is.' (reply to: 'Is there any salt?')

egpeke=tudug doo <u>Isot ta</u> INA=sleep indeed Isot DET 'Isot is able to sleep all right.'

dutu doo, dalesan ku there indeed house my 'My house is over there.' (in reply to: 'Where is your house?')

 \underline{doo} followed by the particle \underline{gaa} ('relayed speech') reduces to \underline{do} as in \underline{duen} \underline{do} \underline{gaa} 'There is, she says'.

4.5.2 duu with positive constructions

 \underline{duu} preceded by another clitic \underline{i} commonly enters into positive constructions in which the combination \underline{i} \underline{duu} seems to substitute for an objectifying particle of class $\langle \underline{sa} \rangle$ or for the postclitic objectifying particle $\{\underline{ya}\}$.

angay=an ko (or koya) i duu go=FR you PRT PRT 'Where are you going?'

kenà kawal ko i duu place shirt your PRT PRT 'Where is your shirt?'

katilà i duu swt.potato PRT PRT 'Sweet potato.'
(in reply to:
'What does it eat?')

geléh ko pa diyà kenak palay ku i duu pound you PRT for me rice my PRT PRT 'Pound my rice for me, will you?'

i=pe=bulung ku pelà pali ku i duu NI=CA=medicine I still wound my PRT PRT 'I am about to get my wound medicined.'

niko ini duu your this PRT 'This is yours.'

 \underline{duu} has also been found in unusual equational constructions in which it is hard to differentiate two nuclear ICs.

kelu ko ya duu bolo your PRT PRT 'Where is your bolo?'
(May I have your bolo?)

niko kelu ya duu your bolo PRT PRT 'Where is your bolo?'
(Let me have it for a while?)

These constructions are questions and parallel the <u>angayan ko ya</u> questions dealt with under equational constructions (sec. 2.5).

In the foregoing sentences \underline{duu} is probably best interpreted as a predicate item probably in association with the particle \underline{ya} . \underline{Ya} may be regarded as pronominal in this context, rather than an objectifying particle.

 \underline{duu} is also found in other minimal sentence constructions with only a single nuclear open expression:

langun dé duu 'They are all (his).' (In reply to 'Are they all his?') all PRT PRT

There is an interesting parallel between \underline{duu} and \underline{enda} . It is common for someone replying to a question to open his reply with the negative particle enda.

- Q. maen ko dini, guwaen i Kelupenit '"Why are you here?" reason your here, said DET little.bat said the little bat.'
- R. endà, guwaen i Kenogon, in=uwit <u>a</u> no said DET maiden PO=bring I

"No," said the maiden, "I was brought by an evil spirit."

mangan etaw spirit being

Q. ngadan angay-an sini selagi what go=FR this drum 'Where is this drum going to?'

R. endà, i=sunggud ku sawa ku no PI=bride.price I wife my 'I am giving it as bride price for my wife.'

In such cases <u>endà</u>, used elsewhere as a negative, is purely a sentence-opening particle. It may be that sentence-final <u>duu</u>, used in such questions as the following, acts similarly to a sentence-closing particle, though elsewhere it has a negative connotation.

angayan ko i duu go you PRT PRT 'Where are you going?'

4.5.3 wé Particle

Like <u>duu</u> and <u>doo</u> the particle <u>wé</u> functions as a clitic, related to the sentence as a whole rather than to any one immediate constituent. It may indicate particular emphasis. In all examples recorded it occurred sentence finally, taking priority over <u>duu</u>, <u>dé</u>, and <u>pa</u> for this position.

yagselapan du wé angayan yu wé météél ka dé wé angayan ko dé wé hiyupi ko wé 'Don't play about!'
'Where are you going?'
'Hurry up!'
'Where are you going?'
'Blow up (the fire)!'

duen pa <u>kugit</u> <u>ko</u> wé there.is PRT matches your PRT 'Have you any matches?'

wé has been found only in command and question constructions.

The objectifying particles <u>siya</u> and <u>iya</u> are often found in the expanded form <u>siya</u> <u>wé</u> and <u>iya</u> <u>wé</u>. No particular meaning can be assigned to <u>wé</u> in either of these cases. It may indicate particular emphasis of the following objectified expression. It is not known whether there is any correlation between this <u>wé</u> and the sentence-final <u>wé</u> already dealt with. (The objectifying particle <u>sidò</u> may expand in a slightly similar fashion to <u>sidòé</u>.)

4.5.4 Distribution of Sentence Particles⁸

4.5.4.1 Group 1: dé and pa

<u>dé</u> and <u>pa</u> are mutually exclusive in their distribution and must be classed together. They occur with a wide range of constructions: actor-subject and non-actor-subject, negative and positive.

4.5.4.2 Group 2: duu and doo

duu and doo are mutually exclusive in their distribution. duu associates for the most part with negative constructions. doo associates with positive constructions. They are rather restricted in their distribution and occur immediately following the central open expression of the utterance or the nuclear substantive of the utterance if there is no open expression. The same is true of group 1 (sec. 4.5.4.1). Group 1 may, however, occur following endà in preverb position; group 2 is never found in this position.

There have been only two recorded utterances in which a member of both groups have occurred together.

**langun dé duu all PRT PRT 'They are all his.' (reply to: 'Are they all his cattle?')

**endà dé egke=tuleng=an ta duu enù ka PRT INR=recall=RF we NEG as RP not

'We cannot recall it, because we have forgotten.'

ne=lipeng ké IPO=forget we

4.5.4.3 Group 3: pelà and endà

pelà is less restricted in its distribution than groups 1 and 2 and may occur elsewhere than immediately following the central open expression or endà though it occurs most commonly in these positions. It has never been found with pa (to which it seems to be semantically related), but has been found with dé.

> <u>ki dé</u> pelà m≃ikù FA=return we PRT still

'Let's go home now.'

sawa endà pelawà duen not yet there.is spouse his 'He has no wife yet.'

pelà is commonly associated with iya and ini in compound expressions indicating immediacy:

ini a pelà egtebow **iya pelà igtebow dini ini a pelà egdineg

'I have just arrived here.' 'He has just arrived here.' 'I have just heard (the news).'

**iya pelà umangay dini

'She'll come here soon.'

4.5.4.4 Group 4: wé

wé may occur with members of groups 1 and 2. The expanded form pelawà may be the result of the combination pelawé followed by vowel harmony. Neither pelà nor pelawà has ever been found in combination with wé.

4.5.5 Speech Particles gaa and guwaen di

Speech relayed from a speaker to a hearer by yet another person is always closed by the particle gaa. Speech so relayed may be command, statement, or question. gaa 'relayed speech particle' and is used only when the original message is immediately relayed.

**duen dé gaa there is PRT reportedly 'There is, she says.'

**me=sakit pa gaa ADJ=ache still reportedly 'Does it hurt, she says.'

pa dini gaa angay ka go you still here reportedly 'Come here, she says.'

Speech reported some time after the event is indicated by the verbal expressions guwaen di 'he/she says'. This expression may be defined as reported speech indicator. It is interpolated with a very high frequency in reported speech, unlike gaa which is used only utterance finally, usually with very short utterances. guwaen di may be interpolated several times within the one sentence. (It is of value in defining word boundaries in the language.)

It has been impossible to record free conversation owing to the length of utterances and the speed of articulation. But from general observation it seems that guwaen di may be interpolated between any of the major ICs of a sentence (but not within a verbal expression). In dictated story text material, usage of the expression is greatly reduced. It precedes or follows the speech. Occasionally it occurs within the speech when it is preceded by the sentence-opening expression endà or some similar expression.

> agulé um=igsà, maen ko dini, guwaen reason your here said then FA=ask

'Then the small bat asked, "Why are you here?"'

kelupenit DET small.bat

endà, guwaen i Kenogon, in=uwit <u>a</u> said DET maiden PO=bring I no

"Oh," said the maiden, "I have been brought (here) by an evil spirit."'

mangan etaw spirit being

4.5.6 Sentence-Final Particle i

Questions are commonly formed by the closing of a statement-type construction with the particle \underline{i} (sometimes expanded to \underline{hih} or \underline{hai} depending on dialectical differences). The particle seems, however, to indicate more commonly a rhetorical query or deference on the part of the speaker.

> <u>a</u> dé i l=um≃ikù go.home=FA=____ I PRT PRT

'Well, I'll be going now.'

**hated=i ko kani i take=IMP you soon PRT

'Take it soon! won't you?' (deferential command)

k=um=aen <u>ki</u> dé i eat=F0=__ we PRT PRT 'Well, let's eat now, will we?'

4.6 Expansions of Sentence

4.6.1 Time

Apart from the rather elusive time indication of the verbal affixes time may be more explicitly indicated by separate expressions. These expressions may be single words, phrases, or clauses.

