# A GRAMMATICAL SKETCH OF MASBATENYO

Michael Wilson I. Rosero
2007-00303

Irma U. Peneyra, Ph.D
*Advisor*

A thesis submitted in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the
Degree of Bachelor of Arts
in Linguistics

Department of Linguistics
University of the Philippines
Diliman, Quezon City 1101

March 2011
(Revised June 2014)

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to thank the following people:

My mentors: my advisor, Prof. Irma Peneyra. You have been very patient. Thanks for always believing in me. And Prof. Ricky Nolasco, for all the wonderful lectures and very linguistic discussions you shared with me. This 'masterpiece' is for the two of you;

Prof. Resty Cena, for his invaluable comments and suggestions on my thesis, Mr. Paul Julian Santiago, for entertaining conversations about love and linguistics and Mr. Marfeal Santiago, for introducing me to the world of discourse and functional linguistics. Faculty and members of the UP Department of Linguistics and all my other professors who have passionately shared their knowledge and experiences to me;

My family and relatives for the help and understanding they have rendered me to be able to accomplish this paper. Thank you for your never-ending support;

My main informants: Auntie Charit, Lola Dandit, Mama Nining, and other countless Masbatenyos who have been my inspiration in doing this thesis. Uncle Nonoy for letting me borrow your laptop while I was doing my research;

My first ever Linguistics 130 class who helped me jumpstart the studies on Masbatenyo. Special mention to Katrina Hipolito and Giggle Brillante for their efforts and dedication that led to the creation of Masbatenyo Corpus.

My coffee mates, Iji Imperial, Aya Tantiangco, Pete Sengson, Casey Giron with whom I had interesting, thought-provoking and 'progressive' conservations on language and linguistics and its practical applications to the society. The UP Samahang Linggwistika, who were my first linguistic companions and who taught me the value of linguistics;

Members of UP Layap (Layapeeps) who have boldly accepted my invitation and the challenge of advancing a multilingual and culturally relevant education which I believe is the ultimate task of being a linguist who studies language. Danielle Tadena, Jeva delos Reyes, Abbi Lavina, Leizl Ocampo and all the Ricky babies and survivors. My friends, Empor (N4) blockmates, and fellow Linguistics majors.

*Maraming salamat! Lipad tungo sa karunungan!*

## ABSTRACT

Masbatenyo ([msb]) is a member of Central Philippines and of the Bisayan subgroup of the Austronesian family of languages. It is spoken in the islands of Masbate and some parts of Sorsogon. According to the latest report Ethnologue (2009) on the languages of the world, it has 350, 000 speakers as of 2002 (SIL, 2002) with 50, 000 who speak it as first language. About 250,000 speakers use it as their second language.

There are but a few researches and studies that have been done on Masbatenyo language. Unlike its neighboring languages, Masbatenyo is not a well-researched area in the field of linguistics. For many years, the Masbatenyo language has only been an oral language despite the size of the population and the outstanding academic achievements of the speakers.

This paper is another attempt to document the language. It is a grammatical sketch of Masbatenyo language, a short description of the most salient points of the grammar of the language. It aims to describe and establish the Masbatenyo grammar. This is also to further support the existence of Masbatenyo as a language, and not merely as a dialect of one of the surrounding major language groups in the Visayan area.

This paper presents the basic phonological, morphological and syntactic structures of the language based on both written and actual spoken language following the framework of the discourse-functional grammar.

It is divided into five chapters. The first chapter discusses the general information about the Masbatenyo language such as the location of Masbate province, the short history, the varieties of the language spoken in Masbate area and the previous studies done on the language. This chapter also includes the discussion of the theoretical approaches, the methodology of the study and the review of the previous studies done on the language.

The second chapter discusses the phonology section. This part presents the phonemic inventory of the language, the phonotactic constraints and the morphophonemic changes in the language. Both articulatory and acoustic analyses of the phonology of the language will be presented.

The third chapter focuses on the morphosyntax of the language. This includes the discussion of the structural and distributional properties of word classes and presents the morphological and syntactic evidences, as well as the discourse basis for such classifications. It also deals with the debated issues on Philippine morphosyntax such pre-categoriality and inherent argument structure, the layered structure hypothesis, transitivity and ergativity and makes use of the Masbatenyo language to provide support for such claims.

The fourth chapter describes the clause structure and grammatical patterns of unmarked and pragmatically marked constructions in Masbatenyo. It also explores the notion of intonation units which are found to have some correlation to grammatical structures of the language. The fifth chapter concludes this study.

This study will also describe the Masbatenyo language patterned to some recent research findings on Philippine language that constitute a very important role in the description of Masbatenyo grammar.

## LIST OF FIGURES

# LIST OF TABLES

## LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

| | |
|---|---|
| A | agent or source of action |
| ABS | absolutive |
| AGENT | semantic agent |
| APT | aptative |
| BEN | beneficiary/recipient |
| CAUS | causative |
| CONJ | conjunction |
| COMPR | comparative |
| $C_1V_1$ | first syllable reduplication |
| DIST | distal |
| DISTR | distributive |
| ERG | ergative |
| FOC | focus |
| GEN | genitive |
| INCP | inceptive future |
| IND | indicative |
| INTR | intransitive affix |
| INTSV | intensive |
| IMP | imperative |
| IPFV | imperfective |
| LKR | linker |
| LOC | locative |
| MED | medial |
| MOD | modifier |
| MODE | mode |
| NEG | negator |
| NEUT | neutral tense-aspect |
| NOM | nominalization |
| NONSPEC | non-specific |
| NUM | numeral |
| O | patient or most affected entity |
| OBL | oblique |
| PAT | semantic patient |
| PFV | perfective |
| PL | plural |

| | |
|---|---|
| POSS | possessive |
| PR | personal |
| PROX | proximal |
| PRSP | prospective |
| PRT | particle |
| QW | question word |
| RED | reduplication |
| RCP | reciprocal |
| RPFV | recent perfective |
| S | only argument of an intransitive construction |
| STAT | stative verb |
| STEM | stem |
| TA | tense-aspect |
| TR | transitive |
| V1r | first vowel + r reduplication |
| Ø | zero-marked |
| 1 | 1st person |
| 12 | dual person |
| 2 | 2nd person |
| 3 | 3rd person |
| = | cliticization |
| - | morpheme boundary |
| . | morpheme with several metalanguage elements |
| <> | infixation |

TABLE OF CONTENTS

*Para sa mga batang bagani ng 170+ wikang Pilipino*

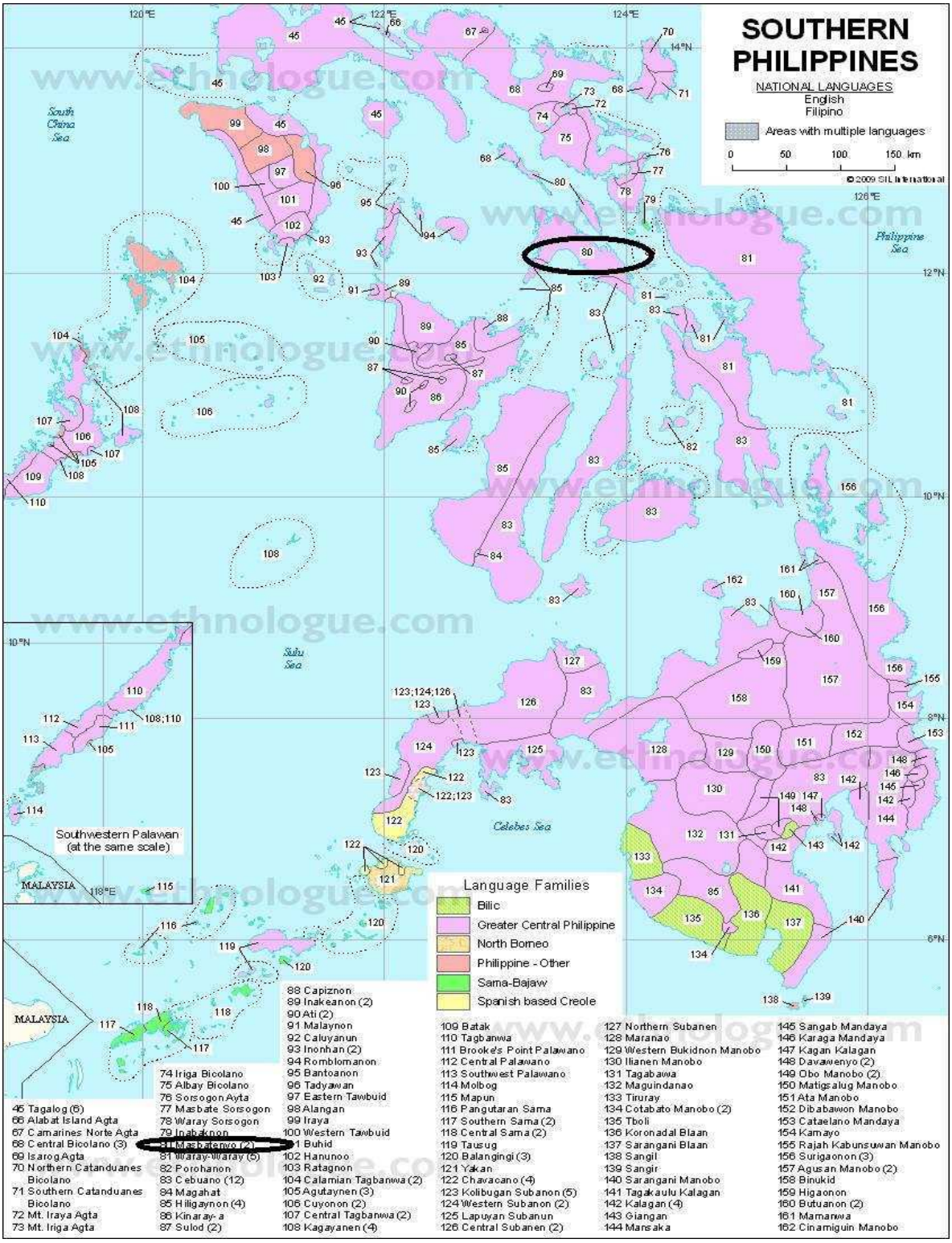



**Figure 1.0**

Linguistic Map of Southern Philippines with Masbatenyo highlighted[1]

[1]Source: SIL, http://www.ethnologue.com/map/PH_s

# Chapter 1
# INTRODUCTION[2]


**Figure 2.0**
Map of the Philippines with Masbate highlighted[3]

## 1.0. GENERAL INFORMATION ON MASBATENYO

The Province of Masbate lies at the center of the Philippine Archipelago between latitudes 11 degrees 43 minutes north and 21 degrees 36 minutes north, 123 degrees 9 minutes east and 124 degrees 15 minutes east. It is composed of a wedge-shaped mainland (Masbate), two major islands (Ticao and Burias) and 14 small islands. It is bounded on the north by the Bicol Mainland, on the south by the Visayan Sea, on the west by Sibuyan Sea and on the east by the Burias Pass, Ticao Pass and Samar Sea.

The province covers a total land area of 4,047.7 square kilometers. It is politically subdivided into three congressional districts, 20 municipalities, one city and 550 barangays. Masbate had a population of 707,668 as of the 2000 census, growing at an

[2] The introduction of this paper is derived from an earlier research done on the language; namely, the Linguistic Survey of Milagros, Masbate (2009).
[3] Source: http://masbate.islandsphilippines.com/map.php

average rate of 1.71 percent from 1995 to 2000. The province had an average population density of 174.8 persons per square kilometer.

Masbate is the biggest cattle raising province in the region. Its main economic activity is agriculture with copra, rice, corn and tobacco as its main products. Fishing is also a major industry in the province. Until lately, the province is the site of the biggest gold mining operation in the region. Other minerals found in the island province are manganese and limestone.

Due to its geographic location, Masbate is a melting pot of dialects and cultures. Residents in the capital town of Masbate speak the native Masbatenyo with a mixture of the Bicol dialect; natives of Cataingan, Palanas, and Dimasalang along its east coast use Samar-Visayan; residents from Pio V. Corpus, Cataingan and Placer in the south speak Bohol and Cebu Visayan; along the western coast of Mandaon and Balud, people converse in Hiligaynon and Capiznon; natives of the Ticao and Burias islands talk in variants of the Bicol dialect and Visayan due mainly to the droves of migrants to the island during the sixties.

## 1.1. ETYMOLOGY

According to the research of Eduardo Doctolero (2004), there are several accounts on the origins of the word 'Masbate'. One account says that it came from the words ***masa*** "to mix" and ***batí*** '"to beat". The other account says it came from ***mas bati*** '"heard better" as in *Lumúsad kamó kag umapíke agúd mas batí ` an íyo ginasábi "*Get down here and get closer so that we can hear better whatever you're saying." Another account further says that it came from the term that Cebuano migrants used to describe the place, ***mas batí*** which means "a place where living condition is worse".

According to a certain Fray Martin de Rada[4], Masbate took its name from ***Masbat*** or ***Basbat*** which means 'having many gold mines'. Renato Pelorina (2012) however, has his own version. He claims that the name Masbate came from *Masbad.* The term *Masbad* possibly originated from *Masbaranon,* a barrio that used to be part of the jurisdiction of the Municipality of Placer but now under the Municipality of Esperanza. This barrio is used to be called *Surosimbahan* because it looks like a church. Its name was then changed into *Agoho* from the tree called *agoho.* Then for the third time, its name was changed *Masbaranon* because of the supposed abundance of small fish called ***masbad*** (Pelorina, 2012).

[4] In Documentary Sources of Philippine History (1990)

## 1.2. SHORT HISTORY OF MASBATE[5]

### 1.2.1. Pre-Colonial Period

According to Orlando Almario (1995) entitled *Masbate: Men and Events*, the islands of Masbate were formed out of volcanic rocks over one hundred million years ago. When Captain Luiz Enriquez de Guzman arrived in 1569, he found tiny settlements spread along the coasts already engaged in flourishing trade with China. Chinese traders visited Masbate and founded small settlements during the Shri-Vijayan and Madjapahit periods. Ruins of cave-like dwellings resembling "kiva" (possibly built by Indians who accompanied the Chinese traders), were found along the coasts of Aroroy, Palanas, and Masbate.

As early as about four hundred years B.C., iron and glass as well as woven cloth appeared in Masbate. During that time, village settling grew from the development of farming, pottery flourished, stone tools gradually disappeared and agriculture improved. Beautiful decorated poetry was also produced. Porcelain jars excavated at Kalanay Cave (Aroroy) in the 1930s date back to the 10th century (Almario, 1995).

### 1.2.2. Colonial Period

Historical accounts show that the Christianization of the Bicol Region actually began in Masbate in 1569, as retold by Almario (1995) below:

> *Father Alonso Jimenez was the first missionary to [arrive] in the islands of Masbate, Burias, Leyte, and Samar. Then he went to Ibalon (Bicol) in the provinces of Camarines, where he resided many years, and made many religious incursions into Albay and Sorsogon. Fray Jimenez is considered the apostle of the island of Masbate (Almario, 1995).*

In December 1600, Dutch Commander Admiral Oliver van Noorth, sought refuge at San Jacinto Harbor after his fleet lost to the Spanish Armada in Manila. He was later engaged in a fierce clash with the fleet of a Chinese pirate named Limahong at Canlibas-Matabao passage.

At the height of the Galleon Trade, Mobo contributed first class lumber for the construction of galleons, making it the center of trade in the province and was the capital of the province in the early part of the Spanish occupation.

In 1864, Masbate was declared a separate province from Albay. Guiom was made the capital while Ticao became a commandancia-politico-militar. Shortly before the declaration of Philippine independence by President Emilio Aguinaldo, the town of Masbate was established as the provincial capital.

[5] This historical account about the origin and development of Masbate is based on Orlando Almario's *Masbate: Men and Events, 1995 edition*.

The Americans came to Masbate in 1900 to extend their pacification campaign. In December 1908, Masbate was annexed to the province of Sorsogon. A bill declaring Masbate as independent province was approved on February 1, 1922.

As early as 1906, the Masbate representative made the proposal to the United States Congress to grant the Philippines her independence.

The first Japanese elements arrived in Masbate the dawn of January 7, 1942 from Legazpi. They landed in several places without facing opposition- the province was too stunned to mount any resistance.

### 1.2.3. Masbate as an Independent Province

The Second Philippine Commission (the Taft Commission) organized the islands of Masbate, Ticao and Burias into the Province of Masbate during their visit to the region in March 1901. Señor Serrano, a native Masbateño, was appointed Governor of the province. George Landers, a New York soldier, was appointed Supervisor; Lieutenant Snyder of the Twenty-seventh Infantry Regiment was appointed Treasurer. The province had about 40,000 inhabitants at that time.

In 1901, a very strong typhoon hit Masbate badly and seriously crippled its economy when coconut plantations, forests and 90% of the houses were severely devastated. Governor Henry C. Ide issued an Executive Order annexing Masbate to the Province of Sorsogon under the Philippine Commission Act 1413 enacted on November 23, 1905 which took effect on January 1, 1906.

During the year 1917, Masbate became independent of its mother province, Sorsogon. Pio V. Corpuz became its first governor after the American times. The municipality of Pio V. Corpuz is named in his honor.

The Philippine Legislative Act 2934, approved on December 5, 1920, implemented by Executive Order No.3 dated January 9, 1921 and was made effective on February 15, 1921, mandated the separation of Masbate from Sorsogon as a separate Province

### 1.2.4. Second World War

The first Japanese elements arrived in Masbate at dawn on January 7, 1942 from Legazpi. They landed in several places without facing opposition – the province was too stunned to mount any resistance. The Japanese occupation reduced Masbate to economic shambles. Economic activities were limited to fishing, buying/selling or stealing. Food production ground to a halt. Camote, *pakol*, banana blossoms, pith, and even such obscure fruits as *barobo* were used as food substitutes. *Lakan-bulan* served as cigarette, tea or coffee. Barter transaction prevailed. For lack of nutrition and sanitation, many people succumbed to beri-beri or malaria. Lice and tick infestations spread to an unlucky few.

Dr. Mateo S. Pecso, who was governor of the province at the time, having refused to cooperate with the Japanese, evacuated the provincial government to Guiom, a command post used by the guerillas. Pecso was eventually arrested by the Japanese and incarcerated in Cavite. He managed to escape; he later joined the guerilla movement in Central Luzon.

Dr. Emilio B. Espinosa, the lone house representative of Masbate, fought against a congressional bill authorizing the conscription of Filipinos into service of Imperial Japan and for this he was detained in Fort Santiago.

When Masbate was formally liberated on April 3, 1945, Pecso was sent to Masbate by President Osmeña to organize the civil government. Pecso took reins of government on May 11, 1945.

## 1.3. THE MASBATENYO LANGUAGE

Masbatenyo (sometimes written as Masbateño) is the name used by the speakers of the language and for themselves, although the term 'Minásbate' is sometimes also used to distinguish the language from the people.

Masbatenyo ([msb]) is a member of Central Philippines and of the Bisayan subgroup of the Austronesian family of languages. It is spoken in Masbate and some parts of Sorsogon. According to the latest Ethnologue (2009) report on the languages of the world, it has 350, 000 speakers as of 2002 (SIL, 2002) with 50, 000 who speak it as first language. About 250,000 speakers use it as their second language.

Masbatenyo is most closely related to Capiznon, with 79 % lexical similarity and Hiligaynon with 76 % lexical similarity (Ethnologue, 2009). However, a recent lexical comparison of the speech varieties spoken in five towns of Masbate has shown that Masbatenyo is highly influenced by Waray, followed by Hiligaynon, Cebuano and Bicolano (Hipolito & Brillante, 2013).[6] It is also closely related to Sorsoganon; the language of Sorsogon. This is because Masbate was once part of Sorsogon Province and was governed from Sorsogon City until 1920s.

Wolfenden (2001) reported that although Sorsogon (the southernmost province of Bicol) and Masbate are very much closer to Bicol Peninsula, Sorsoganon and Masbatenyo shared the same grammatical systems which are rather closer to that of Hiligaynon, the trade language of Panay Island rather than that of Bicol.

[6] Hipolito and Brillante (2013) has done a lexical comparison of five towns in Masbate, namely San Fernando, Aroroy, Balud, Cataingan, and Masbate City using Constantino's 500-word list and Bowerns' 200-word list.

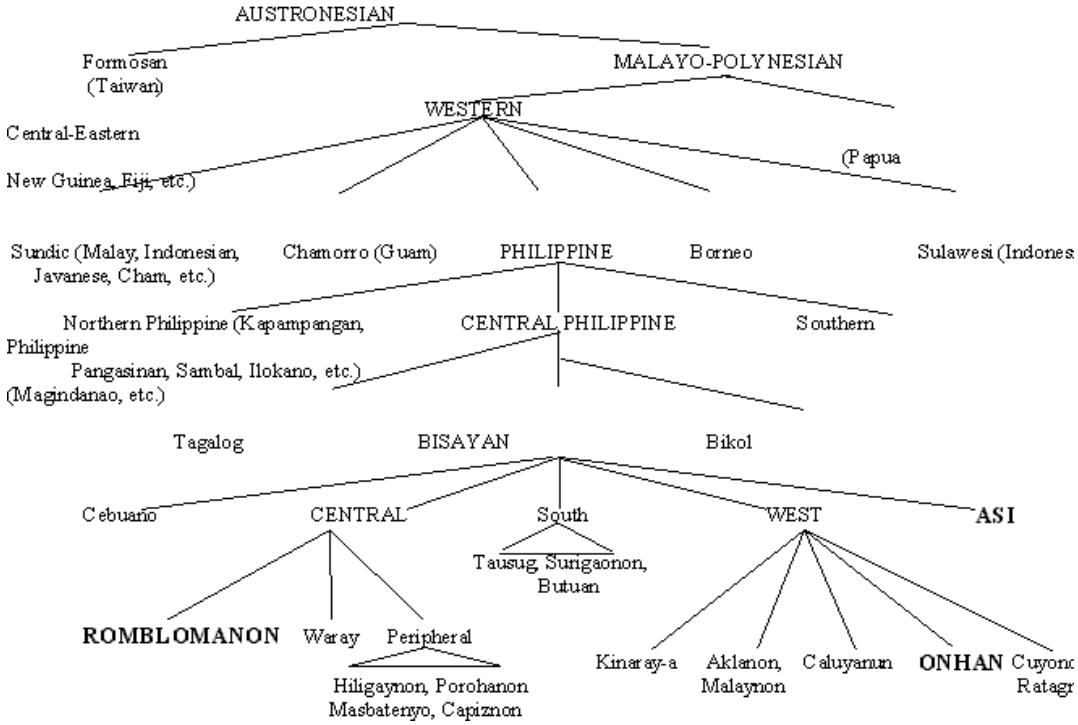



**Figure 3.0**

The subgrouping of Austronesian language family (Lobel, 2002)


**Figure 4.0**

Masbatenyo and the Bisayan subgroup of languages (Lobel, 2002)


**Figure 5.0**
Masbatenyo and other languages spoken in Masbate Islands (McFarland, 1974)

Wolfenden (2001) also observed that the presence of competing grammatical and lexical subsystems in the language is the most striking characteristics of Masbatenyo (Wolfenden, 2001). This has probably been brought on by the influx of settlers from surrounding major language groups who mixed in elements of their language with and alongside of the Masbatenyo. This results to a number of semantic concepts that can be expressed by two to five alternate different words for a single concept.

Masbatenyo is unique in the sense of its being a mixed-up language. Speakers of the language often thought that their language is just a mixture of its neighboring languages which are Bikol, Waray-Waray, Cebuano, Hiligaynon and Tagalog. There are still who refer to their own speech as 'Bisaya' (Wolfenden, 2001).

Masbatenyo shares different types of mutual intelligibility with its neighboring languages (Wolfenden, 2001). Speakers of Masbatenyo can easily and conveniently converse with speakers of the neighboring languages using their own language. However, speakers of Cebuano, Waray or Hiligaynon would sometimes find it difficult to understand Masbatenyo because of its lexicon.

### 1.3.1. Dialects of Masbatenyo

Wolfenden (2001) identified three major dialects of Masbatenyo: the western dialect centered around the town of Balud on the western coast which is close to Capiz, the southern dialect centered about the town of Cataingan in the southeastern part of Masbate and the northern dialect covering the whole northern half of Masbate and centered on Masbate City, capital


**Figure 6.0**
The dialects of Masbatenyo and the areas where they are spoken[7]

## 1.4. MASBATENYO AND ITS NEIGHBORING LANGUAGES

McFarland (1974) presented different views on the classification of the language spoken in Masbate. One view excluded Masbate and the southern part of Sorsogon from the Bikol area on the grounds that the language spoken in these areas was not Bikol. The other view considered the language as dialect of Bikol.

Other claim on the language of Masbate was that 'the language and dialects of Masbate are basically Visayan, with the major influence being Cebuano.' Zorc (1977) made a subgrouping and reconstruction of the Bisayan dialects and included Masbatenyo in his work. He stated that while it is true that there are immigrants from the areas that speak Bikol, Cebuano and Hiligaynon languages, the "native dialect" throughout the island is Masbatenyo.

Due to its geographic location, Masbate is a melting pot of dialects and cultures (Wolfenden, 2001). Residents in the capital town of Masbate speak the native Masbatenyo with a mixture of the Bicolano; natives of Cataingan, Palanas, and Dimasalang along its east coast use Samar-Visayan; residents from Pio V. Corpus,

[7] This is merely an approximation. There is no detailed work on Masbatenyo dialectology yet.

Cataingan and Placer in the south speak Bohol and Cebu Visayan; along the western coast of Mandaon and Balud, people converse in Hiligaynon and Capiznon; natives of the Ticao and Burias islands talk in variants of the Bicolano and Visayan languages due mainly to the droves of migrants to the island during the sixties.

Zorc (1977) presented four types of intelligibility among the Bisayan languages and dialects: a) natural or primary intelligibility, where speakers of different dialects can communicate freely, even they never hear the other dialect before (e.g. Bulalakawnon and Ratagnon, Capiznon and Hiligaynon); b) learned or secondary intelligibility, where speakers can adjust to another dialect in a matter of time (e.g. Bulalakawnon and Aklanon); c) sesquilingualism, whereby a speaker is fluent in his native language (dialect), but can only understand (not speak) another (Waray and Cebuano, where speakers of both languages can understand both perfectly but speakers of Cebuano understand Waray poorly); and d) one-way intelligibility, whereby A understands B but B does not understand A.

Masbatenyo speakers in the town of Masbate belong to the fourth kind. The residents of the town can readily understand the speech of the outsiders but the outsiders cannot understand the speech of the local residents. Speakers can understand Sorsoganon, Capiznon, Hiligaynon, and Cebuano but the latter experience varying degrees of difficulty in understanding Masbatenyo (Zorc, 1977).

Regarding the duration of the Bisayan occupancy of the Central Philippines, Zorc reported that there are no pre-Hispanic writings that would account for their existence in the area. Zorc (1977) stipulated that current speakers of many of the Bisayan languages and dialects could have given up their original languages long ago in favor of an intrusive or more prestigious language, or in favor of the language already spoken in the region that they invaded and conquered.

## 1.5. LITERATURE ON THE LANGUAGE

There are but a few researches and studies that have been done on Masbatenyo language. Unlike its neighboring languages, Masbatenyo is not a well-researched area in the field of linguistics. For many years, the Masbatenyo language has only been an oral language despite the size of the population and the outstanding academic achievements of the speakers.