Time Words

h=in=aa ku <u>Papi</u> <u>ya</u> gina <u>see=PO=</u> I Puppy DET recently 'I saw Puppy a while ago.' 'The shark soon dema etaw sa bekesan gina IPO-become again man DET shark soon became a man again.' 'That spirit got up agulé um=enaw simag siya wé busaw next day.' then FA=get.up tomorrow that DEM spirit 'Come here tomorrow.' angay ka dini simag you here tomorrow 'Then they got up dé simag agulé um=enaw da then FA=get.up they PRT tomorrow next day.' 'Then the taro arose sigep sa ludeng um=enaw at night.' FA=get.up night DET taro 'The brother of the um=enaw simag sa maama sa bayi FA=get.up tomorrow DET man DET woman girl got up next morning.' 'By evening he was dé, tapay doo eg≕tudug **mapun evening PRT still PRT NA=sleep still sleeping.' agulé tapay doo eg=ipanaw <u>sa</u> <u>busaw</u> 'The spirit was still walking.' then still PRT NA=walk DET spirit

sa pintu

**i=begay ku dé kani diyà keniko

NI=give I PRT soon to

agulé iya pelà uka=an da

senga hau=wen da <u>kami</u> ... whenever see=FO they us

agulé s=um=igep, tapay doo <u>sa</u> <u>bayi</u> then <u>night</u>=FA=___ still PRT DET girl

then that just open=FR they DET door

eg=sinegaw NA=cry 'I will give it to you shortly.'

the door.

'Whenever they see us'

'They had just opened

'Night came on. Still the girl cried.'

Single-word time indicators, which can presumably be assigned to descriptive class, may occur sentence initially, sentence finally, or following the verb expression sentence medially. There seem to be subclasses of descriptive time indicators. tapay doo generally precedes the verb. sigep, simag, and allied expressions (dema 'again', igkani 'a brief time', etc.) tend to follow immediately after the verb expression. gina tends to take sentence-final position.

Time Phrases

Time phrases are generally introduced by egoh 'time/appearance':

egoh sigep 'at night, last night' egoh anay 'in the beginning, a long time ago' gona agdaw 'yesterday'

danà di eg-udan egoh sigep by it rain time night 'as a result of its raining last night'

egoh duwa gepadian time two week 'two weeks ago'

Time Clauses

Time clauses are usually introduced by egoh:

egoh hau=wen da <u>si Luminawlaw</u>, time see=FO they DET Luminawlaw 'When they saw Luminawlaw, he was stretched out on his stomach.'

eg=olul NA=stretch

4.6.2 Location

Location may be indicated by single words or phrases.

Location Words

dahedò ---> dadò 'over there, some distance away' dahini ---> déyni ---> dini 'here' 'there (not specific)' dalem dutu 'inside' 'there'

The objectifying expressions \underline{siya} and \underline{sido} are sometimes used to indicate location:

The foregoing location indicators follow the verb expression. They take priority over single-word time indicators for position immediately following the verb expression.

> m=angay a dini simag FA=go I here tomorrow

'I'll come here tomorrow.'

m=angay ki dutu simag FA=go we there tomorrow 'We'll go there tomorrow.'

angay <u>ka</u> dalem go you inside 'Come inside.'

Location Phrases

tukééy kenogon m=angay m=egeso dutu little maiden FA=go FA=fish to

'The little maiden went fishing to the river.'

sidò lawa='t wayeg that body=LIG water

hau-wen di sa utan diyà siya wé see=FO she DET utan on that DEM

'She saw the utan on the top of a stump.'

pulu='t tued top=LIG stump

ne=kelid kenogon i dutu sidò ilis IPO=roll maiden DET to that brink waveg river

'She rolled into the brink of the river.'

agulé t=um=ebow dé dutu sidò kenogon then <u>arrive</u>=FA= PRT at that maiden

'Then he reached the maiden.'

agulé t=um≃ebow dé siya kenogon dò then <u>arrive=FA=____PRT</u> that maiden LOC

'Then he reached the maiden.'

t=um=enà dé tanà go=FA=___ PRT ground

'He went down to the ground.'

agulé ne=nabu sa busaw dutu sidò then IPO=fall DET spirit to that

'Then the spirit fell to the bottom of the waterfall.'

esudan sagpaw bottom waterfall

dé busaw i dutu agulé t=um=ebow then arrive=FA= PRT spirit DET at

'Then the spirit arrived at the house.'

sidò dalesan that house

**um=ukit dé dalem kayukayu FA=pass.thru PRT inside forest

'He went through the forest.'

Dutu with few exceptions requires sido as the objectifying expression of the following substantive. Since sido elsewhere means something at a distance, dutu must indicate movement towards something at a distance. This seems to be borne out by the foregoing examples.

Diyà is rarely followed by sidò but is commonly followed by the objectifier sa. Diyà is essentially stationary in its connotation. This confirms the fact that siya and its reduced form sa are simple objectifiers, unlike sidò and sini, which are used when distance is relevant. This would account for the much greater frequency of sa over the other two objectifiers.

There are interesting abbreviations and expansions of the noun phrases associated with <u>dutu</u> and <u>diya</u>. Postclitic particle <u>d</u>ò (not to be confused with the sentence particle) often associates with the noun head word of a dutu phrase, for example:

> mangay <u>a</u> dutu kenà ku dò go I there place my LOC

'I am going to my place '

Dutu is commonly dropped when this particle is used:

**agulé tumebow dé siya kenogon dò then arrive PRT that maiden LOC

'Then they reached the maiden.'

dò is not used together with the objectifier sidò. The dò of sidò is presumably the same morpheme as the clitic dò.

> m=angay da sidò lawi FA=go they that lean.to theirs

'They go to their lean-to.'

When the noun head word takes a lateral possessive class 5 pronoun, dò commonly stands between the possessive and its head word:

> dé hagdi dò kenà NA=return PRT his LOC place

'Then he went off to his place.'

The combination $\underline{\text{diya}}$ sa commonly alternates with $\underline{\text{da}}$ $\underline{\text{siya}}$, but the combination $\underline{\text{diya}}$ $\underline{\text{siya}}$ is rare. There is a tendency to neutralise the homophony of the two words.

Although \underline{dutu} and \underline{diya} are frequently used, location may be indicated by a noun or noun phrase without an overt valence.

m=angay <u>a</u> pa kenà i okon FA=go I PRT place DET maiden

'I will go to the house of the young girl.'

agulé d=in=alem i kenogon sa biahan <u>sa</u> 'Then the maiden put then <u>put</u>=PO=___ DET maiden DET basket DET the shoot in the basket.'

tugbung shoot

Other Location Indicators

There are several location words which never occur with an objectifying particle in indicating location, but always occur with \underline{dutu} or \underline{do} or the combination dutu do.

dagel 'upcountry, upstream'
dibaba 'downcountry, downstream'
dibaluy 'the other side'

<u>atas</u> also probably belongs to this subclass, the expression <u>daatas</u> 'upstairs' (sometimes heard as <u>diatas</u>) probably being an <u>abbreviation</u> of <u>diya atas</u>.

Compound location indicators include the following expressions:

leket-tanà 'underneath'
leket-atas 'on top, above'
mepokò tanà 'down low, close to the earth'

m=angay <u>a</u> dutu dagel FA=go I to upcountry

'I am going upcountry.'

 'I am going downcountry.'

endà me=tuu <u>di</u>, ka ig=tagù not IFO=trample it as PI=place 'It will not be trampled on as it has been placed underneath.'

leket-tanà underneath

4.6.3 Complex phrases and clauses indicating time, location, and cause

Time and location may be indicated by a subordinate-clause-like expressions. The expressions <u>egoh</u> and <u>kenà</u> respectively stand at the head of these clauses.

m=angay <u>a</u> dutu kenà ku eg=tudug FA=go I to place I NA=sleep 'I am going to the bedroom (where I sleep).'

Since the expression headed by $\underline{\text{kenå}}$ invariably substitutes for a simple substantive, it may be better to regard it as a noun phrase with $\underline{\text{kenå}}$ the head word, which the verb expression is dependent on. This seems to be supported by the postposing of a class $2 < \underline{\text{ku}} > \text{pronoun}$ to $\underline{\text{kenå}}$. This pronoun class indicates possession of substantives (and other functions).

Time clauses introduced by \underline{egoh} are open to a similar choice of interpretations since internally they follow the pattern of \underline{kena} expressions though they usually substitute for simple time descriptive class words rather than substantives.

k=um=aen <u>da</u> dema, egoh da eg=beli <u>eat</u>=FA=____ they again time they NA=buy uton fish

'They will eat again when they buy fish.'

An <u>egoh</u> expression substitutes in the substantive position in the following sentence, but the time element seems to be a subordinate feature.

me=tiig \underline{ka} eg=atuatu siya egoh di IFO=know you NA=judge that time it

'You know how to judge when it is full.'

egke=penù INO=full

The time element is more definite in the following:

endà ne=sugat di, sa ke=bael, egoh muna 'It was not right not IPO=right it DET DRV=make time first when it was first made.'

b=in=ael=an make=PR=__=RF

Cause may be indicated by similar constructions introduced by $\underline{\text{dan}}$ 'by':

ne=daig <u>ka</u>, danà ko eg=sabà apuy IPO=burn you by you NA=hold fire 'You were burnt by holding the fire.'

**ne=genaw=an danà di mig=angay dutu IPR=cold=RF by he PA=go to

'He caught malaria from his going to Kulaman.'

Kulaman Kulaman

**ne=bilanggu egoh anay danà di eg=tigbas IPO=imprison when first by he NA=cut.up 'He was imprisoned for hacking up a Japanese.'

Apun Japanese

Unlike <u>kenà</u> and <u>egoh</u>, <u>danà</u> is not an objectified expression. It is not the head word of the expression but is a valence-carrying morpheme linking the verb of the <u>danà</u> expression to the nuclear open expression of the sentence. The <u>danà</u> expression, however, can substitute for a simple substantive like the <u>egoh</u> and <u>kenà</u> expressions.

mine=laeb <u>siya lepò</u> danà apuy IPO=wilt that coconut by fire 'The coconut tree has been wilted by the fire.'

egke=kiling <u>sa tanà</u> danà i Nemula INO=spin DET earth by DET Nemula 'The earth has been set spinning by God.'

egke=kiling i Nemula <u>sa tanà</u> INO=spin DET God DET earth 'The earth has been set spinning by God.'