### *An Maayo na Barita Hali sa Dios (Summer Institute of Linguistics, 1954, 1967, 1972)*

The first printed work in Masbatenyo was *An Maayo na Barita Hali sa Dios,* a translation of The New Testament which has been published in three editions (1954, 1967, 1972).

### *The Dialects of the Bikol Area (Curtis McFarland, 1974)*

Studies that followed focused on dialectology and genetic classification of the Masbatenyo language. McFarland (1974) presented different views on the classification of the language spoken in Masbate. One view excluded Masbate and the southern part of Sorsogon from the Bikol area on the grounds that the language spoken in these areas was not Bikol. The other view considered the language as dialects of Bikol.

### *The Bisayan Dialects of the Philippines: Subgrouping and Reconstruction (David Paul Zorc, 1977)*

Other claim on the language of Masbate was that "The language and dialect of Masbate are basically Visayan, with the major influence being Cebuano." David Paul Zorc (1977) made a subgrouping and reconstruction of the Bisayan dialects and included Masbatenyo in his work. He stated that while it is true that on Masbate there are immigrants from the Bikol, Cebuano and Hiligaynon language, the native dialect throughout the island is Masbatenyo.

### *Publications of the Summer Institute of Linguistics*

*Magbasa Kita Sin Masbatenyo 1-3* (1981) and *Mga Kanta sa Simbahan* are instructional materials which were published by the Summer Institute of Linguistics-Philippines. The *Magbasa Kita Sin Masbatenyo 1-3* series contains alphabet of Masbatenyo and sample words for each letter. The series also contains a few short stories told in Masbatenyo language.

### *Masbate: Men and Events (Orlando Almario, 1995)*

Orlando Almario's (1995) book, *Masbate: Men and Events,* was the only comprehensive written work on the history of Masbate. The book is an historical account of the origin and development of Masbate, from the pre-historical period to the contemporary times. Almario also included a few copies of songs and poems in Masbatenyo that survived through the years.

### *The Phonemes of Masbatenyo (Elmer Wolfenden)*

This study dealt with the phonemic status of the sounds used in the production of Masbatenyo. Wolfenden (2001) identified and illustrated the six types of syllables which have been found to occur in this language: V, CV, VC, CVC, CCV, CCVC.

### *The Subject Noun Phrase of Masbatenyo (Elmer Wolfenden)*

According to this study, the Masbatenyo topic noun phrase is introduced by the marker *an*. *An* marks the phrase it introduces as nominal, singular and grammatically independent hat is not attributive. The latter property distinguishes it from other NPs introduced by *san* and *sin* respectively. These NPs are nominal, singular and occur as attributive to either verbs or nominals. In addition, a phrase marked by *san* represents a nonlinguistic entity which is either definite (known from previous context) or specific or

both. A phrase marked by *sin* represents a nonlinguistic entity which is new information, indefinite or nonspecific.

Wolfenden (2001) also added that in Masbatenyo, the topic *an* NP plays a part in all discourse relationships. At the discourse level in Masbatenyo, the topic functions to allow the speaker to vary the presentation of theme or to point out the background elements. The topic *an* NP frequently refers back to participants already given in the narrative. In these instances, the topic NP marks definite references.

***The Masbatenyo-English Dictionary (Elmer Wolfenden, 2001)***

The *Masbatenyo-English Dictionary* by Elmer Wolfenden (2001) was by far the most comprehensive study on the language. The dictionary also contains a preliminary description of the Masbateño grammar.

***Pronouns in Masbatenyo (Celeste Chia-Yen Lee, 2006)***

Celeste Chia-Yen Lee (2006) discussed the clitic pronoun system of Masbatenyo. Her study includes the placement of clitics in relation to other nonclitics in the clause, the identification of the clitic distribution type and the relative ordering of pronominal clitics within the cluster. Lee (2006) concluded that Masbatenyo attests a mixture of post-initial and verb-adjacent position types and that the domain of Masbatenyo clisis is either prosodic or clausal.

***A Linguistic Survey of Milagros, Masbate (Michael Wilson Rosero, 2008)***

This survey presented data and information concerning the Masbatenyo language and other languages spoken in Masbate, specifically in the municipality of Milagros on a per-barangay basis.

The survey concluded that while Masbatenyo remains to be the major language, having the largest percentage (70%), Cebuano (15%) and Hiligaynon (14%) still have a relatively large numbers of speakers. Other languages such as Bikolano, Waray and Kinaray-a comprise the remaining 1% and are spoken by those who migrated from the surrounding places and stayed in Masbate for good. Filipino, being the national language is used when communicating with the other person who speaks another language that is not mutually intelligible with Masbatenyo.

***Ergative Analysis of Masbatenyo (Michael Wilson Rosero, 2008)***

This paper attempted to further support the claim of de Guzman (1988) that Philippine languages qualify as ergative languages. It is shown that like Tagalog, Masbatenyo follows an ergative-absolutive construction in which basic transitive sentences focus more on the role of the patient rather than on the actor or the agent.

Other literatures include instructional materials and religious text. No new major written account was added in the collection presented above. This show that there is a

need for further discussion on the language and the area where it is spoken as a first language.

## 1.6. SCOPE AND LIMITATIONS

This thesis aims to describe the grammar of Masbatenyo. This study will discuss the basic phonological, morphological and syntactic structures of the said language. This includes discussions of phoneme, syllable, morpheme, word, phrase and sentence. It should be known however that this is only a sketch of the grammatical system of the language.

## 1.7. THEORETICAL APPROACHES

This thesis is based on theories set forth by discourse functional linguists. The researcher relies mainly on the observation, patterns and constructions found in discourse data. Recent findings and developments on Philippine and Austronesian linguistics served as guide to analysis.

### 1.7.1. Discourse-functional Linguistics

Proponents of discourse-functional linguists believe that language is formed due to discourse pressure and based on speakers' actual experience with the language, and not by a pre-existent and fixed set of grammar rules (Ochs, Schegloff and Thompson, 1996; Bybee and Hopper, 2001). This is the notion of 'emergence', a view on language that has stemmed from research based on discourse data.

As pointed out in Thompson and Hopper (2001), there has been a serious mismatch between the findings of research based on utterances in actual conversational contexts and accounts that rely exclusively on constructed data. Various discourse and sociolinguistic factors contribute to the inconsistencies in the results obtained from the spoken corpora with the results acquired from elicited data. Furthermore, there is no real discourse context in the process of sentential elicitation and therefore there is no speaker involvement and there would be no means to track discourse flow (Tanangkingsing, 2009).

Du Bois (2003) further noted that it is the function of the grammar of any language to serve its users' goals, whether to conceptualize, communicate, or collaborate. Within discourse, functions most implemented play the greatest role in shaping how grammars come to be the way they are.

### 1.7.2. Ergative analysis

Dixon (1979, 1994) proposes that the fundamental difference between accusative and ergative languages is the way in which primitive grammatical roles are aligned with

respect to certain morphological and syntactic characteristics. The primitives Dixon identifies are: transitive subject (A), transitive object (O), and intransitive subject (S).

S is the sole argument of an intransitive construction, A is the source of action and O is the most affected entity in a transitive construction (Nolasco, 2006). In an ergative language, the case marker that appears with the subject (S) of an intransitive verb is the same as that which marks the object (O) of a transitive verb. With this characterization, De Guzman (1988) claimed that a host of Philippine languages qualifies as such a type of language.

This study claims that Masbatenyo, like most of Philippine languages, follows an ergative-absolutive construction. It centers more on the role of the patient rather than the actor or the agent. Philippine-type languages show patient primacy.

### 1.7.3. Stem-based hypothesis or the sapin-sapin hypothesis

Stem-based hypothesis predicts that a word with multiple affixes will have layered structures. Nolasco (2011) claimed that stem-based analysis is a neater approach to word-formation and word analysis. It shows the formal and functional relationship between words with the same root in Tagalog.

Stem-based analysis reduced the number of intransitive affixes into one: *–um-* (which has the variant *m-)*. Traditional analysis of the actor focus has a number of variants: *-um- mag-, mang-, maka-,* etc.

### 1.7.4. Acoustic phonetics

Acoustic phonetics is concerned with describing different acoustic characteristics of speech sounds produced by the movement of vocal organs. This subfield of phonetics relies heavily on the use of sophisticated instruments that analyze sound vibration.

This research employs various techniques in acoustic phonetics in the analysis of Masbatenyo sounds. Both articulatory and acoustic investigation of the sounds of the language will be presented.

## 1.8. DATA AND METHODOLOGY

This study is based mainly on actual spoken data, although elicited and written texts are used as well. Huang (in Tanangkingsing, 2009) emphasized that, 'argument structure and thus transitivity cannot be pre-specified in the lexicon, but emerges from discourse' and the same can be said about grammar as a whole.

### 1.8.1. The Masbatenyo Corpus

The data consists of the following:

(a) The Masbatenyo Corpus (2014) gathered, transcribed and parsed by the Linguistics 130 class (see Appendix for the complete list of informants and their metadata)
(b) recordings of Masbatenyo narratives (this includes the 11-minute Pear Film narratives, 20-minute experience and personal stories, several recorded conversations and a 15-min folk story); and
(c) recordings of Masbatenyo 200-wordlist and minimal pairs;

The written data were obtained from:

(a) *Magbasa Kita San Masbatenyo 1-3*;
(b) *The New Testament in Masbatenyo*;
(c) *Masbatenyo-English Dictionary* by Elmer Wolfenden; and
(d) Translation of Constantino's 500 word-list and 559-sentence list
(e) *Mga Palatandaan san ika-10 pa 14 na siglo san Rawis sa San Fernando, Masbate* an essay by Dr. Roger G. Lim

### 1.8.2. Participants

The informants were chosen based on the following criteria: a) they are natives of the place; b) they are knowledgeable about their native culture; b) they know how read and write; and d) they are available for the interview. The data were obtained from the following informants:

1. Charito R. Blancaver, 50 years old and native of Narangasan, Milagros, Masbate. She is ~~also~~ an elementary school teacher who teaches Math, English, Science, Filipino and Makabayan.
2. Rowena I. Rosero, 40 years old. She is originally from Tinaclipan, Milagros, Masbate but has been living in Narangasan since 1997.
3. Bernadita Rosero, 60 years old. She works as a community volunteer health worker.
4. Marita and Wilson Rosero, 45 and 50 years old respectively. Both are native speakers of Masbatenyo from Milagros, Masbate.
5. Virgie Almodal, a native of Ticao, Masbate. She is the principal of Rizal Elementary School of Monreal, Ticao.
6. Rico Almojela Almodal, 47 years old. He is a native of Ticao, Masbate.

Additional data were gathered from:

7. Ma. Charisse Blancaver, 19 years old, a 3rd year student of Polytechnic University of the Philippines-Manila and a native of Masbate City.
8. Ma. Clariza Columna, 20 years old, who is a native of Mobo. Masbate. Ms. Columna is a student of the University of the Philippines-Diliman and president of UP Lawod, the Masbatenyo provincial organization in the University.

### 1.8.3. Programs

The following programs were used to analyze the recorded data:

(a) GoldWave v5.57 – A professional digital audio editor that plays, records, edits, processes, and converts audio.

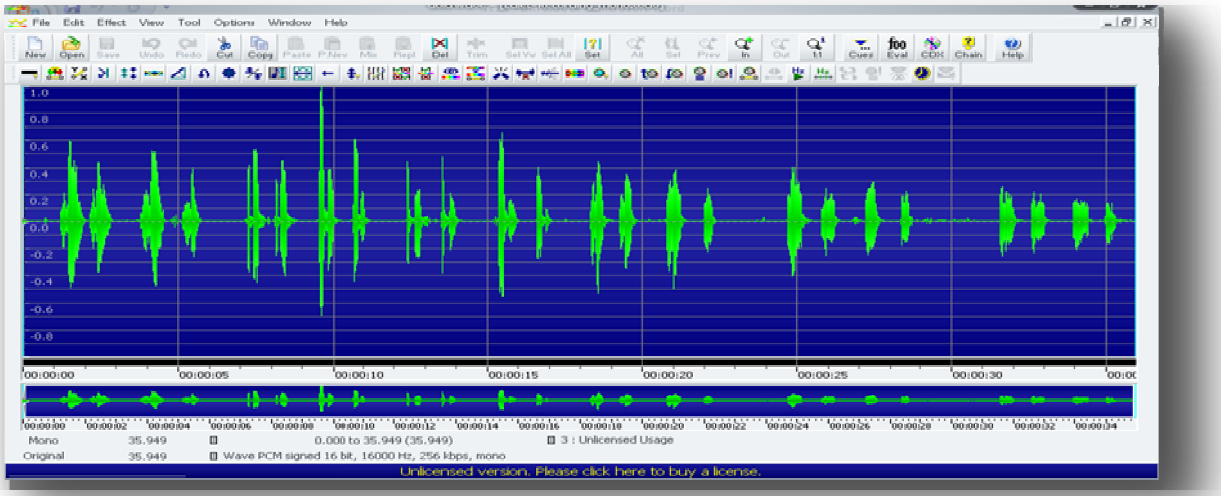



**Figure 7.0**
Screen shot of Goldwave v5.57

(b) Praat 5.1.12 - A computer program used to analyze, synthesize and manipulate speech, developed by Paul Boersma and David Weenink of the Institute of Phonetics Sciences of the University of Amsterdam.