Some subordinate constructions are unambiguously clauses. These clauses are related back to the main clause by such expressions as:

ani 'in order that' ka, enù ka 'becausc' amuk 'if, when' huenan di 'for this reason'

<u>huenan</u> <u>di</u> stands clause finally preceded by a slight pause. The other expressions stand at the head of the clause.

ani followed by eg- elides to give anig- in normal speech, for example, ani eg-angay dini ---> anigangay dini.

eg=lidung <u>a</u> ka duen batà di, NA=hide I as there.is child his 'I am hiding because his child is following me.'

eg=lohot=en di <u>aken</u> NO=follow=OF he me endà peke=ipanaw di ka ne=polot not INA=walk he as INO=bind 'He can't move about because he is bound.'

eg=umow=en ku sa sawa ku ani eg=angay 'I am calling my wife NO=call=OF I DET wife my so.that NA=go

to come here to be given medicine.'

dini pe=bulung here CA=medicine

<u>sa manuk</u> anì t=in=alun release=PO=____ DET hen so.that egpeke=kaen INA=eat

'The hen has been released so that it can be fed.'

eg=tipak=en ku <u>sa kayu</u>; dakel, NO=cut.down=OF I DET wood big

'I am paring down the wood; it is too big.'

huenan di reason its

**amuk k=um=e=dakel, d=um=uen <u>bulbul</u> <u>di</u> when DRV=FA= =big be=FA= hair its

'When it becomes big, it will have hair.'

endà meke=kaen ké, amuk endà duen kayu not IFA=eat we if not there is wood (for our

'We can't eat unless fire).'

Single words may substitute in the slots marked by these subordinating These single words are usually open verbal expressions with a zero third-person subject and must be given the status of full clauses. Single objectified expressions may, however, substitute in these slots.

> eg=hemued=en ki kilat, ka duma ta NO=bite=OF we lightning as relatives our by lightning (for such

'We would be struck an act) as they are our relations.'

Such substitution of an objectified expression cannot occur in a clause introduced by ani.

4.6.4 Time and location words as major open expressions

Time and location are generally indicated by lateral items. Occasionally, however, such an item may function as the nuclear open expression of the sentence.

simag a pa tomorrow I still

'I will be back tomorrow.'

simag <u>a</u> pa t=um=elaki tomorrow I still folktale=FA-____

'I will tell the folktale tomorrow.'

dutu dé <u>Mundi a</u>, eg=lagbas dé there PRT Mundi DET NA=pass.by PRT

'There goes Mundi now passing.'

dò. sekepadiyan ka dutu kenà ko one.week you to place your LOC

'You had been gone one week on your way home when she died.'

**ne=matay dé IPO=die PRT

4.7 Derivational affixes

4.7.1 pig-

The prefix pig- can best be translated 'to go about looking for':

eg=pig=bayi Papi ya NA=SRC=women Puppy DET 'Puppy is out looking for female dogs.'

p=in=ig=sagé=én ku siy<u>a wé</u> ayap SRC=PO=___=tide.line=OF I that DEM shell

'I went along the tide line looking for shells.'

dagat sea

piglaget 'to look for tobacco leaf' pigkayu 'to go to collect wood' pigposot 'look for betel nut,' 'look for fleas' pigkutu

The prefix eg- precedes pig- to indicate the direction of travel.

eg=pig=kulaman a NA=SRC=Kulaman I

'I am going up to Kulaman.'

4.7.2 lig-

lig- is found in a number of stems. No meaning can be assigned to it. It is presumably an inactive morph, a historical residue.

ligtuwa 'waterfall'
ligkubung 'to pull dress up over head'
ligpuwak 'to topple off from a height'
egpeligboyot 'to speak slowly and deliberately'

4.7.3 <u>li</u>-

<u>li</u>- is found in a number of verbal expressions, for example:

kumeliwayeg 'to become saturated with water' (from wayeg 'water')
melimeket 'to be sticky' (from peneket 'stick to')
egkelimedang 'to be afraid' (from nemedang)
egkelimahan 'to put to rights/fix up'.

4.7.4 mekepe-

<u>meke-</u> never occurs with $\langle -\underline{en} \rangle$, $\langle -\underline{un} - \rangle$, or $\langle \underline{i} - \rangle$ affix sets. It has been found occasionally in combination with the prefix pe-.

endà pa meke=pe=tebek <u>di</u> not yet IFA=CA=inject he 'He has not yet been injected.'

endà meke=pe=tulad <u>ké</u> not IFA=CA=photograph we 'Aren't we going to be photographed?'

The affix <u>pe</u>- transforms the <u>meke</u>- expression into a distinctly passive construction in which the action of some other person or agent reflects back on the subject. (See also sec. 1.4 on causative constructions.)

4.7.5 -umin-

-umin- is not an uncommon infix. The constructions in which it has been found have been actor-subject and intransitive. There is no evidence to suggest, however, that all -umin- constructions must be intransitive. The meaning of the affix is not certain. It has usually been associated with comments concerning some activity immediately after the event.

**l=umin=away eg=legkang diyà sedep <u>fly</u>=PA=___ NA=leave from under.house '(The hen) just flew off from under the house.'

**1=umin=ayang kedu dahini jump=PA=___ from here 'He (the kitten) just jumped from here.'

t=umin=ayagpes <u>a</u> doo clear.land=PA= <u>I</u> indeed

'I have just been clearing land.'

me=pion ka t=umin=ebow <u>ka</u>
ADJ=good because <u>arrive=PA=______</u> you

'It is good that you have just come.' .

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4.7.6 kepe- -an

The <u>kepe--an</u> combination of affixes has been found only once, with the root <u>unut</u> 'to accompany'.

egke=pe=unut=an ku <u>sa</u> <u>kelamag</u>
INR=CA=accompany=RF I DET wind

'I follow the wind (in my canoe).'

In the foregoing expression the wind is implied as the active agent, but definite participation of the agent is also implied. An exact translation of the affix combination is not possible.

4.7.7 tege-

tege- indicates constant or habitual action:

tegekadì 'to annoy all the time'
tegeantang 'one who presides at a dispute or meeting'
tegeketket 'to gnaw all the time'
tegepelihayen i Simag Tilikan na 'Tilikan is always teased by
Simag.'

4.7.8 tig-

tig- implies a restricted repetitive action:

mine=tig=pokò=pokò siya batang IPO=DIST=short=short that log 'The log broke into many short pieces.'

eg=tig=disek=isek=en da pelà NO=DIST=little=little=OF they still sa usa DET animal 'They are just cutting up the meat into small pieces.'

 $\underline{\text{tig}}$ is often affixed to numerals to produce the following constructions:

tig=lima=wen ta kenita DIST=five=FO we us 'Each of us took five pieces each.'

**ne=tig=duwa kenami IPO=DIST=two we 'We each received two.'

**tig=duwa=ay gulé eg=tepi=yen DIST=two=RC times NO=split=OF 'Each is to be split into two.' (or, split twice.) tig=lima=way gesaw DIST=five=RC rafters 'The rafters are to be arranged in five groups along the roof.'

The affix \underline{sig} is somewhat related in function referring to only object:

**sig=bagkes=bagkes=ay kenagda DIST=one.binding=one.binding=RC they

'Each received one bundle.'

ne=sig=baen <u>da</u> IPO=DIST=one they 'They were distributed one to each parent.'

**eg=sig=baen=baen=en ku <u>sa</u> <u>tablin</u>, endà NO=DIST=one=one=OF I DET tablet not 'I take the tablets one at a time, not all at once.'

eg=lengon=en ku duu NO=all=OF I NEG

4.7.9 se-

 \underline{se} — enters into a rather diverse group of constructions. It is difficult to define its exact function. With many of the constructions, however, it is possible to postulate the role of unity: unity of time, unity of place, unity of action, etc. This would suggest identity with the cardinal numeral \underline{ise} 'one', which as a descriptive of nouns is \underline{sa} , valenced to the following noun by the ligature ge-.

se--ay indicates reciprocal action. This may be regarded as unity of action, both actors being involved in the same activity in the same place at the same time. The construction may be reciprocally intransitive or reciprocally transitive.

eg=se=bulit=ay <u>da</u> NA=RC=angry=RC they 'They are angry with each other.'

eg=se=tipon=oy <u>da</u> NA=RC=gather=RC they 'They are all gathered together.'

eg=se=tépéd=éy <u>da</u> NA=RC=sit.beside=RC they

'They are all sitting side by side.'

It will be noted from these examples that the suffix consists of phonologically conditioned allomorphs: $-\underline{\acute{e}y}$ and $-\underline{o}y$ following stems in which the vowels of the final syllable are $\underline{\acute{e}}$ and \underline{o} respectively, $-\underline{a}y$ occurring elsewhere.

Additional examples of the intransitive reciprocal type are:

eg=se=ikagi=yay <u>da</u> NA=RC=speak=RC they

'They are speaking to each other.'

eg=se=taked=ay <u>da</u>, sa ebos NA=RC=heel=RC they DET roosters

'The roosters are fighting.'

In transitive reciprocal constructions a third party (nonsubject) is the object of the reciprocal activity.

> eg=se=penakaw=ay <u>da</u>='t NA=RC=steal=RC they=LIG land

'They steal the land from each other.'

katilà eg=se=tabang=ay ki t=um=udak NA=RC=help=RC we plant=FA= swt.potato plant sweet potato.'

'We help each other

eg=se=tinudu=ay da='t belad NA=RC=point=RC they=LIG hands

'They point at each other.'

<u>se</u>- also enters into combination with the affix sets $\langle -\underline{u}\underline{m} - \rangle$, $\langle -\underline{e}\underline{n} - \rangle$, and $\langle -an \rangle$. It has not yet been found in combination with set $\langle i- \rangle$.

Only a few sume-constructions have been recorded. Most have been transitively reciprocal, the reciprocity involving the activity of the object, the subject initiating the activity. Such a construction permits a singular subject. (Plurality of subject is essential with se--ay constructions.)

> sume=tipon <u>a</u> etaw; t=um=egudon sume=tipon <u>a</u> etaw; t=um=egudon <u>a</u> FAREP=gather I people <u>tell.story=FA=___I</u>

'I'll have the people gather together; I intend to tell a story.'

sume=buteng ki='t kudà FAREP=bite we=LIG horse

'We'll organise a horse fight.' (We'll set the horses fighting.)

egse=taked a duwa manuk NOREP=heel I two chicken

'I'll set the two chickens to fighting (striking) with the spur of the heel)'.

sume=sugù <u>ké</u> kenagda eg=se=ludeg=ay NA=RC=wrestle=RC FAREP=request we them

'We'll ask them to wrestle together.'

In one instance the unity or reciprocity seems to involve a one-for-one correlation between subject and object.

sume=kuyà <u>ki</u> sa kudà FAREP=pursue we DET horse 'We go after the horses, one person after each horse.'

*sumekuyà a sa kudà is impermissible.

se--en is the most common of the se- constructions and is essentially goal-subject. Reciprocity is often a feature of such constructions, the reciprocating or reciprocated members being the subject of the construction while another party initiates the activity. This parallels the <pe--en> construction already dealt with in which some person (not the subject) causes another person or thing (the subject) to perform the action implied by the verb root.

Typical examples of this type are:

egse=limud=en ku pa <u>kagda</u> da Fléd da 'I'll get them to NOREP=crowd.in=OF I PRT them to Fred PRT gather together to Fred.'

egse=hau=wen da \underline{kagda} 'They brought them NOREP=see=OF they they face to face.'

egse=liyu=wen ku <u>sa</u> <u>bangku</u> 'I'll change the NOREP=behind=OF I DET stools stools around.'

egse=sugu=en ku <u>kiyu</u> eg=se=balbal=ay 'I have ordered you NOREP=order=OF I you NA=RC=beat=RC to beat each other.'

The reciprocity may, however, obtain between the nonsubject agents of the action.

egse=penakaw=en da <u>sa ungéh</u> diatas 'They (the cats) are NOREP=snatch=OF they DET rat upstairs playing with the mouse upstairs.'

egse=penakaw=en da <u>sa tanà</u> 'They snatch the land NOREP=snatch=OF they DET land from each other.'

In the following expression there is no reciprocity between the subject items. The reciprocity may, however, be in the action of one person who buys from another person who initiates or requests the action. It is essentially a closed process involving no outside party. A $\langle pe--en \rangle$ construction would involve a first party getting another party to buy from still another party. This se--en construction is a process involving only two parties, the first party getting the second party to buy from the first party.

egse=beli=yen di <u>siya manuk</u> diyà keniko 'He got you to buy NOREP=buy=OF he that chicken to you the chicken from him.'

Uniting action rather than reciprocity is implied in the following:

egse=tepeng=en ku <u>sa elé</u> NOREP=measure=OF I DET kunai 'I will even up the kunai (cogon) grass.'

Here the bundles of grass cut for roofing are jostled to bring the stem ends uniformly together. The simple goal-subject expression is:

eg=tepeng=en ku <u>sini unol</u> NO=measure=OF I this snake 'I will measure this unol snake.'

Here the snake is measured by placing a measuring rod alongside it.

Contrasting the two sentences with the same root serves to emphasise the unity connotation of \underline{se} -.

Somewhat the same feature is involved in the following:

egse=tipon ku <u>sa me=doo latà</u> NOREP=gather I DET ADJ=many tins 'I gather the tins together (in one spot).'

egse=dapag=en da <u>sa</u> <u>dawat</u> NOREP=near=OF they DET pens 'They place the pens close together.'

Unity in these sentences may be defined as "togetherness." Togetherness is also indicated in the following expressions:

egse=lapin=en di <u>sa</u> <u>libi</u> NOREP=layer=OF he DET libi 'He is interlaying the <u>libi</u> palm leaves.'

egse=sumpat=en i Piping <u>sa gesaw</u> NOREP=overlap=OF DET Piping DET rafters 'Piping will overlap the ends of the rafter poles.'

Negation of togetherness is indicated in the following expressions in which the unitedness refers to the subject items:

egse=talak=en ta <u>sa</u> <u>labit</u>
NOREP=place.apart=OF we DET rabbits

'We'll place the rabbits in separate compartments.'

The function of se- with other roots is not always clear as in:

amuk duen kelang, m=igsa <u>sa sebaen</u> 'If corn is in, if there.is corn FA=ask DET another another person may ask (if there is any).'

<u>etaw</u> person

**endà, guwaen ta i, sine=kaen ké dé no say we POREP=eat we PRT "No," we say, "we have eaten it."

It would seem from the context that all the corn has been eaten. (Unity may be implied in the completeness of the act.) The same interpretation may hold for more ambiguous sentences.

sa miyong, egse=kaen=en di <u>siya me=doo</u> 'The cat is eating a DET cat NOREP=eat=OF he that ADJ=many lot of paper.'

<u>kelatas</u> paper

With godoy 'to drag', se-seems to indicate unity, the agent dragging one object, or a group of agents each dragging one thing.

egse=godoy=en ku <u>sa talumpà ku</u> NOREP=drag=OF I DET sandal my 'I'm dragging my sandal along.'

egse=godoy=en i Mali <u>Papi ya</u> NOREP=drag=OF DET Marie <u>Puppy</u> DET

'Puppy is being dragged along by Marie.'

egse=godoy=en ké <u>sa</u> <u>apus</u> NOREP=drag=OF we DET bamboo 'We dragged the apus bamboo down.'

sine=godoy i Papi <u>sa miyong</u> POREP=drag=OF DET Puppy DET cat 'Puppy is dragging the cat along.'

With other roots the role of \underline{se} is even more difficult to define, its omission having little if any effect on the construction.

egse=ketket=en di <u>sa kayu</u> NOREP=gnaw=OF he DET wood 'It (the rabbit) is gnawing at the wood.'

egse=pegeni=yen da diyâ keniko \underline{sa} \underline{kulta} 'They are asking you NOREP=beg=0F they to you \overline{DET} money for money.'

unified se- -an is an affix combination indicating reciprocal or action by agents operating on another party, the subject.

> egse-oyong-on da eg-uwit makina da NOREP=carry=OF they NA=bring machine their

'They are carrying the machine between them at each end.'

**egse=bulig=an ta eg=hanet NRREP=help=RF we NA=lift

'We help each other to lift (it).'

egse=limud=an da aken NRREP=crowd=RF they me

'They crowd in upon me.'

**egse=dibaluy=an ta eg=tutuk NRREP=opposite.side=RF we NA=nail

'We nail together from both sides at once.'

egse=ugpu=wan da eg=hemued sa ungéh NRREP=end=RF they NA=bite DET rat

'They are biting at the rat from both ends.'

egse=tagped=an ta sa timun NRREP=cut=RF we DET cucumber

'We cut the cucumber and take half each.'

Another use of <u>se-</u> is in combination with the affixes <u>ke-</u>, <u>me-</u>, and <u>pe-</u>, respectively. The resulting combinations are rarely found with the affix sets $\langle -en \rangle$, $\langle -an \rangle$, or $\langle \underline{i} - \rangle$. Each of the combinations conveys a sense of togetherness and/or reciprocity.

<u>ke</u>-

egkese=tubeltubel da egke=matay NREC=die.in.epidemic they INO=die

'They died one after the other.'

egkese=unut da, sa sayap NREC=accompany they DET hat

'The hats fell down one behind the other.'

egkese=hidu yu NREC=love you 'You love each other.'

me-

nese=tipon ki dalem PREC=gather we inside

'We gathered together inside.'

**nese=tepeng PREC=same

'It is the same, of like nature.'

nese=dugkul <u>ki</u> PREC=bump we 'We bumped together.'

<u>pe-</u>-

amuk etaw duen épél ku, if person there.is bro-in-law my 'If there is a person, my brother-in-law, I will go (to him).'

eg=angay \underline{a} dutu NA=go I there

eg=se=pe=sunggud=ay $\underline{k\acute{e}}$, enù ka tebay NA=RC=CA=bride.price=RC we, as RP sister

'I will have him exchange bride price items, because my sister is his wife.'

ku duen sawa di my there.is wife his

egpesesungguday <u>ké</u> is said to mean the same as <u>egpesungguden ku sa epél</u> <u>ku</u> 'I will get my brother-in-law to give me bride price items'.

eg=pe=se=bulig \underline{a} keniyu NA=CA=RC=help \overline{I} you

'I'll get you to help me.'

eg=pe=se=uwit=uwit $\underline{k}\underline{e}$ dalem owong endà NA=CA=RC=bring=bring we in canoe not

'We will be carried along in the canoe; we won't paddle.' (The wind will take us.)

eg=pula ké NA=paddle we

eg=pe=se=limud <u>ké</u> melaweng etaw NA=CA=RC=crowd we many people 'We will be crowded in by many people.'