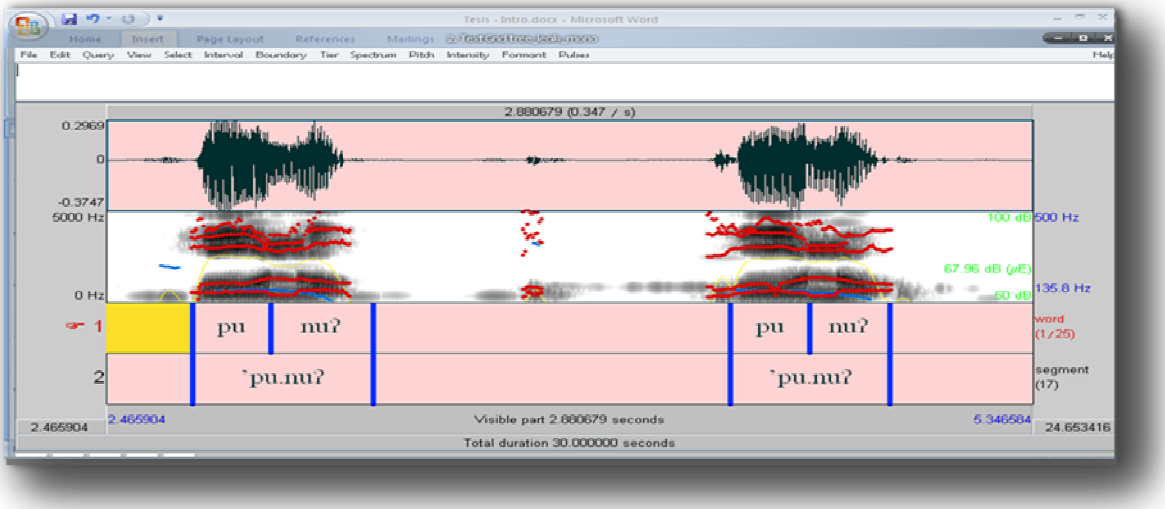



**Figure 8.0**
Screen shot of Praat program showing the acoustic analysis of the words *ʻpu.no* 'tree' and *pu.ʼno* 'full'

(c) PlotFormants 4.0 – An improved version of the program-developed based on the Program developed by Peter Ladefoged at UCLA Phonetics.

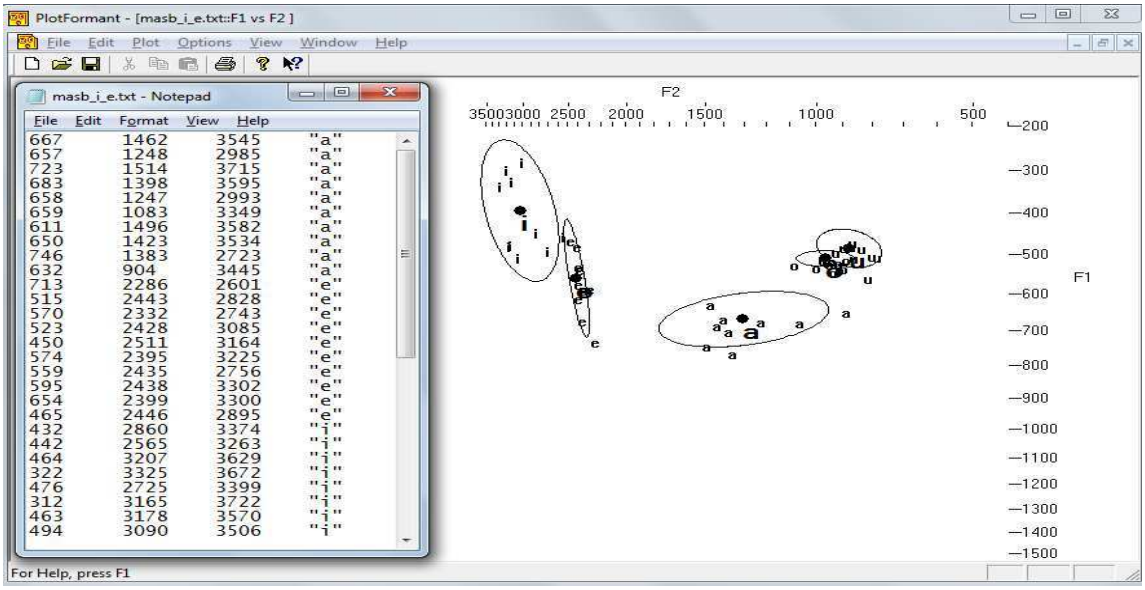



**Figure 9.0**

Screen shot of a PlotFormants output showing the raw measurements and the plotted values of Masbatenyo vowels.

### 1.8.4. Methodology and Analysis

This section discusses the different methods employed in the analysis of phonological, morphosyntactic and pragmatic features of Masbatenyo.

#### 1.8.4.1. Acoustic Analysis of Masbatenyo Vowels

For the phonology section, the researcher asked each informant to pronounce a list of Masbatenyo words (see Appendix for the list). Each utterance was recorded using the Goldwave program. The data were analyzed and segmented using Praat. The formants frequencies F1 and F2 were obtained using PlotFormants 4.0. The mean values of F1 and F2 of each vowel were recorded and plotted.

#### 1.8.4.2. Acoustic Correlates of Stress

Stress differentiates words with the same spelling, but with different meanings. In Masbatenyo, stress can be usually found in the last syllable (ultimate position) of a word or in the second to the last syllable (penultimate position). A section of this thesis will discuss the acoustic correlates of Masbatenyo stress. The researcher aims to describe the general characteristics of stress in Masbatenyo by analyzing duration, intensity and fundamental frequency and determine what factor influence the stress most.

The informants were asked to utter five minimal pairs in Masbatenyo. Using Praat, the duration, intensity and fundamental frequency of each sound were measured. The measurements were tabulated and analyzed.

#### 1.8.4.3. The Pear Film

The Pear Film was used in gathering data on Masbatenyo morphology and syntax. The informants were shown the Pear film and were asked to tell the story in their own words in Masbatenyo.

##### *1.8.4.3.1. The Film*

The Pear Stories' film (Chafe, 1980) was designed to tap into universal experiences. The film shows a man harvesting pears, which are stolen by a boy on a bike. The boy has some other adventures with other children, before the farmer discovers that his pears are missing. The film is six minutes long, in color, with sound effects but no words. It was filmed in northern California, near the University of California, Berkeley. The man who plays the farmer is a Cuban.

The story line is deliberately loose and bland, to avoid imposing a strong U.S. cultural bias. The scene of falling off the bike and spilling the pears can measure language for cause and effect. And the unusual ping-pong toy tests how people describe an unfamiliar object. The final scene, when the farmer discovers his fruit is stolen, re-introduces a character who had been off-screen for most of the film, and stimulates speakers to describe emotions and state a moral.

##### *1.8.4.3.2. Interview Procedure*

The participants watch the film. Within 5-25 minutes afterward, they are interviewed individually in a different room. Most speakers tell the story quite naturally, taking around two minutes. Each description is audio or videotaped.

#### 1.8.4.4. Intonation Units and Clause Structure

The narrations were transcribed, classified and divided into clause. It is assumed to be the basic unit of discourse for accomplishing the ends in communication.

Past researches on language take the sentence as the basic unit of description and theoretical generalizations (Du Bois, 1980). However, analyses of discourse data have shown that speakers of the language tend to speak in units smaller than the sentence. Such unit, referred to as intonation unit (IU), is defined phonetically as a stretch of speech uttered under a single coherent intonation contour and frequently demarcated by an initial pause (Du Bois, 1980). Himmelmann (2006) showed that intonation units can be identified through changes in pitch and rhythm. According to Himmelmann, evidence from pitch is of three kinds:

(a) the occurrence of a boundary tone at the end of the intonation unit (i.e. a clearly perceptible change in the pitch on the last syllable of the next unit; (b) a new onset at the beginning of the unit; and (c) a reset of the baseline.

Moreover, rhythmic evidence is of three kinds:

(a) a pause in between two major units; (b) beginning of the final segment of a given unit; (c) anacrusis, (i.e. an accelerated delivery of the unstressed syllables of the new unit).

Different discourse researches have also shown that intonation often coincide with the grammatical unit called 'clause'. In Du Bois (1980), most intonation units were simple clauses. Givon (1983) hypothesized clause as the 'basic information processing unit in human discourse'.

# Chapter 2
# PHONOLOGY

## 2.0. INTRODUCTION

This section will provide a complete description of the acoustic and articulatory properties of segmental and suprasegmental sounds and designate appropriate phonetic and orthographic description of these speech sounds that can serve as a guide for learners and speakers of the language. It will discuss: (a) the phonemes of Masbatenyo; (b) their phonotactic constraints; and (c) the morphophonemic changes in Masbatenyo.

**Minimal pairs** are used to determine the phonemic status of the phonemes of a language. These are a pair of words differ in just one single location. This technique is used to find out whether two minimal sound segments are in contrast in identical or similar environments.

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| (1) | [ˈd**ɪ**.l**a**ʔ] 'tongue' | vs. | [ˈd**ɪ**.l**ɪ**ʔ] no/not' |
| (2) | [hʊ.ˈb**ʊ**g] 'drunk' | vs. | [hʊ.ˈb**a**g] 'swollen' |
| (3) | [bʊ.ˈŋ**ʊ**ʔ] 'skull' | vs. | [ba.ˈŋ**a**ʔ] 'earthen jar' |
| (4) | [bʊ.ˈt**ʊ**ŋ] 'coconut' | vs. | [bʊ.ˈt**a**ŋ] 'put' |
| (5) | [s**ɪ**.ˈraʔ] "damaged" | vs. | [s**ʊ**.ˈraʔ] 'viand' |

The minimal pairs above show the contrast between the vowels. The sounds [a] and [ɪ] in (1), [ʊ] and [a] in (2-4) and [ɪ] and [ʊ] in (5) occur in **contrastive distribution**; they are phonemically distinct. On the other hand, the phonemes [ʊ] and [ɔ] in (6) below are said to be in **complementary distribution**: one sound never occurs in the environments in which the other occurs. These sounds are also in **free variation**.

(6) [ˈlab.ʔʊg] vs [ˈlab.ʔɔg] 'wallow'

## 2.1. MASBATENYO PHONEMIC INVENTORY

Masbatenyo has 19 segmental phonemes: 16 consonant sounds /p, t, k, b, d, g, m, n, ŋ, l, r, w, j, s, h, ʔ/ and 3 vowel sounds /a, i, ʊ/. It also has two suprasegmental phonemes: the stress / ˈ/ and vowel length /ː/. The segmental phonemes can be divided into vowels and consonants. The symbol '.' is used to show syllable boundary.

### 2.1.1. Vowels

Masbatenyo has three phonemic vowels – the high front unrounded /ɪ/, the low central unrounded /a/ and the back central rounded /ʊ/. Orthographically, they are represented by a, i, u. The glottal stop /ʔ/ is the conventional onset of the orthographically vowel-initial words, thus vowels cannot occur in initial position. They only occur in medial and final position.

**Table 1.0**
Masbatenyo vowel chart

| | Front | Central | Back |
|---|---|---|---|
| High | ɪ | | ʊ |
| Mid | ɛ | | ɔ |
| Low | | a | |

/ɪ/ has the mid front unrounded, lax vowel [ɛ] (written orthographically as *e*) as variant; /ʊ/ has the mid back rounded lax [ɔ] (written orthographically as *o*) as its variant. These variations, also called **allophones**, are distinct only in Spanish and English loan words. They occur in free variation, pronouncing one with the use of the other will not lead to meaning differences.

### 2.1.2. Masbatenyo Vowel Space

As already mentioned, there are only three phonemic vowels in Masbatenyo, namely; /a/, /ɪ/ and /ʊ/. The inclusion of /ɛ/ and /ɔ/ usually occurs with borrowed words and certain phonological changes. This can be further established using an instrumental approach.

Vowels are voiced sounds where the air passes through the mouth in a continuous stream. Vowels are described by their acoustic properties, namely: a) the tongue height (high, mid, low) and b) the tongue advancement (front, central, back). These properties are borne by formants, the resonant frequencies associated with cavities in the vocal tract.[8]

The most useful formants are F1, which corresponds inversely to the height dimension (high vowels have low F1 and low vowels have high F1) and F2 which corresponds to the advancement dimension (front vowels have high F2 and back vowels have low F2. Vowels are easily identifiable because it is characterized by higher amplitude and are darker than most speech sounds as shown in Figure 11.0. Using Praat, the formant frequencies of the vowel can be measured and plotted. as shown in Figure 10.0 below.

[8] In speaking, sound generated at the glottis (or at some constriction above the glottis) travels through a number of cavities in the vocal tract. Just like bottles, these cavities in the vocal tract have their preferred frequencies in the same way that bottles do. When sound travels through these cavities, there is amplification of certain frequency components that are close to the preferred frequency. These components become stronger than the surrounding frequency components. These resonances associated with cavities in the vocal tract are called formants. They are the most important aspect of the vocal tract filter.