In these $\underline{\text{pese}}$ constructions the subject is the goal of an action. Togetherness or reciprocity is detectable in most cases.

The following are examples of one of the foregoing combinations in association with a non-actor-subject affix.

**nese=dibaluy=an eg=tutuk PREC=opposite.side=RF NA=nail 'It has been nailed from both sides.'

éhé siya labit, pe=se=amut=en ku kagda e.g. that rabbit CA=FOREP=mix=FO I them 'For instance, the rabbits, I will have them put together.'

4.8 Other derivation for stem formation

4.8.1 Substantives

The majority of substantives are free roots. It is characteristic of Cotabato Manobo, as well as all other Filipino dialects, that roots which function in isolation as substantives with few exceptions may become stems for verbal expressions. Even town names may function as verb stems, for example, egpigkulaman 'to go to Kulaman'.

The possessive pronoun <u>hagdi</u> has been found as a verb root:

hagdi=yen di kita his=F0 he us

'He'll take us for his own.'

Another example of a substantive becoming a verb stem is shown in the following:

> 'times, multiple' gulé 'one, one time' segulé egseguléen sa duwa 'two taken one at a time'

Substantives may be derived by affixation from roots which are verbal, that is, roots not found in isolation as substantives).

Affixation of ke- to a root produces a substantive which is a nominalised active or stative verb expression:

> telu agdaw pa ke=dagpak i emà ku three day yet DRV=arrival of father my

'My father will arrive here in three days.'

a hagdi ke=bigkat

'I would like to see how they walk.'

**diyà ke=dakel i Papi DRV=big DET Puppy to

'He is as big as Puppy.'

egpeke=sapel sa ke=buung ko INO=rebound DET DRV=throw your

'The thing you threw rebounded on you.'

ani me=pion sa ke=lengà di so.that ADJ=good DET DRV=release its

'... so that it will be easy to release.'

iya ke=diyù <u>di ya</u> that DRV=distant its

'That is how far it is away.'

Affixation of -an to an open expression produces a substantive indicating location or place:

mangay <u>a</u> dagat dò go I sea LOC 'I am going to the sea.'

angayan ko ya go you PRT 'Where are you going?'

egdanan <u>a</u> rest.head I 'I rest my head down on something.'

dananan

'pillow'

kedu <u>a</u> kenà ku dò from I place my LOC 'I have come from my house.'

keduwan ko ya from you PRT 'Where are you from?'

Affixation of either of the goal-subject affixes <u>-en</u> and <u>-in-</u> to an open (verbal) root, or to a root which may function without affixes as a simple substantive, commonly produces simple derived substantives:

egkelu 'to cut weeds' ---> kelu 'bolo'

---> keluwen 'weeds'

egtibah 'to clear land' ---> tinibah 'farm clearing'

sigpù 'spear' ---> sinigpù 'arrow with spearlike head'

sagpeng 'lid' ---> sinagpeng 'basket with lid'

eglugab 'to cook in water' ---> linugab 'cooked food'

tusù 'pointed spiral shell' ---> tinusù 'brass belt'

kaen 'eat' ---> kaenen 'food'

egtudug 'to sleep' ---> tinudug 'sleep'

endà duen tinudug ku egoh sigep 'I did not sleep last night.'

Verbal expressions may be objectified by preposing an objectifying $\langle \underline{sa} \rangle$ particle:

eglinadu 'to be sick' sa eglinadu 'a sick person'

egbaba 'to carry on back' sa egbaba kenak 'someone to carry me'

egbegay 'to give' sak binegayan ko timus 'the one to whom you gave salt'

beken duu pulow siya egbuung not NEG owl the throw 'It is not an owl that hurls things.'

Substantives derived by the objectifying of clauses will be referred to as compound substantives.

Simple substantives may also be derived by double affixation:

salà 'sin, wrongdoing, crime' kesalaan 'payment for crime, fine'

egtulù 'to teach'

sa ketulù 'the act of teaching'
sa kepetulù 'the act of being taught'

unut 'to accompany/to follow/to obey'

keunutan 'leader'

iya ke=unut=an da diyà Kulaman, 'Mamu is their leader that DRV=accompany=RF they at Kulaman at Kulaman.'

<u>si</u> <u>Mamu</u> DET Mamu

4.8.2 Reduplication

Reduplication of a root usually implies lesser intensity of quality or purpose in an open expression. [Underlining here shows root reduplication rather than subject as in examples in the rest of the article.-Ed.]

<u>m=ipanaw</u> a dutu dagat dò FA=travel I to coast LOC 'I am going to the coast.'

eg=ipanaw=panaw a NA=travel=travel I 'I am just walking about (going nowhere in particular).'

me=tiig=tiig ka dé eg=ikagi Menubù IFO=know=know you PRT NA=speak Manobo 'You know a little how to speak Manobo.'

me=tiig a eg=duyuy IFO=know I NA=sing 'I know how to sing.'

<u>eg=patay=patay</u> sa legleg di NA=die=die DET flame its 'Its flame is dying slowly.'

ne=matay da doo IPO=die they PRT 'They died.'

miitem 'black' miitem-item 'slightly black' diisek 'little' diisek isek 'somewhat small'

Reduplication of an open expression occasionally indicates frequent repetition or prolongation:

egpelepenglepeng 'pop its head in and out of container'
egliguligu 'to go round and round in circles'
egpegtotpegtot 'to hop or canter along bobbing up and
down'

Reduplication of objectified expressions usually indicates plurality:

saging 'banana' sagingsaging 'a plantation of bananas' libutà 'mud' libutàbutà 'an expanse of mud' sugud 'plain' sugudsugud 'an expanse of plains' katilà 'sweet potato' katilàtilà 'a field of sweet potato'

In general plural is not indicated either in the verb expression or the substantive. It is inferred from the context.

4.9 Phrases

4.9.1 Descriptive <--- descriptive

The descriptive <--- descriptive constitute [indicated by underlining in the following examples] is occasionally found:

senga simag duen dema salà di 'Every morning he is every morning there.is again evil his wicked over again.'

senga simag 'every morning'

duen etaw dutu, me=doo temù 'There are people there.is people there ADJ=many very there, very many of them.'

me=doo temù 'very many' very

4.9.2 Comparative construction

Comparison is usually indicated by the expression $\underline{\text{diya}}$.

me=bagel pa kedungon diyà libi 'Abaca is stronger ADJ=strong yet abaca to libi than libi palm.'

**diyà ke=dakel kenagdi to DRV=big him 'It is as big as he.'

uman=uman pa ke≈dakel di dahini more=more yet DRV=big it here

'It (the tablet) is a bit bigger than this one here.'

NOTES

1. The material on which this analysis of Cotabato Manobo is based was collected during one year's residence (1956-57) in the community of Datu Mama Undas. It was obtained in the normal course of daily activity non-English speakers who spoke Cotabato Manobo as their first language. Most of the material was collected from members of the local territorial group and from our houseboys, Mundi, Umpit, and Atudan. A considerable amount of useful material was collected from Datu Mama Undas. In the final six weeks more systematic work was undertaken, especially with our eldest house boy, Umpit. He was a lad of exceptional intelligence who, though illiterate at the time, learned to read and write his own language after two months of training. A number of folktales were collected from him.

Particular thanks are due to the Summer Institute of Linguistics, under whose auspices this work was undertaken, and to its various members in the Philippines (R.E. Elkins, F.B. Dawson, and others) whose studies of related dialects have helped greatly to an understanding of Cotabato Manobo. Special thanks are also due to those members of the organization, Drs. Pittman, and H.P. McKaughan, to whom the author owes his K.L. Pike. R.S. training in linguistics during their terms as Principal at successive sessions of the Summer School of Linguistics held in Australia since 1950.

[Ross Errington, an S.I.L. researcher among the Cotabato Manobo since 1976, suggested the publication of Kerr's "Cotabato Manobo Grammar" and has contributed much editorial help. The initials R.E. at the end of bracketed material in this study indicate that it was contributed Errington.--Ed.]

- 2. In all vernacular examples the subject of a sentence will be underlined. If the subject is a zero third person singular, this will be indicated by a double asterisk.
- 3. [The present continuous affix is called neutral time aspect in the examples, following the terminology of Johnston (1975).--R.E.]
- 4. Following the standard convention, impermissible constructions will be indicated by a single asterisk.
- 5. hauwen is the goal-subject form of the root haa 'to see'.
- 6. manà is the -um- form of the root panà 'to shoot with a bow'.
- 7. [Later analysis revealed that yaka is used for a singular negative command, and yoko is used for plural, for example:

yaka eg=ipanaw wa don't NA=travel NEG 'Don't (singular) go.'

yoko eg=ipanaw wa don't NA=travel NEG

'Don't (plural) go.'

Negative non-actor-subject commands use the particle <u>duu</u> to mark the goal or referent subject constituent, for example:

yaka eg=bigà duu sa sawa di 'Don't commit adultery with his don't NO=adultery NEG DET spouse his wife.' -R.E.]

8. It is interesting to note that single objectified expressions may comprise a nuclear constituent of an utterance with no other overt nuclear IC if one of the sentence particles stands with it:

kuna pa 'You go on. It's your turn.' kenà di dé 'Where is he?'

APPENDIX: COTABATO MANOBO PHONOLOGY

The phonemes of the Cotabato Manobo language are listed here to show the phonetic, phonemic, and practical orthography. (See also Lyman 1971.) In this appendix, glottal stop is written as ?; normally glottal stop is unwritten except at word-final position, in which case it is written with a grave accent mark (`). All phonemes are produced with eggressive lung air. All vowel phonemes are voiced.

Phonetic	Phonemic	Practical	Illustration
$[a], [\Lambda]$	/a/	a	alat 'open woven basket'
[b]	/b/	ь	bata? 'child'
[k], [k]	/k/	k	kayu 'wood'
[d]	/d/	d	dalid 'eagle'
[8]	/ε/	е	ebel 'smoke'
[ə] [e]	/ə/	é	épé? 'master'
[g]	/g/	g	gatas 'milk'
[h]	/h/	ĥ	habet 'carrying sling'
[i], [l]	/1/	i	iyug 'back'
[1]	/1/	1	lepo? 'coconut'
[m]	/m/	m	mata 'eye'
[n]	/n/	n	nanas 'pineapple'
[ŋ]	/ŋ/	ng	ngipen 'teeth'
[ŝ], [š]	/ŝ/	0	owong 'canoe'
[p]	/ p /	p	pali? 'wound'
[s]	/s/	S	sapi? 'cow'
[t]	/t/	t	tabu? 'cup'
[u], [v]	/u/	u	ubal 'monkey'
[w]	/w/	W	wayeg 'water'
[y]	/y/	y	yu 'you (plural)'
[3]	/?/	`	pi?pi? 'to wash'

The following chart shows the position and manner of articulation of phonemes, vl indicates voicelessness and vd voicing. Allophones are in brackets.

CONSONANTS:

Manner	Point of Articulation			
of Articulation	Bilabial	Alveolar	Velar	Glottal
Stop: vl vd	b	t d	k g	?
Fricative: vl	þ	s		h
Nasal: vd	я	n	ŋ	
Lateral: vd		1		
nonsyllabic vocoids	W	У		

VOWELS:

		Front Unrounded	Mid Unrounded	Back Rounded
High:	Close Open	i [i] [t]		u [u] (v)
Mid:	Close Open	ε [e] [ε]	[6] 6 [4]	ĵ [ŝ]
Low:	Close Open		a [a]	[č]

Description of Consonants

Stops: There are three voiceless stops, \underline{t} , \underline{k} , and $\underline{?}$, which are articulated at the alveolar, velar, and glottal points respectively. \underline{k} has two allophones, [k] and backed voiceless velar [k]. [k] occurs infrequently (and only with some speakers), contiguous to the vocoid $[\mathring{\mathfrak{I}}]$, or possibly in association with the vowel sequence $[\mathring{\mathfrak{I}}] + [\mathring{\mathfrak{I}}]$, or $[\mathring{\mathfrak{I}}] + [\mathring{\mathfrak{I}}]$. New literates had no difficulty in writing or reading the phoneme \underline{k} , which added weight to the conclusion that [k] and [k] are allophones. Examples:

[kɔ̃nɔ̃k] /kɔ̂nɔ̂k/ konok 'white ants' [si²ɔ̈kɔ²] /si²ɔ̂kɔ̂²/ si²oko² 'wasp'

There are three voiced stops, \underline{b} , \underline{d} , and \underline{g} , articulated at the bilabial, alveolar, and velar points respectively.

Stop Contrasts:

t and d	tana? dana?	'earth' 'by'	dalit dalid	'hawk, eagle' 'root'
·		'stringed instrument' 'nearly'		'noose' 'a slope'
$\underline{\mathbf{k}}$ and $\underline{\mathbf{r}}$		'pesos' 'type of ant'		'to keep' 'to pass by'
		'bird species' 'very'		'jack fruit' 'to whisper because of laryngitis'
\underline{k} and \underline{g}		'offspring' 'to hit target'	_	'corn' 'stalk of fungus'
		'waste tissue' 'to be pursued'		'ridge of hill' 'to sleep'
<u>?</u> and <u>g</u>		'sea turtle' 'a small tree'		'frying pan' 'to bite skin with- out puncturing'
	_	'tomorrow' 'small projecting piece on bolo, etc.'	lénég lésé?	'slow' 'to crackle'

Fricatives: There are three voiceless fricatives, p, s and h, articulated at the bilabial, alveolar, and glottal points respectively.

Fricative Contrasts:

<u>h</u> and ?	bagah 'glowing coal' baga? 'lungs'	pelah 'back of tongue' pela? 'underarm'
	bulah 'debris dropping into eye'	luhub 'to pull on clothes'
	bula [?] 'white'	lu ² eb 'cylinder for storing arrows'

Nasals: There are three voiced nasals, m, n, and ng, which are articulated at the bilabial, alveolar, and velar points respectively.

Nasal Contrasts:

n and ng dalan 'path' sambi?an 'to exchange' delang 'tree species' sambi?ang 'mouth of river'

nigu 'winnowing basket' tuntun 'to hand down' ngibu 'thousand' tungsung 'firefly'

<u>Laterals</u>: There is only one lateral, $\underline{1}$, which is voiced and articulated at the alveolar point.

Nonsyllabic Vocoids: There are two nonsyllabic vocoids. The voiced high back close rounded \underline{w} has been interpreted as a bilabial consonant. The voiced high front close unrounded \underline{y} has been interpreted as an alveolar consonant.

Description of Vowels

Front Vowels (i and é): i has two allophones: high, close, unrounded vocoid [i] and high, open, unrounded vocoid [ι]. [ι] is restricted in its occurrence to closed syllables, that is, CVC syllables. [i] occurs in positions other than in closed syllables. (In the following examples syllable boundaries are indicated by a period.)

```
[pun.tut] /pintit/ pintit 'a small duck'
[li.put] /lipit/ lipit 'a peg or clip'
[li.hi] /lihi/ lihi 'bad luck'
[si.lun] /silin/ siling 'spirit beings of the water'.
```

 $\underline{\epsilon}$ has two allophones, mid, open, unrounded vocoid $[\epsilon]$ and mid, close, unrounded vocoid $[\epsilon]$. $[\epsilon]$ occurs only following \underline{k} in open syllables (CV syllables); $[\epsilon]$ occurs elsewhere. Examples:

```
[be.be?]
           /bebe?/
                     bébé?
                              'grandparent'
[ke.gət]
           /kegət/
                     kégét
                              'to squeak'
                              'lying part in the water'
[ke.b£ŋ]
           /keben/
                     kébéng
                              'to hold with thumb and finger'
                     kémét
[ke.m€t]
           /kemet/
```

<u>i</u> <u>and é Contrasts</u>:

'we incl'

kі

```
'we excl'
                                beté?
                                        'to crackle'
ké
legpi? 'to fold end to end'
                                di
                                       'he'
legpé? 'to follow contour
                                dé
                                       particle
         of hill'
                                       'to quiver (at tip of nose)'
kilkil 'to master'
                               kuwi?
kélkél 'a rasp for wood'
                               kuwék
                                       'to squeal'
```

beti?

'loop'

Mid Vowels (e and a): e is a mid, close unrounded vocoid.

e and é Contrasts:

```
'to brace, prop'
                              tugek
kelet 'close together'
                              tugék
                                      'to break down'
kelét 'species of bird'
                              beleté? 'small red ant'
      'to splash out'
lebés
lébéd 'to crawl (insect)'
                              belésé? 'species of bird'
pengké 'name of woman'
                              lesék
                                      'to dive under water'
                                      'to lay ears back (dog)'
                              lepé?
béngké? 'mumps'
```

a has two allphones: low, open, unrounded, vocoid [a] and mid, open, unrounded vocoid [A]. [A] occurs only preceding glottal stop or \underline{h} ; [a] occurs elsewhere. Examples:

```
[ba.tx?] /bata?/ bata?
                         'child'
                         'pus'
[na.na?] /nana?/ nana?
[su.wah] /suwah/ suwah
                         'to vomit'
[la.lah] /lalah/ lalah 'refers to water being hot'
```

a and e Contrasts:

```
'to shovel'
                                      pala
katal 'loop'
                                             'armpit'
                                      pela?
katel 'yaws'
                                      stud
                                             'to step up on something'
liwas 'male monkey'
                                             'to stop'
                                      etud
liwes 'to skirt around mountain'
                                      kalang 'bolo laid sharp edge up'
tabu? 'cup'
                                      kelang 'corn'
tebu 'sugar cane'
```

Back Vowels (u and o): u has two allophones: high, close, rounded vocoid [u] and high, open, rounded vocoid [v]. [v] occurs only in closed syllables (CVC); [u] occurs elsewhere. Examples:

```
[ki.tvt]
           /kitut/
                      kitut
                              'blackened tip of arrow'
                      kayu
                              'wood'
[ka.yu]
           /kavu/
                              'last'
[hu.di]
           /hudi/
                      hudi
                      ulu?ul 'to shave whole head'
[u.lu.?vl] /ulu?ul/
```

o has two allophones: mid, close, rounded vocoid [5] and low, close, rounded vocoid [5]. [5] occurs only preceding $\frac{?}{h}$, $\frac{h}{g}$, and word initially before $\frac{k}{h}$. It occurs contiguous to $\frac{k}{h}$ in the few instances where this phone has been recorded, for example, [lu.kɔ̃tɔ̃k] /lukɔ̃tɔ̃k/ 'to boil'. [5] occurs elsewhere. Examples:

```
[ka.loh] /kaloh/
                             keloh
                                          'young boy's name'
                                          'stringed musical instrument'
[tɔ̂.gɔˀ]
              /togo?/
                             togo?
\{\hat{\mathbf{j}}, \hat{\mathbf{kon}}\} /\hat{\mathbf{jkon}}/
                                         'young girl'
                             okon
```

 $[ma.d\tilde{o}.^2\hat{o}]$ /mad $\hat{o}^2\hat{o}$ / medo?o 'many'

u and o Contrasts:

lebuk 'bamboo species' bulug 'to do to no purpose' lebok 'to curve down' bulog 'white speck in eye'

ku 'I'ku long 'to hold in hand above shoulder'ko 'you'kolong 'string from which fish are hung'

lepu? 'to snap, break' uton 'fish'

lepo' 'coconut' uto 'to place on head'

Because there is a tendency in this language towards vowel harmony within words, the following lists of constrasts have been pre-pared to show the six vowel phonemes in contrast in bisyllabic words. The four vowels that occur with the highest frequency have been kept constant in the first vowel position of each group of contrasts.