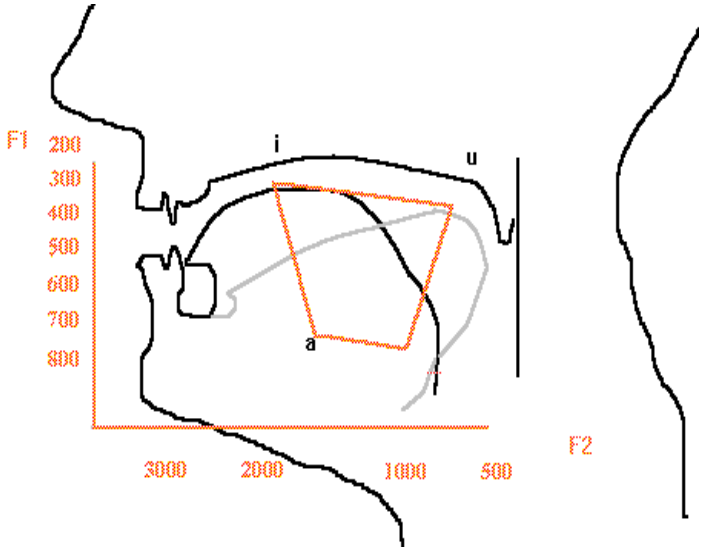



**Figure 10.0**
F1 and F2 formant frequencies in vowels

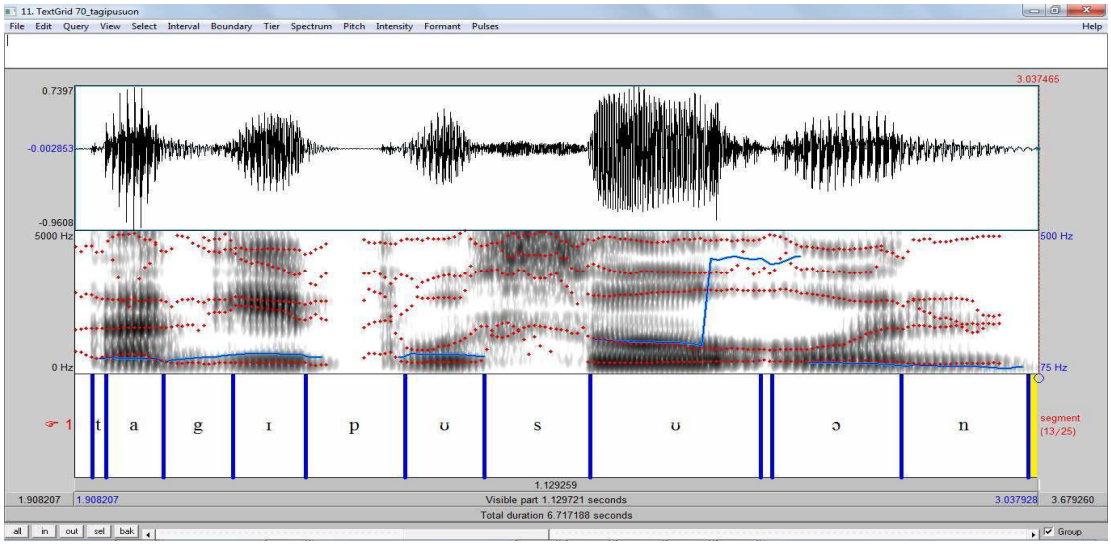



**Figure 11.0**
Vowels and their formant frequencies as seen in the spectrogram

Figure 12.0 shows the vowel space mapping of Masbatenyo. The following can be observed: a) that [ʊ] and [ɔ] overlap; b) [ɪ] and [ɛ] are somewhat closer to each other; and c) the [a] sound is very much distinct. The overlapping distribution of [ʊ] and [ɔ] implies that speakers of the language do not distinguish these two sounds and can be used interchangeably. Meanwhile, the [ɪ] and [ɛ] are distinguishable from each other, but their distribution are still very close to each other. It is because the [ɛ] values in this study were taken from words that are loan words such as *prim**e**ro, karn**e**,* and *pw**e**rtahan.* There is no [ɛ] sound in native Masbatenyo words.

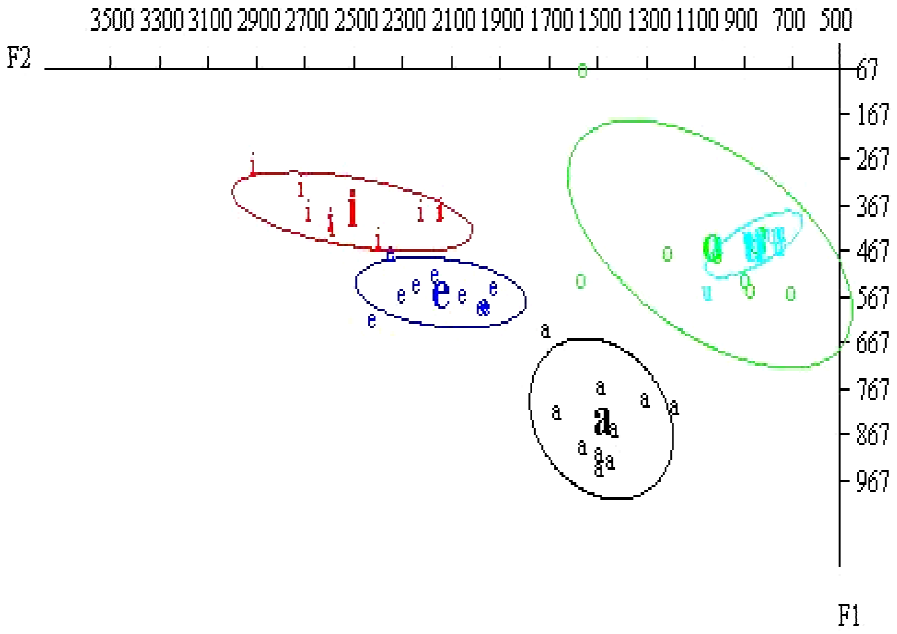



**Figure 12.0**
The plotted values of the formant frequencies for each vowel in Masbatenyo.

Table 2.0 shows the mean values of F1 and F2 of Masbatenyo vowels. The phone [ɛ] is very distinct from [ɪ] in borrowed words. The [ɔ] and [ʊ] have almost similar mean values in both F1 and F2. Their plotted values show an overlap in their respected spaces. This is an indication that in the acoustic level, these two sounds are not distinguishable from each other.

**Table 2.0**
Mean Values in Hertz of the F1 and F2 for each Masbatenyo vowel

| Vowel | F1 | F2 |
|---|---|---|
| [a] | 668 | 1215 |
| [ɛ] | 561 | 2413 |
| [ɪ] | 395 | 3038 |
| [ɔ] | 510 | 965 |
| [ʊ] | 485 | 879 |

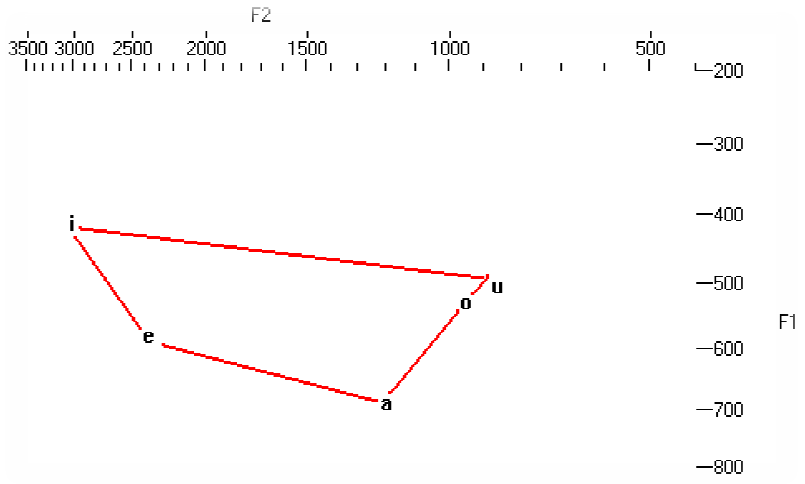



**Figure 13.0**
The mean values of the formant frequencies of Masbatenyo phonemes

This analysis shows that there are only three phonemic vowels in Masbatenyo. The phone [ɛ] only appears in loan words from English and Spanish and occurs in free variation with [ɪ]. Similarly, the phone [ɔ] is a variant of [ʊ] and its occurrence might have been brought by the interaction with the Tagalog language and the incorporation of Spanish and English loan words in Masbatenyo language.

### 2.1.3. Consonants

The Masbatenyo language has 16 consonants, including the glottal stop. These consonants are divided into: (a) stops [p, t, k, b, d, g, ʔ]; b) nasals [m, n, ŋ]; (c) fricatives [s, h]; (d) liquids [l, r]; and (e) glides [w, j].

**Table 3.0**
The consonant chart of Masbatenyo

| | Labial | | Dental | | Alveolar | | Palatal | | Velar | | Glottal | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Stop | p | b | t | d | | | | | k | g | ʔ | |
| Nasal | | m | | | | n | | | | ŋ | | |
| Trill | | | | | | r | | | | | | |
| Fricative | | | | | s | | | | | | h | |
| Approximant | | | | | | l | | | | | | |
| Glide | | w | | | | | | j | | | | |

The Masbatenyo consonants can occur in syllable-initial and -final positions. They can also be found in all word positions – initial, medial and final (see Tab;e 6.0).

### 2.1.4. Stress

Stress is phonemic in Masbatenyo. This means that the placement of stress leads to meaning differences. At the phonetic level, the symbol [ˈ] is used and placed before the stressed syllable. Orthographically, the acute accent ( ´ ) symbol is used to indicate stress.

The following words show that stress is contrastive:

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| (7) | [pa.ˈkʊʔ] 'wings' | vs. | [ˈpa.kʊʔ] 'nail' |
| (8) | [ˈtʊː.rʊʔ] 'drop, leak' (n) | vs. | [tʊ.ˈrʊʔ] 'leak' (v) |
| (9) | [pʊ.ˈnʊʔ] 'full' | vs. | [ˈpʊ.nʊʔ] 'tree' |
| (10) | [bʊ.ˈhaj] 'alive' | vs. | [ˈbʊ.haj] 'life' |
| (11) | [sa.ˈpat] 'bird' | vs. | [ˈsa.pat] 'insect' |

Stress can be primary or secondary. Primary stress is found either in the last syllable of the word, as in *[pa.'kʊʔ]* 'wings' or in its second from the last syllable, as in *[hʊ.ˈbag]* 'swollen'. Secondary stress or stresses can be found elsewhere. The third to the last syllable of the word *[ˌha.ma.ˈbaw]* has secondary stress.

#### 2.1.4.1. Acoustic Correlates of Stress in Masbatenyo

As stated by Wolfenden (2001), stress is manifested on the vowel nucleus of open syllables, but in closed syllables, prominence usually consists of voice emphasis, or loudness. Pitch differences are not consistent. A recent study (Tantiangco, et al., 2010) on stress have shown that stress in Philippine languages is determined by intensity (loudness), frequency (pitch), and length (duration), with length as the most consistent determinant of syllable prominence.

Using Praat, the duration, intensity and fundamental frequency were measured and analyzed to determine the general characterization of stress in Masbatenyo. The five minimal pairs mentioned above were used for this analysis.

From Table 4.0, it can be observed and generalized that duration is the most consistent factor that characterizes stress, confirming Tantiangco, et al (2010). Stressed syllables are longer than their unstressed counterparts. This is true for both male and female representatives. It is also shown in the table that regardless of stress, the final syllable is usually longer. Pitch and intensity are also higher in stressed syllables than unstressed syllables, even though there are some inconsistencies, as found in the word [bʊ.'haj] 'alive' and ['bʊ.haj] 'life'. [haj] is longer and has higher pitch than stressed ['haj] as uttered by both speakers.

Stressed syllables are consistently longer than unstressed syllables. However, it can also be observed that stressed syllables tend to be higher in intensity, similar to what Wolfenden (2001) has described. Pitch also tends to be higher in stressed syllable compared to the unstressed syllable.

**Table 4.0**
Duration, Pitch, Intensity Measurements of Stressed and Unstressed Syllables
*Syllables in bold-faced and blue highlight are stressed*

| Male | | | | | Female | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | Intensity | | | | | Intensity | | |
| Syllable | Duration (m/s) | Peak (dB) | Mean (dB) | Pitch (Hz) | Syllable | Duration (m/s) | Peak (dB) | Mean (dB) | Pitch (Hz) |
| **'pa** | **0.239** | **82** | **80** | **129** | **'pa** | **0.181** | **76** | **74** | **238** |
| pa | 0.097 | 76 | 73 | 110 | pa | 0.097 | 77 | 73 | 265 |
| **'ku** | **0.304** | **78** | **73** | **122** | **'ku** | **0.402** | **76** | **70** | **270** |
| ku | 0.306 | 74 | 68 | 103 | ku | 0.30 | 68 | 63 | 223 |
| **'sa** | **0.284** | **83** | **79** | **142** | **'sa** | **0.17** | **80** | **77** | **269** |
| sa | 0.121 | 82 | 78 | 124 | sa | 0.08 | 76 | 74 | 239 |
| **'pat** | **0.294** | **83** | **79** | **135** | **'pat** | **0.421** | **75** | **71** | **231** |
| pat | 0.291 | 82 | 76 | 119 | pat | 0.277 | 72 | 68 | 240 |
| **'bu** | **0.311** | **77** | **73** | **132** | **'bu** | **0.243** | **72** | **70** | **268** |
| bu | 0.144 | 73 | 69 | 108 | bu | 0.169 | 73 | 70 | 257 |
| **'hay** | **0.396** | **84** | **79** | **121** | **'hay** | **0.539** | **74** | **73** | **254** |
| hay | 0.451 | 83 | 78 | 122 | hay | 0.422 | 76 | 72 | 255 |
| **'pu** | **0.244** | **75** | **74** | **130** | **'pu** | **0.187** | **72** | **70** | **284** |
| pu | 0.109 | 75 | 73 | 120 | pu | 0.129 | 74 | 72 | 293 |
| **'no** | **0.264** | **76** | **73** | **116** | **'no** | **0.415** | **72** | **69** | **261** |
| no | 0.285 | 74 | 70 | 115 | no | 0.278 | 68 | 65 | 233 |

## 2.2. PHONOTACTICS

This section discusses the syllable structure, the phonological restrictions in Masbatenyo and the accompanying morphophonological processes that occur in the boundaries of word formation.

### 2.2.1. Syllable Patterns

Masbatenyo syllable consists of an obligatory onset, obligatory syllable peak and optional coda. Only vowels can fill the syllable peak position while consonants, including semivowels fill the onset and coda position. Vowels cannot occur in initial position because of this obligatory onset; syllables written with an initial vowel letter phonologically starts with a glottal stop.

There are two major syllable patterns in Masbatenyo, namely, open syllable /C(C)V, (C(C)VC)/ and closed syllable /CVC/. Most root words in Masbatenyo are disyllabic (they are composed of two syllables) and follows the CV(C).CV(C) pattern. There are monosyllabic words; however, most of them are functors that have no lexical meaning. Most of the disyllabic words contain an affix, reduplicated or compound.