Contrasts using e as the constant vowel:

keling 'species of bamboo' kelét 'medium-sized parrot'

keleng 'to cut up wood into small pieces'

kelang 'maize, corn'

kelung 'to take shelter from the rain or sun'

kelong 'scab'

Contrasts using a as the contant vowel:

sakit 'pain'

sagé? 'shore, rim of sea shelf exposed when tide is out'

saket 'sweet smelling herb'

saba? 'to hold'

tagu? 'to contain, to place in'

agoh 'time, appearance'

Contrasts using u as the constant vowel:

gulis 'straight stripes'

kuléh 'to push something away with a stick'

kulet 'curly hair'

kuda? 'horse'

kulut 'an instrument used to shape out canoe hull'

kulot 'bracket fungus (a mushroom)'

Contrasts using i as the constant vowel:

siling 'spirit beings of the water'

(é does not occur in this position)

sileng 'to squint'

silang 'sun shower' (silang silang)

silung 'to glare with strong light in the dark'

silong 'to be out of luck'

Distribution of the Phonemes within the Roots

The root has been chosen as the basic reference unit in describing the distribution of the phonemes. Most roots may stand in isolation. When roots are affixed, the root may stand either initially or finally in the word according to the affix or affixes used. With one exception the affixes so far discovered do not affect the phonetic or phonemic structure of the root, though a root-initial vowel may affect a root-final vowel of a prefix. (See the last section of this Appendix.)

It is assumed that glottal stop does not occur root initially. The phonetic evidence is strongly in favor of the existence of vowel-initial roots. There are no roots with a distinct initial glottal stop. In consequence there is no contrast between glottal-stop-initial roots and roots that are otherwise identical.

It need not be argued that glottal stop must pattern after the other stops, \underline{t} , \underline{d} , \underline{k} , \underline{g} , and \underline{b} , which may occur word or root initially. Its function is not identical with the other stops. It is commonly interpolated nonphonemically between two vowels brought together at word boundaries. It is also sometimes inserted phonemically between a vowel-final root and a following suffix. (See the last section of this Appendix.)

When the commonly used verbal prefix \underline{eg} — is preceded in an utterance by a vowel-final word, the vowel of the prefix is always reduced. Example:

kena? di egtudug ---> kena? digtudug 'the place where he sleeps'

This strengthens the argument that glottal stop does not occur root or word initially.

Roots comprise one or more syllables. All roots other than particles and series 1 and 2 pronouns (i.e., all roots which may take affixes) comprise at least two syllables.

A syllable is a unit of sound made up of a vowel, or a vowel preceded and/or followed by a consonant. The following are the syllable patterns occurring in Cotabato Manobo (V is vowel; C is consonant):

```
V
      [a.kam]
                /akam/
                           akam
                                  'brown crab'
VC
      [ag.daw]
                /agdaw/
                           agdaw
                                   'sun'
CV
      [ba yi]
                /bayi/
                           bayi
                                  'a female person or animal'
CVC
      [bak.bak] /bakbak/
                           bakbak 'hammer'
```

These syllables combine to form roots in the following manner and with the restrictions listed below.

V may be followed by a CV or CVC pattern or both. Examples:

```
V + CVC [i.lu] /ilu/ ilu 'orphan'
V + CVC [u.ton] /uton/ uton 'fish'
V + CV + CVC [i.la.ga?] /ilaga?/ ilega? 'to cook'
```

VC may be followed by CVC and rarely by CV. Examples:

```
'smoking pipe'
VC + CVC
             [un.svy]
                          /unsuy/
                                     unsuy
                                            'the end of something'
                          /ugpu/
                                     ugpu
             [ug.pu]
VC + CV
```

V and VC occur only root initially.

CVC and CV patterns may combine to produce up to four, and rarely five, syllable roots. Examples:

```
'eve'
CV + CV
                    [ma ta]
                                      mata
                                                   'to stand up'
                                      tigdeg
CVC + CVC
                    [tug.dəg]
                                                   'cob of corn'
CVC + CV
                    [tug.bu]
                                      tugbu
                                                   'to squat'
                    [tig.ka.gan]
                                      tigkagan
CVC + CV + CVC
                                                   'sappy, green'
                                      hilaw
CV + CVC
                    [hi.law]
                                                   'to be ticklish'
                                      gegilak
CV + CV + CVC
                    [gə.gi.lak]
                                                   'small knife'
CV + CV + CV + CVC [ka.lum.ba.hu?]
                                      kalimbahu?
                                                   'flashlight bulb'
CVC + CV + CV + CV [gum.bə.li.ya]
                                      gumbeliya
CV + CVC + CV + CV [ka.sun.si.li.yu] kesinsiliyu 'short underpants'
```

CVC + CVC cannot be followed by either CVC or CV as no roots occur con- taining more than one consonant cluster.

CVC never occurs as a free root but commonly occurs in reduplicated form as a verb root. Examples:

```
'to rock a cradle'
[gon.gon]
                          gonggong
             /gogon/
                                      'steps, stairway'
                          taytay
             /taytay/
[tay.tay]
```

Consonants occurring in this pattern may be homorganic but are never identical. Examples:

```
'to peck around'
                          tudtud
[tvd.tvd]
             /tudtud/
                                      'to process of hardening
                         kegkeg
[kag.kag]
             /kagkag/
                                      'to hold in one's hand'
                         bitbit
             /bitbit/
[but.but]
```

Distribution of Consonants

The following analysis is based on a study of about 2,500 roots including all syllable patterns except reduplicated roots of the type $C_1V_1C_2C_1\overline{V_1C_2}$ as in <u>bakbak</u> 'frog'. All consonants except glottal stop were found to occur root initially, root medially, and root finally. Glottal stop does not occur root initially.

All consonants except \underline{h} occur in root-medial consonant clusters formed at the juncture of syllables. In the great majority of cases g is the initial member of the cluster. In 268 words in which consonant clusters occur, g occurs 142 times as the first member of the cluster. The consonants occurring in this position with the next highest Other clusters are mostly frequency are <u>m</u> 43 times and <u>ng</u> 39 times. nasals with a following homorganic non-nasal consonant. The following clusters occur:

Clusters with a stop as the first member:

<u>b1</u> .	tablin	'tablet'	one occurrence only
dt	mudted	'small river fish'	one occurrence only
ds	tedsék	'cry of a kalagsuy'	one occurrence only
gb	tigbas	'to cut up'	27 occurrences
gt	ligti?	'gold arm band'	17 occurrences
gd	tigdeg	'to stand up'	13 occurrences
gk	bagkes	'bundle of wood'	36 occurrences
gp	degpul	'blunt ended'	28 occurrences
gs	ligseg	'to clip into place'	9 occurrences
gn	tagnu?	'rain drop'	only one occurrence
gw	lugwéhél	'to clang or rattle'	only one occurrence
? S	sela?sa?	'cut open bamboo'	only one occurrence

A number of roots have an initial syllable bel or pel in which the e is very short and in fast speech is often heard as bl or pl. The presence of the vowel is confirmed by the fact that new literates consistently write it. Examples:

'wood borers' belahung pelaguy 'to flee' yaka pela? 'not yet'

Clusters with a lateral as the first member:

<u>lk</u>	balku	'large motor launch'	one occurrence only
<u>l y</u>	balyug	'tree species'	one occurrence only

Clusters with a nasal as the first member:

<u>mb</u>	kambing	'goat'	27 occurrences
mk	ki?umkum	'gilded along axis'	one occurrence only
mp	talumpa?	'shoes'	15 ocurrences
nt	antep	'to anticipate'	25 occurrences
<u>nd</u>	sindaw	'to flash or fame up'	24 occurrences
ns	bansa?	'tribe, race'	7 occurrences
ngs	salungsung	'small type of bolo'	one occurrence only
ngk	angka?	'to project beyond'	12 occurrences
ngg	sunggud	'bride price'	26 occurrences

Cluster with w as the first member:

<u>wb</u> lugowbung	'tree species'	one occurrence only
---------------------	----------------	---------------------

Frequency of consonants: The following chart indicates the order of frequency of consonants occurring root initially, medially, and finally, and medially in a consonant cluster. These frequencies were calculated from root patterns CVC, CVCVC, CVCCVC, CVCCV, VCV, VCCVC, and VCVC. Approximately 1,400 roots were checked.