Masbatenyo has the following syllable structures:

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| (12) | /CV/ | **ʔa.'**ku | 'I' |
| | /CVC/ | **kan.'**ta | 'sing' |
| | /CCV/ | '**gra.**do | 'grade' |
| | /CCVC/ | '**myin.**tras | 'while' |

### 2.2.2. Consonants Clusters

Consonant clusters are non-native to Masbatenyo phonology. Their occurrence in the language is brought about by the entry of borrowed words from Spanish and English. Table 6.0 below shows examples of consonant clusters in Masbatenyo which are notably of Spanish origin.

**Table 5.0**

Consonant clusters in Masbatenyo (adapted from Wolfenden, 2001)

| | /l/ | /r/ | /w/ | /y/ |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| /p/ | plato | prito | pwertahan | piano |
| /t/ | ------- | trapo | **twerka** | tyan |
| /k/ | klaro | krus | **kwarta** | ------ |
| /b/ | blangko | braso | bweno | byuda |
| /d/ | ------ | drama | **dwende** | dyutay |
| /g/ | glorya | gripo | gwapo | ------ |
| /m/ | ------ | ------- | ------ | myintras |
| /n/ | ------ | ------- | ------ | ------ |
| /s/ | ------ | ------- | swerte | syudad |
| /h/ | ------ | ------- | **Hwebes** | ----- |

### 2.2.3. Distribution of Consonants

The distribution of consonants can be described based on its occurrence in: (a) word-initial, /#_; (b) word-final, /_#; (c) syllable-initial /σ_; (d) syllable-final, /_σ; (e) preconsonantal; and (f) postconsonantal position, /C_.

There are 13 consonants that can occur in all positions. Three consonants, /r/, /h/, and /ʔ/ occur in some or all of the positions under certain conditions.

1. /r/ does not–in the word-final position of native words (_#); it occurs in the word final position of loan words.

(13) [rɪs.pɪ.'tar] 'to respect'

However, it can occur in syllable-final position (/_σ) provided that it is not the word-final sound.

(14) [ʔʊr.hɪ] 'last'

2. /h/ cannot occur in the _#, _σ, and _C.

3. The glottal stop cannot occur before a consonant, except when the syllable is reduplicated.

(15) ['baʔ.baʔ] 'mouth' (16) ['bʊʔ.bʊʔ] 'pour'

Table 6.0 shows the distribution of comsonants in Masbatenyo.

**Table 6.0**

Consonants in word-initial, medial and final positions in Masbatenyo

| | Initial | Medial | Final |
|---|---|---|---|
| /p/ | *[**p**a.ˈhaʔ]* 'thirsty' | *[sa.ˈ**p**at]* 'bird' | *[da.ˈkʊ**p**]* 'catch' |
| /b/ | *[**b**a.ˈhaʔ]* 'flood' | *[hʊ.ˈ**b**ʊg]* 'drunk' | *[ˈtaː.ʔʊ**b**]* 'high tide' |
| /t/ | *[ˈ**t**ʊː.rʊn]* 'toss' | *[bʊ.ˈ**t**ʊk]* 'bundle' | *[ˈsaː.pa**t**]* 'insect' |
| /d/ | *[ˈ**d**ʊː.rʊn]* 'grasshopper' | *[ˈkad.**t**ʊ]* 'to go' | *[sʊ.ˈkʊ**d**]* 'enter' |
| /k/ | *[**k**a.ˈmʊt]* 'hand' | *[pa.ˈ**k**ʊ ʔ]* 'wings' | *[had.ˈkʊ**k**]* 'afraid' |
| /g/ | *[**g**a.ˈmʊt]* 'root' | *[ˈbaː.**g**aʔ]* 'ember' | *[hu.ˈba**g**]* 'swollen' |
| /s/ | *[ˈ**s**ʊ.jʊp]* 'sip' | *[ba.ˈ**s**aʔ]* 'wet' | *[ˈlaː.wa**s**]* 'body' |
| /h/ | *[**h**ʊ.ˈjʊp]* 'blow' | *[bʊ.ˈ**h**aj]* 'alive' | ------- |
| /l/ | *[ˈ**l**ɪ.ʔʊg]* 'neck' | *[wa.ˈ**l**a]* 'left' | *[ba.ˈka**l**]* 'to buy' |
| /r/ | *[**r**ɪˈbʊk]* 'noise | *[ˈʔʊr.**h**ɪ]* 'last' | ------- |
| /m/ | *[**m**a. ˈnʊk]* 'chicken' | *[ˈʔa.**m**ʊn]* 'us' | *[ta.ˈrʊ**m**]* 'sharpness' |
| /n/ | *[**n**ɪn.ˈda]* 'them' | *[ˈ**l**ɪ.**n**ʊg]* 'earthquake | *[ˈbʊː.la**n**]* 'moon' |
| / ŋ/ | *[ˈ**ŋ**ɪ.pʊn]* 'teeth' | *[bʊ.ˈ**ŋ**ʊʔ]* 'skull' | *[bʊ.ˈtʊ**ŋ**]* 'coconut' |
| /j/ | *[**j**a.ˈnaʔ]* 'today' | *[pa.ˈ**j**aʔ]* 'coconut shell' | *[ˈbʊː.ha**j**]* 'life' |
| /w/ | *[**w**a.ˈraʔ]* 'none' | *[ˈpa.**w**aʔ]* 'bright' | *[ha.ma.ˈba**w**]* 'shallow' |
| / ʔ/ | *[**ʔ**a.ˈmʊʔ]* 'monkey' | *[ˈba**ʔ**.baʔ]* 'mouth' | *[hʊ.ˈŋa**ʔ**]* 'ask' |

## 2.3. MORPHOPHONEMICS

Under certain condtions, the joining of words or parts of words in Masbatenyo speech can precipitate changes in the sounds at the borders where they meet. The form of a morpheme can be changed when they are combined to form words or phrases. Such changes are called mophophonemic changes. Below are the types and examples of these.

### 2.3.1. Syncopation or Vowel Deletion

The unstressed medial vowel can be deleted in fast speech and when an affixed is attached to a word. This is accompanied by a stress shift.

(17) [ da.ra.'han] → [dar.'han] 'bring someone something'
(18) [pʊ.nʊ.'ʔʊn] → [pʊn.'ʔʊn] 'to fill'

### 2.3.2. Sandhi

The particles ***[san]*** and ***[sin]*** are often contracted to the immediately preceding word if it ends in either a glottal or vowel sound . The glottal is first deleted and the first CV of the particles are also deleted, and the remaining [-n] is attached to the preceding word.

(19) [da.'mʊ sɪn 'ta:.wʊ] → [da.mʊn ta:.wʊ] 'many people'
(20) [wa.'raʔ sɪn 'kwar.ta] → [wa.'ran 'kwar.ta] 'without money'

### 2.3.3. Assimilation

#### A. Partial Assimilation

The prefix [paŋ], and its derivatives [maŋ] and [naŋ] undergo phonological changes when attached to a word.

a. If the following root begins with [p, b, s, t, k], the [ŋ] assimilates to the place of articulation of the consonants. The consonant is nasalized and degemination occur.

[ŋp] → [mp] → [mm] → [m]
[ŋb] → [mb] → [mm] → [m]
[ŋt] → [nt] → [nn] → [n]
[ŋs] → [nt] → [nn] → [n]
[ŋk] → [ŋk] → [ŋŋ] → [ŋ]

(21) [maŋ] + [pʊ.'dʊʔ] → [mam.pʊ.dʊʔ] → [mam.mʊ.dʊʔ]
→ [ma.mʊ.'dʊʔ] 'to pick'
(22) [maŋ] + [ba.'kal] → [mam.ba.'kal] → [mam.ma.'kal]
→ [ma.ma.'kal] 'to buy'

(23) [maŋ] + [tʊk.'dʊ] → [man.tʊk.'dʊ] → [man.nʊk.'dʊ]
→ [ma.nʊk.'dʊ] 'to teach'

(24) [maŋ] + ['sʊ.rat] → [man.'sʊ.rat] → [man.'nʊ.rat]
→ [ma.'nʊ.rat] 'to write'

(25) [maŋ] +['kʊ.ha] → [maŋ.'kʊ.ha] → [maŋ.'ŋʊ.ha]
→ [ma.'ŋʊ.ha] 'to get'

b. If the following root begins with [d, l, r], the [ŋ] assimilates to the point of articulation of the consonant.

(26) [maŋ] + [da.'kʊp] → [man.da.'kʊp] 'to catch'

(27) [maŋ] + [‘lʊ.ja] → [man.’lʊ.ja] ‘to weaken’

c. When followed by all other consonants, the [ŋ] remains [ŋ].

(28) [maŋ] + [ha.’rʊk] → [maŋ.ha.’rʊk] ‘to kiss’
(29) [maŋ] + [‘ʔa.waj] → [maŋ.’ʔa.waj] ‘to confront’
(30) [maŋ] + [jaw.jaw] → [maŋ.jaw.’jaw] ‘to swat a fly’
(31) [maŋ] + [wi.sik] → [maŋ.wi.’sik] ‘to sprinkle’

In (a) nasalization occurs, thus, there is degemination while in (b) there is no nasalization, hence, no degemination.

In other instances, homorganic assimilation occurs simultaneously with deletion.

### 2.3.4. Simplification/Degemination

Two similar sounds become one, in ordinary speech.

(32) [ʔa.’ram mʊ] → [ʔa.ra.’mʊ] ‘you know’
(33) [pag] + [‘ga.na] → [pa.’ga.na] ‘winning’

### 2.3.5. Metathesis

Combining words reorders the sequence of segments.

(34) [ʔɪ] + [-(Vɪ)r-] + [ʔɪ.nʊm] + [-ʔʊn] → [ʔɪ.’r ɪm.nʊn] ‘drink’
(35) [na] + [sʊ.lʊd] + [-ʔan] → [na.sʊd.’lan] ‘was entered’

### 2.3.6. Deletion

A syllable or a segment of the word is deleted in discourse.

(36) [‘dɪ.lɪʔ] → [‘dɪʔ] ‘no’

### 2.3.7. Epenthesis

Insertion of a segment also occurs to preserve the syllable structure.

(37) [la.’ba] + [‘ʔan] → [la.’ba.han] ‘laundry’
(38) [ʔɪn. tɪn.dɪ] + [ʔɔn]. → [ʔɪn.tɪn.dɪ.hɔn] ‘to understand’

## 2.4. ORTHOGRAPHY

Every language has its own sound system. That is to say that every language has its own: a) set of segmental sounds (vowels and consonants); b) non-segmental features (e.g. pitch, loudness, length); c) syllable structure; d) sound distribution constraints. A writing system is needed to represent a sound system in order to allow readers or speakers of the

language to reconstruct linguistic messages on the basis of written signs (Himmelmann, 2006).[9]

Orthographies are writing systems that are standardized with respect to: a) a set of graphic symbols (called *graphemes*), as well as diacritics, punctuation marks, etc; and b) a set of rules/conventions for using these symbols (Himmelmann, 2006).[10]

Masbatenyo, just like other Philippine languages, employs alphabetical writing system in which the basic units are letters which corresponds to the phonemes of the language. However, within alphabetical writing systems, there are instances that a single phoneme may be represented by combination of graphemes, such as di- or trigraphs (Himmelmann, 2006), e.g. the velar nasal /ŋ/ is represented by *ng,* or by combining letters with diacritics, e.g. *â* for stressed syllable /a/ that co-occurs with glottal stop /ʔ/.

With the implementation of the mother tongue-based multilingual education (MTBMLE), there is a need for local languages to develop their own educational materials. A vital prerequisite for this is a working orthography which consists of written symbols that represent the important sound features of the language and the rules for using these symbols (Nolasco, 2012). [11]

Masbatenyo phonology shows that the language does not pose a lot of problems in establishing a working orthography. The segmentals roughly correspond to what is represented in the present way of spelling using the Latin alphabet.

[9] Himmelmann (2006) also distinguishes between "deep" and "shallow" orthographies. Shallows orthography follows the principle of "one sound, one symbol; one symbol, one sound" and approximates a "correspondence between an orthographic representation and the surface realization of linguistic forms" while deep orthography approximates a "correspondence between an orthographic representation and underlying forms.

Another distinction is technical versus practical orthography (Stone & Zamora, 2011). A technical orthography is typically a Roman-based transcription that is suitable for publication while a practical orthography is typically the language encoding used by readers and writers of the language. It is possible for a language to have more than one writing system.

[10] Two types of writing systems emerged based on what kind of linguistic unit the basic graphemes correspond to: a) morphographic systems such as Chinese, in which grapheme (or character) stands for a morpheme of the language; and b) phonographic systems whose basic units refer to elements of the sound structure of a language (Himmelmann, 2006). There are two subtypes of phonographic systems: syllabic (such as Japanese Kana) and alphabetical writing systems (such as Greek and Latin).

[11] Nolasco (2012) further noted that a working orthography is not the standardized version of the language rather the embodiment of all spelling conventions actually used and decided on by the language user for official and academic purposes at a particular point in time. Such orthography needs to be tested, revised and retested in the "crucible of practice" before the standardization and final decision can be made by the language community.

**Table 7.0**
Masbatenyo sounds and their orthographic representation
Phones

| [p] | [t] | [k] | [b] | [d] | [g] | [ʔ] | [m] | [n] | [ŋ] | [l] | [r] | [s] | [h] | [ʃ] | [w] | [j] | [a] | [i] | [u] |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| p | b | k | b | d | g | -/` | m | n | ng | l | r | s | h | sy | w | y | a | i | u |

Letters

### 2.4.1. Some Writing Issues in Masbatenyo

This section addresses some of the writing issues in Masbatenyo, and in other languages. These are: (a) the glottal stop and its orthographic representation; (b) the *u* and *o* sequence; and (c) the case of borrowed words.

#### 2.4.1.1. The Glottal Stop

As shown in the previous section, the glottal stop is a distinct segmental sound and not just a suprasegmental feature of a vowel. A useful technique in determining the phonemic status of a given sound is through minimal pair distinction. For example, *dá `an* 'old' versus *dálan* 'road'.

An instrumental approach could also be used to show the presence of the glottal stop. Figure 14.0 below shows the spectrogram of the glottal stop viewed using Praat.

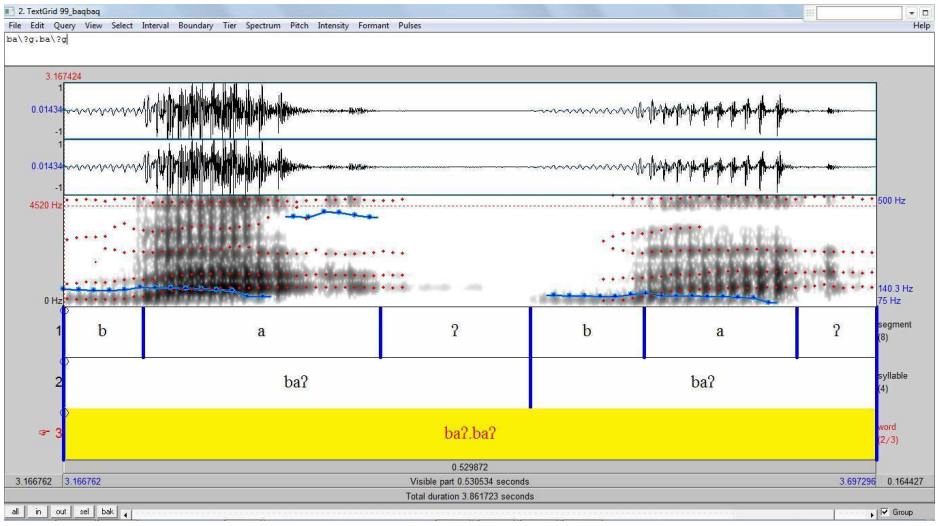



**Figure 14.0**
A screenshot of the Praat Edit window showing the glottal stop in [baʔ.baʔ]

Orthographically, the glottal stop has been represented differently by the following symbols: dash ( - ) when it occurs within the word as in *tul-an* 'bone'; a grave accent ( ` ) as in *túbì* 'water'; and a circumflex ( ^ ) as in *punô* 'full' which represents the co-occurrence of glottal stop and stress or accent at the word-final position. It is not represented at all, specifically when it occurs intervocalically and at the beginning of a vowel-initial word, i.e. *dáan* 'old', *idû* 'dog'. This paper argues that given its phonemic

status, it is imperative to establish an agreed and easily understandable symbol to represent it.

In symbolizing the glottal stop, Nolasco (2012) has proposed the following options:

a) Don't write it, since speakers of the language know if there's one anyway;
b) Don't write it, because it's difficult to write it;
c) Write it for the purposes of accuracy; and
d) Make it optional

This study suggests that glottal stop should be symbolized in the early grades level. As the learners are able to grasp the concept of glottal stop, the teacher can gradually make it optional until it is no longer needed to be symbolized.

Ceña (2014) proposed that letters should be used to represent the phonemes and diacritics should be used to mark any feature of a phoneme (e.g. acute ( ´ ) for stress or accent, and macron ( ¯ ) for vowel length). Since the glottal stop is a distinct phoneme, it warrants its own letter. Ceña (2014) proposed the use of grave accent ( ` ) to represent the glottal stop in Filipino. This paper agrees with such proposal and extends it to Masbatenyo orthography. The preference to grave accent over other traditional symbols such circumflex ( ^ ) and dash ( - ) also solve certain problems such as aesthetic ones, e.g. `*ati*` *versus* ^*atí*^ *versus* -*atí*- 'dirty'.

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| (39) | `adláw | 'day' | (40) | ka`úpod | 'company' |
| (41) | `atí` | 'dirt' | (42) | mag`ádal | 'to study' |

### 2.4.2. The Case of Vowels

The perennial question of how many vowels are there in the language has to be confronted. As shown in this study and related literature, native Masbatenyo words basically have only three vowels /a/, /i/ and /u/. Thus, it could be suggested that the vowels /o/ and /e/ be only reserved for borrowed words that specifically need the differentiation between /o/ or /u/ and /e/ or /i/. However, both *i* and *e* are used and needed in borrowed words.

In the case of the back vowel sound, *u* is used if it occurs in non-final syllables and *o* if it occurs in the syllable-final. For instance, *budbod* 'sprinkle'.

This preference could be explained using the concept of *sonority hierarchy.* The sonority hierarchy is the ranking of sounds based on their resonance. The hierarchy is as follows:

(43) **plosives > fricatives > nasals > liquids > semivowels > high vowels > low vowels**

Plosives are the least the least sonorant sounds followed by fricatives, nasals, liquids and semivowels. Low vowels /e, a, o/ are more sonorous than high vowels /i, u/. Philippine languages were observed to exhibit rising sonority which means that phonemes that are less sonorous tend to appear after the more sonorous sounds. Thus, the sonority hierarchy can be used as an explanation to the *u* and *o* sequence in Masbatenyo which is reflected in its orthography. Since the language also observes a rising sonority, the less sonorous high vowel *u* precedes the more sonorous low vowel *o*. However, when a suffix is added to the base which has *o* as its final syllable, *o* turns into *u.*

(44) túrog + -an → turugán 'bed'
(45) kudkód + -on → kudkúdan 'grater'

### 2.4.3. The Case of Borrowed Words

Another issue is the case of borrowed words (mostly from Spanish) that have been assimilated in the language as if they were native like `*abri* (from *abrir* 'to open'), s*ira* (*cerrar* 'to close') and *sugal* (from *jugar* 'to play'). As these words have assimilated to native phonology, they could be spelled using Masbatenyo letters as they are pronounced by native speakers.

**Table 8.0**
Masbatenyo equivalents of borrowed consonants

| Borrowed letters | Masbatenyo letters |
|---|---|
| *c* when followed by *o, u,* or *a* | k |
| *c* when followed by *i* or *e* | s |
| *ch* | ts |
| *f* | p |
| *j* | h |
| *ll* | y or ly |
| ñ | ny |
| *q* | k |
| *v* | b |
| *x* | ks |
| *z* | s |

While more recent borrowings from English like "subject", "target" etc, still has to be settled in which the native speakers with the help of experts, can decide on how to do with their working orthography.

## 2.5. SUMMARY

The Masbatenyo language has 19 segmental phonemes which can be divided into vowels / a, ɪ, ʊ/, consonants /p, t, k, b, d, g, m, n, ŋ, l, r, s, h, ʔ/ and semivowels /w, j/,.

Stress in Masbatenyo is also phonemic. An acoustic investigation of stressed syllables has shown that length is the most reliable determinant of stress. Stressed syllables are consistently longer than unstressed syllables.

There are two major syllable patterns in Masbatenyo, namely, open syllable /CV/ and closed syllable /CVC/. Most root words in Masbatenyo are disyllabic (they are composed of two syllables) and follows the CV(C).CV(C) pattern.

Under certain condtions, the joining of words or parts of words in Masbatenyo speech precipitates changes in the sounds at the borders where they meet. Among these morphophonemic changes are: syncopation, sandhi, assimilation, degemination, deletion and epenthesis.

This section also addressed the need to have a working orthography which is a vital prerequisite for local languages in order to develop their own educational materials under the implementation of the mother tongue-based multilingual education (MTBMLE), there is a need for local languages to develop their own educational materials. Such orthography is not the standardized version of the language rather the embodiment of all spelling conventions actually used and decided on by the language user for official and academic purposes at a particular point in time.

Some of the writing issues in Masbatenyo, namely, (a) the occurrence and orthographic representation, (b) the *u* and *o* sequence, and (c) the case of borrowed words were also discussed.

# Chapter 3
# MORPHOSYNTAX

## 3.0. INTRODUCTION

This chapter deals with the word formation and the principles governing the way words are put together to form larger structures like clauses and sentences. It deals with the structure of words and the structure of sentences.

## 3.1. WORD-FORMATION AND ANALYSIS

A **morpheme** is the minimal unit in word formation that expresses meaning. Morphemes combined in order to form a word For example, the word *paralába* is composed of two morphemes: *labá,* which embodies the main semantic content of the expression and *para-,* which embodies the meaning of "one who regularly does the action" or "occupation/profession."

A morpheme can be classified as a **bound morpheme** or a **free morpheme**. The affix *para-* is a bound morpheme which must be attached to some other morpheme in order to integrated into discourse. The root *labá,* on the other hand, is a free morpheme and does not have to be attached to some other form in order to express its meaning.

A word in Philippine languages may consist of or can be: (a) a root; (b) a stem, a root with one or more affixes; or (c) a particle.

A **root** is an unanalyzable form that expresses the basic lexical content of the word. Yet a root does not necessarily constitute a fully understandable word in and of itself. An inflectional operation, often involving an affix, may be required (Payne, 1997). A stem consists minimally of a root, but may be analyzable into a root plus derivational morphemes. For example, the **stem** *kara* ˈ*út* from the root *ra* ˈ*út* plus the stem-forming affix *ka-*.

An **affix** is a bound morpheme that has to be attached to a root for inflection or derivation. It can be a prefix, a suffix or an infix. A prefix is attached to the front of stems; a suffix is attached at the end of stems; and an infix occurs within stems. A particle is a free morpheme that cannot be affixed, such as *na* in *gutóm na* 'already hungry'.

A **clitic** is a bound morpheme that functions at a phrasal or clausal level that is phonologically bounded to a some other word. In Masbatenyo, adverbial particles and pronominals form a class of clitics called "second-position clitics" and function as what Anderson (1992) called "*phrasal affixes"*.

### 3.1.1. Pre-categoriality and Argument Structure in Philippine Languages

Philippine root words are quite a controversy to many linguists. Recent studies (Foley, 1998; Nolasco, 2011) have considered them as **pre-categorial** or neutral by themselves. They might need voice affixes or case markers in order to be classified into one of the word categories.

"Roots may combine with affixes to form words. Words combine with other words to form larger constructions. Parts-of-speech membership is much clearer when we see the roots in action (i.e. when they have their affixes or their use in phrases and sentences). In this sense, one might say that roots are neutral or pre-categorial."(Nolasco, 2011).

Masbatenyo provides further support for this claim. Take the following examples. *Dakó* 'big (size, abstract)' is a root which can express a property or state, as seen in: *Dakó `an baláy niya* 'His house is big'. But it can also be combined with certain affixes to form a process verb in: *Nagdaragkó ` na `an `atáman* 'His pet has grown already.' It can also combine with a determiner *`an* to form a noun in the context: *Dilí ` ko nakita `an pagdakó ` san báta ` niya* 'I didn't see the growth of his child.'

*Dalágan* is considered as verb when it used in command form: *Dalágan!* 'Run!'But it can be analyzed as noun in forms such as: *Malúya `an dalágan san trak niya.* 'His truck runs slowly.'

Foley (1998) pointed out that that, unlike English, the choice of pivot in Tagalog is not restricted to subcategorized arguments. For example, the English verb *give* has the argument structure <actor, undergoer, locative>, i.e. subcategorizes the NP fulfilling these roles, because among other things, each of these can assume pivot status. One cannot make a similar argument for Tagalog or other Philippine languages.

Foley (1998) argued that this is due to the fact that Philippine verb has no inherent argument structure. True argument structure would only be introduced when the roots are derived with the voice markers; postulation of an argument structure and choice of a pivot are simultaneous. But this is not the case in Tagalog. He then presented another claim, that Tagalog roots are basically *pre-categorial,* neither noun nor verb. Without a marker or a voice affix, there is no distinction in the lexicon between verb and noun roots.

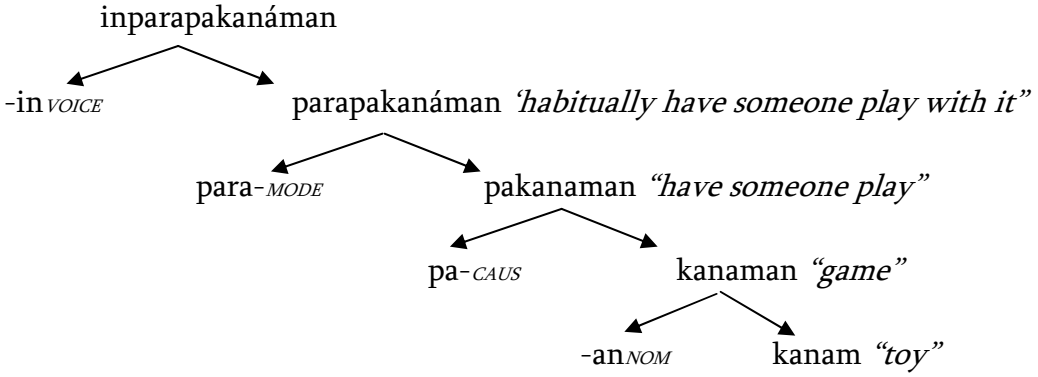
Other linguists like Himmelmann (1991) suggested that root words are not the only pre-categorial but also full words. Gil (1993) further claimed that there is only one open syntactic class of words in Tagalog.

This paper applies Foley's (1998) and Nolasco's (2011) analysis on Tagalog pre-categoriality to the analysis of Masbatenyo root words.

### 3.1.2. Layered-stem hypothesis

**Stem-based hypothesis** predicts that a word with multiple affixes will have layered structures. For example, the word `*inparapakanáman* can be analyzed as being made up of the stem *parapakanaman* plus the voice affix *–in* for the first layer. Then *parapakanaman* can be broken further into the stem *pakanaman* and the modal affix *para-* for the second layer. For the third layer, it can be broken down into *kanaman* and causative affix *pa-.* And lastly, *kanam* plus the nominalizing voice affix *-an-.*

(1) `inparapakanáman *"had someone play with it repeatedly"*




Traditionally, the word `*inparapakanaman* 'had someone play with it repeatedly' will be analyzed as consisting of the root *kanam* 'to play' and the discontinuous affix *pa- … -an.* plus the nominal affix *para-* and the perfective aspectual affix *–in.* This analysis is root-based where the root is extracted first and everything that is left is considered affix.