INITIAL	MEDIAL	FINAL	MEDIAL IN A CC	TOTAL
l 259	1 220	? 195	g 106	1 603
t 185	b 105	t 166	k, b 33	t 443
s 184	p 100	ng 152	p 31	k 398
b 157	n 87	k 150	n, ng 27	s 360
k 141	g 83	l 120	t, d 25	b 334
p 61	t 77	s 99	m 24	g 326
g 58	k 74	g 79	s 10	ng 240
d 53	s, m 67	n 75	w, y, l, ?	2 234
h 32	d 62	y 60	are very	p 222
m 23	ng 56	d 52	infrequent	n 213
n, ng, w	w 50	b 39	h no occur-	d 192
very in-	? infre−	y, ² , h	ence	m 147
frequent;	quent	are very		y 101
y and ? no		infrequent		w 93
occurrence				h 88

Distribution of Vowels

An analysis of the vowel sequences of 1,329 roots conforming to the patterns CVCVC, CVCCVC (not including reduplicated monosyllabic roots of the type $C_1V_1C_2$, $C_1V_1C_2$, e.g., $\underline{ngokngok}$ 'to \underline{cry} ', \underline{siksik} 'to bite at fleas', which would increase the frequency of vowel harmony considerably), VCCV, CVCCV, VCV, and VCVC indicates a considerable measure of vowel harmony.

The results are tabulated below indicating the total frequency of each vowel, the frequency of occurrence of homophonous vowel sequences actually recorded, and the frequency of occurrence of such sequences estimated for each vowel on the assumption of random (independent) association of all the vowels.

VOWEL	TOTAL FREQUENCY	NUMBER OF HOMOPH OBSERVED	ONOUS SEQUENCES EXPECTED	PERCENTAGE ABOVE EXPECTED
a	. 319	199	135	148%
u	. 234	105	73	144%
e	. 200	7 5	53	141%
i	. 134	31	14	221%
0	. 080	46	8	575%
é	.036	26	1	2600%

It will be observed that homophonous vowel sequences of each vowel occur much more frequently than expected if the vowels combine randomly in sequences in bisyllabic roots. It is also significant that the bias towards vowel harmony increases inversely with the total frequency of the vowel in the 1,329 roots analysed.

Relative Frequency of the Different Syllable Patterns:

CVCVC	CVCCVC	VCCV and CVCCV	vcv	VCVC
967	136	28	12	186

All vowels except \underline{e} can occur in any vowel position. (These statements are based on an analysis of about 2,500 roots without restriction of CV structure.)

e never occurs in a root- or word-final open syllable. It is inter esting to note that while the other vowels occur with relative frequency in final syllables closed by the nonsyllabic \underline{w} and \underline{y} , \underline{e} is found only twice in this position. In both cases it preceded y in girls' names, which may have been distorted by the practice of familiar addresses. This would suggest that the nonsyllabic w and y do not effect strong closure of a final syllable.

e is also never found preceding w and y in any other position in a word or root, although the other vowels commonly occur before these phonemes in initial or medial position, for example, luwang 'a hollow thing', iya 'the', kelawit 'spear'.

Vowel Distribution with Reference to Other Vowels:

Most of the vowels appear to associate with any other vowel in any sequence. There are, however, a few restrictions on the distribution of vowels in contiguous syllables.

- <u>é</u> never precedes <u>a</u> or <u>i</u> and occurs only infrequently before the other vowels, once before u, twice before e, and once before o in a mock word, ngeyow 'the cry of a cat'. It occurs 37 times before another é.
- $\underline{\acute{e}}$ may follow any vowel except $\underline{\acute{i}}$, but occurs only three times following \underline{o} and \underline{a} respectively. It occurs with a high frequency following e and u, 26 times following e and 20 times following u.
- o, another rather infrequent vowel, is less restricted in its vowel-to- vowel distribution than \underline{e} . It may follow any vowel. But it occurs infrequently before other vowels. It occurs twice preceding a, four times preceding \underline{i} , six times preceding \underline{e} , and three times preceding e. It occurs ten times before u, and 74 times before another <u>o</u>.
- o is much less restricted in its distribution following other vowels. It is found ten times following a, 42 times following i, 49 times following \underline{e} , 52 times following \underline{u} , and three times following $\underline{\acute{e}}$.

These figures confirm the strong bias in the language towards vowel harmony with the infrequent vowels $\underline{\acute{e}}$ and \underline{o} , and they indicate the relative restriction of the distribution of these vowels in terms of occurrences of other contiguous vowels.

The sequence are found in a number of bisyllabic roots of the type CVCVC is generally heard in normal speech as a long vowel a. But in slow speech the two vowels are distinct. Informant reaction in writing clearly confirmed the recording of this sequence as a'e. Several

cognate roots in Kalagan, a related language, substitute a single long vowel, a:, for the a'e sequence in Manobo. Examples:

(in Kalagan <u>ka:n</u>) ka?en ga²en (in Kalagan ga:n) 'lightweight'

Vowel Distribution in Reference to Contiguous Consonants:

In our early investigations it appeared that there might be a significant interaction between the infrequent vowel é and certain consonants. A check was made of all the roots containing this vowel. The consonants contiguous to é were listed and their frequency compared with the expected on the assumption that there was no significant interaction, only random association. The results suggest that there is no significant interaction, except perhaps with ?. This could be explained by the fact that both ? (glottal stop) and \acute{e} occur more frequently in the final syllable of a root than elsewhere.

CONSONANT	OBSERVED	EXPECTED	CONSONANT	OBSERVED	EXPECTED
1	36	31	р	12	11
t	15	23	n	6	11
k	24	21	d	8	10
S	16	19	M	7	8
b	20	17	У	3	5
g	9	17	W	7	5
ng	15	12	h	5	5
?	24	12			

It would appear that in general there is no significant interaction between consonants and vowels.

Intonation



This is the most commonly heard pattern. Each word in the utterance, including nonsyllabic words, takes a primary stress. (Stress is nonphonemic and occurs on the penultimate syllable of all words of more than one syllable.) The intonation contour remains level until the penultimate syllable of the final word. Pitch rises on the penultimate syllable, then falls again on the next syllable to the original level unless it is utterance final, in which case it drops yet another level.

3 3 3 2 4 mangay a dutu 'I am going there.' I there 80

3 2 3 3 .34 egdalut a daa 'I'll return after a brief stay away.' return I particle

3 2 3 3 4 'I'm going home.' lumikù a dé home I particle 3 2 3 3 4 'Where are you going?' angayan ko ya you particle 3 3 3 3 3 3 2 4 hagdi iya wé dalesan 'That is his house.' his the DP house 3 2 3 4 'Look out! you'll fall.' menabù ka fall you 3 32 3 3 34 'Yes, I would like it.' egkilyap a doo I particle like 3 2 3 3 2 4 'I'll give (it) to you.' begayan ku kuna give I you 3 3 3 2 4 'Get the wood!' kuwa ka kayu get you wood 3 3 3 2 3 34 'Get the water, she says.' angay ko wayeg gaa go you water she.says

Morphophonemics

When two vowels are brought together at word boundaries, there mav be elision of the final vowel, for example:

ani endà > anindà 'in order that not ...'

kenà di egbeli > kenà digbeli 'where did he buy ...'

This elision helps to confirm the fact that glottal stop is not phonemic in root-initial or word-initial position.

Elision of vowels is mostly restricted to the word endà and the prefix eg-. Vowels brought together at the juxtaposition of other word boundaries do not elide. A nonphonemic glottal stop is interpolated between the two vowels in normal speech as in hauwen di sa utan 'She saw the utan plant.'

There is one exceptional case of syllable elision when endà 'not' and mepion 'good' come together. The resulting expression is usually endapion.

The prefixes ke-, me-, and pe-remain in their basic form when prefixed to roots other than roots that are i initial. When prefixed to a root with \underline{i} initial, the vowel of the prefix assimilates, becoming i:

```
'black'
-item- > miitem
-iyap- > egkiiyap 'to like'
```

This change is very difficult to detect. But evidence for the change is indicated by the reaction of the language assistant.

When the suffix -en is affixed to a vowel-final root, w is interpolated between the root and the affix if the final vowel is \underline{a} , \underline{u} , or o. The nonsyllabic y is interpolated in this position if the final vowel is i. (e is never found in a root- or word-final open syllable.)

```
gebuwen di 'it is barking at ...' pulawen di 'he is paddling the ...'
gebu 'to bark'
pula 'paddle'
pila 'how many'
                          mepilawan dé agdaw 'how many days' stay ...'
                          egseikagiyay da 'they speak together'
ikagi 'speak'
```

A glottal stop is interpolated between a vowel-final root and a following suffix -en, -an, etc., if the final open syllable of the root is -wa or -ba:

```
'to get'
kuwa- + -en
               >
                  kuwaen
                           'to boil up in water'
sugba- + -en
                  sugbaen
               >
sawa- + -en
               >
                  sawaen 'wife, to marry'
```

A phonemic glottal stop is also interpolated vowel-initial root and a vowel-final prefix.

```
se- + -ikagi- + -ay > egseikagiyay 'to speak to each other'
```

There is only one instance of change in a root induced by affixation. When the root haa 'to see, look' is affixed by -en or -an, the final a of the root dissimilates to u.

```
'to see something'
haa + -en
                 hauwen
mehaa- + -an > mehauwen 'to see something'
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