Nolasco (2011) claimed that stem-based analysis is a neater approach to word-formation and word analysis. It shows the formal and functional relationship between words with the same root. Take for instance the stem *pakanam* "game"*.* With this stem, we can form the following words:

(2a) *pagpakanam* < *pag + pakanam*
(2b) *pakanamon* < *-on + pakanam*
(2c) *makanam* < *m- + pakanam*

The stem-based approach was introduced in 1970s. This approach demonstrates how much simpler the layered structure of the Philippine verb can contribute to a much simpler but more incisive and explanatory analysis. The stem-based analysis reduced the number of intransitive affixes into one *–um-* (which has the variant *m-).* Traditional analysis of the actor focus has a number of variants: *-um- mag-, mang-, maka-,* etc.

### 3.1.3. Deriving New Words in Masbatenyo

There are two types of morphosyntactic operations: **inflection** and **derivation.** Inflectional operations create forms that can be naturally integrated into discourse. Derivational operations, on the other hand, derive an inflectable stem from a root or an

intermediate stem (Payne, 1997). However, derivational processes are not sufficient enough to allow forms to be integrated into discourse and may still require inflectional processes.[12]

Masbatenyo employs the following operations in deriving new words:

a. **Affixation**, the process to which an affix is attached to a root or an 'intermediate stem; e.g. *kara* ˈ*út* + *m-* > *mara* ˈ*út* 'ugly,' *kánam* + *-an* > *kanaman* 'toy,' *sugbá* + *-in-* > *sinugba* 'smoked fish'
b. **Reduplication**, the repetition of word or part of word to form a new word; e.g., *barúto* + PWr reduplication > *baru-barúto* 'mini boat'; *táwo* + RWr reduplication > *tawo-táwo* 'toy man'; *bakalón* + $C_1V_1$ reduplication > *babakalón* 'will buy'
c. **Stress shift**, e.g., *báyad* 'pay' > *bayád* 'paid'

## 3.2. GRAMMATICAL CATEGORIES[13]

Words can be categorized as lexical (or content) words and non-lexical (or function) words. They are further categorized in terms of their membership to **word classes** (i.e., noun, verb, determiner, etc.). In some languages, categorization of word classes can be difficult, especially at their boundaries. However, word classes are structured around **prototypes** and their core notions can be easily identified; some words are more prototypical than the others. Grammatical categorization can also be established according to how a form varies when used in discourse (Hopper and Thompson, 1984). Although it was already established in the previous section that Masbatenyo root words are pre-categorial, this section will discuss the different grammatical categories in the language according to their structural and distributional properties and how they are used in discourse.

[12] According to Bybee (1985), derivational operations consist primarily of the following:

a. Operations that change the grammatical category of a root, e.g denominalization and nominalization
b. Operations that change the valence (transitivity) of a verb root, e.g. detransitivization, causativization.
c. Operations which in other ways significantly change the basic concept expressed by the root, e.g. diminutive, distributive.

Inflectional operations do not normally alter the basic meaning of the concept expressed, rather they "ground" the concept expressed by a root according to place, time, participant reference, etc (Payne, 1997). Typical inflections include:

a. Person, number, gender, etc.
b. Tesne, aspect, mode

[13] Sometimes called "lexical categories, grammatical categories are the building blocks of linguistic structure (Payne, 1997). They are distinct from formal relational categories such as subject, object, and predicate or functional categories such as agent, topic or definite NP.

## 3.3. NOUNS AND NOUN PHRASES

Nouns convey ideas of referents, e.g. people, object, abstractions (Mithun & Chafe, 1999). These ideas are characterized by persistence in active consciousness, expressing the most time-stable concepts that do not vary appreciably over time (Givon, 1984). Their recurrence over stretches of discourse enables them to participate in events and states in several different and incommensurable ways (Mithun & Chafe, 1999).

### 3.3.1. Types of Nouns

Nouns can be simple or derived. It is **simple** or unmarked if it is composed only of root; it is **derived** if it consists of a root plus affixes.

A simple noun can be proper or common. A proper noun is used to address and identify particular persons or culturally significant personages or places while a common noun is used to refer to general names of things, concepts or a class of entities. Proper and common nouns are distinguishable from each other because they have their respective determiners; proper nouns are marked by *si/sinda* (ABS), *ni/ninda* (ERG), and *kan/kanda* (OBL) while common nouns are accompanied by *` an* (ABS), *san/sin* (ERG), and *sa* (OBL).

In Masbatenyo, there is a subgroup of common nouns that can be inflected as imitative. The imitative affix can be the reduplicative or the *Curu-* 'imitative/diminutive'. The reduplicative affix - the reduplication of the whole word – is applicable to a stem that is disyllabic and has open penult (CV). Regardless of the original position of the stress, the stress of the reduplicated form is always in the penult.

(3) *táwu* 'man' *tawu-táwu* 'toy'
(4) *baláy* 'house' *balay-bálay* 'little house/ an imitation of a real house'
(5) *kalán* 'stove' *kalan-kálan* 'improvised stove'

The *Curu-* is attached to a stem that has more than two syllables. It also attaches to a stem that has a close penult (CVC). The stress does not shift after reduplication.

(6) *barúto* 'boat' *burubarúto* 'mini boat'
(7) *bugsáy* 'paddle' *burubugsáy* 'mini paddle'

Temporal nouns are nouns that are used to refer to exact time. They can be reduplicated and affixed with Curu-. The meaning, however, is no longer imitative. It means 'every ….'

(8) *` adláw* 'day' *` uru `adláw* 'everyday'
(9) *gab `í* 'night' *gurugab `í* 'every night'

### 3.3.2. Nominalization

Objects are non-relational, which means that we can conceive of an object or an entity, expressed as an unmarked noun, without the involvement of another concept. For example, the concept *táwo* 'man' can be conceived without the concept of non-*táwo,* such as *háyop* 'animal'*, etc.*. This is in comparison to, for example, *tall* (stative verb) or *run* (dynamic verb), where another entity that is *not tall* or *not running* should be conceptualized.

Nouns can be derived from other word classes. Derived nouns are complex nouns that consist of a root and a nominal affix. A nominal affix can either be a: (a) nominalization morpheme; or (b) voice affix. Below are the nominal affixes and the meaning they convey.

**Table 9.0**
Nominalization morphemes

| Affix | Base | Meaning of Derivation | Examples | Root/Stem |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| - ero | N, V | occupation/profession | *tindéro* 'vendor' | *tindá* 'to sell' |
| ka- | V | reciprocal action | *ka* ˈ*úpod* 'companion' | ˈ*upód* 'accompany' |
| | N | result of the action | *ka* ˈ*utód* 'piece' | ˈ*utód* 'cut' |
| para- | N, V | one who regularly does the action<br>occupation/profession | *paralába* 'laundry washer'<br>*paratukdó* 'teacher' | *labá* 'wash (laundry)'<br>*tukdó* 'teach' |
| pagka- | N, V | nature, essence of … | *pagka-táwo* 'human-ness | *tawó* 'human' |
| pag- | V | abstract entity/concept | *pagká* ˈ*on* 'food' | *ká* ˈ*on* 'to eat' |
| paN- | V | abstract entity/concept | *pamatyág* 'feeling' | *batyág* 'to feel' |
| taga-/tiga- | N | native of a certain place | *taga-Manila* 'native of Manila' | *Manila* 'Manila |
| | V | doer of a definite action | *tagapudó* ˈ 'harvester' | *pudó* ˈ 'harvest' |
| tika- | V | almost happening | *tika* ˈ*úran* 'will rain' | ˈ*urán* 'rain' |
| tag-/ tig- | N | season/time of | *tag* ˈ*urán* 'rainy season | ˈ*urán* 'rain' |
| tag- | N | owner of | *tagbaláy* 'owner of the house' | *baláy* 'house' |
| tig- | N | distributive | *tig* ˈ*urúsad* 'one each' | ˈ*usád* 'one' |

**Table 10.0**
Nominalizing voice affix

| Affix | Base | Gloss | Example | Root/Stem |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| -(h)an | N, V | location of a thing, action or process | *ˋatubángan* 'in front of' | *ˋatúbang* 'front' |
| | V | instrument | *kanáman* 'toy' | *kánam* 'play |
| | V | someone addicted to a particular action | *kawatán* 'thief' | *káwat* 'to steal' |
| ka-STEM + -an | V | degree, quantity | *kara ˋútan* 'ugliness' | *ra ˋút* 'ugly' |
| | N | collection or group | *ka ˋigmanghúdan* 'brothers' | *ˋigmanghúd* 'relative/brother' |
| | N | place for N | *kahadí ˋan* 'kingdom' | *hádi* 'king' |
| -in- | V | resultant state | *pinaláypay* ' *sinugbá* 'smoked fish/meat | *palaypáy sugbá* 'to smoke fish/meat' |
| | N | in the manner of | *Minásbate* 'Masbate style' | *Masbáte* 'Masbate' |
| -(h)un | N, V | made of/ has the quality of | *langitnón* 'heavenly' | *lángit* 'heaven' |
| | N, V | something to be V-ed | *ˋanihún* '(crop) to be harvested' | *ˋáni* 'harvest' |
| -$V_r$- + -on | V | inherently V | *sarawáyon* 'mischievous' | *sawáy* 'mischief' |

### 3.3.3. Semantic Roles

Nouns also distinguish themselves from other word classes because of the roles that they play in syntax. These roles are **conceptual relationships** (like agent, patient, beneficiary and location) that participants play in relation to an activity or action (Payne, 1997). Among the most common semantic roles are the following:

a. **Agent,** the "typical animate perceived instigator of the action (Fillmore, 1968 in Payne, 1997). It acts with volition and performs an action has a physical and visible effect.

(10) Ginkargá **san báta`** `an basket san piras sa bike.
Gin-karga-Ø **san báta`** `an basket san piras sa bike.
PFV-load-TR AGENT THEME LOC
*"The child loaded the basket of pears in the bicycle."*

b. **Force,** an entity that instigates an action indirectly.

(11) Pinálid **san hángin** `an kálo` san báta`.
P<in>álid-Ø **san hángin** `an kálo` san báta`
<PFV>blow.away-TRFORCE THEME POSS
*"The child's hat was blown away by the wind."*

c. **Experiencer,** an entity which neither controls nor is visibly affected by an action.

(12) Nakasúgat san báta` `an babáyi na nakabisiklíta.
N.(p)aka-súgat san báta` `an babáyi
PFV.INTR.STEM-come.across EXP PAT
na n.(p)aka-bisiklíta
LKR PFV.INTR.STEM-bicycle
*"The child came across with a girl who was riding a bicycle."*

d. **Recipient/Beneficiary,** the typically animate destination of some moving object.

(13) Ginhatágan niya san piras `an tulo na bata na laláki.
Gin-hatág-an niya san piras `an tulo na bata na laláki
PFV-give-TR AGENT THEME BEN

e. **Patient,** an entity that does not act with volition, instigate an event, receive something or experience a sensory impression.

(14) `Imbutangán niya sin tunók `an láwas san puno san saging.
`Im-butangán niya sin tunók `an láwas san puno san saging
PFV-put-TR AGENT THEME PAT
*"He put thorns on the body of the banana plant."*

### 3.3.4. Grammatical Relations

Another level of structures associated with nouns is called **grammatical relations**. Grammatical relations identify who does what to whom. The term "**argument**" is used to refer to the participants and their semantic roles that are normally associated with a given verb or predicate (Payne, 1997). However, semantic roles do not correspond directly to grammatical relations; semantic relations are conceptual notions while grammatical relations are morphosyntactic.

The letters S, A, and O are semantic-syntactic primitives (Dixon, 1979) used as a tool for the identification of core grammatical relations. S, A, and O are used to distinguish certain privileged participants in events and states (Mithun, 1999). S is defined as the **only core nominal argument** of a single-argument (also called 'intransitive') clause. The A is defined as the **most agentive argument** of a multi-argument (also referred to as

'transitive') clause. The O is the **most patientive argument** of a multi-argument clause. A referent which is not an S, A, or O is referred to as **oblique**.

In the examples below, (15) is an intransitive clause while (16) is a transitive one. The S in (15) and the O in (16) are marked by *`an* or *si.* The A in (16) is marked by *ng* or *san/sin.*

(15) Kumadtó **`an bata** sa pampang.
K<um>adto [ **`an bata**]S sa pampang
<PFV.INTR>walk ABS child OBL seashore
"*The child went to the seashore."*

(16) Ginkadtó **san bata `an baláy** sa pampáng
Gin-kadto-Ø [**san bata**]A [**`an balay**]O sa pampang
PFV-go-TR ERG child ABS house OBL seashore
*"The child visited the house by the seashore."*

Other non-core arguments marked by *ni* or *san/sin* are also considered obliques whose primary function of oblique phrases is to express the setting of an activity or an event, like location, time, purpose, direction, manner and the like. This semantic function distinguishes it from the A which is also marked by *san,* or *ni.*

(17) Naghalí na `idtó na nangúha **sin `usád na basket**
N.(p)ag-halí na `idtó na n.(p)ang-(k)uha
PFV.INT.STEM-leave PRT DIST.ABS LKR PFV.INTR.STEM-take
**[sin `usád na basket]**OBL
OBL one LKR basket
*"That one who took one basket left already."*

(18) Naga-drive `akó **san motór.**
N.(p)ag<a>drive `akó [**san motór**]OBL
INTR.STEM<PFV>drive 1SG.ABS OBL motor
*"I was driving a motorcycle."*

The alignment of S, A, and O in basic sentence types is also useful in determining the fundamental difference between two major language patterns: accusative versus ergative languages. In a **nominative/accusative system**, S and A are marked the same and O is marked differently while in **ergative/absolutive system**, it is the S and O that receives similar case marking and A is marked differently. As demonstrated in (15) and (16),

Masbatenyo can be classified as an ergative language.[14] In contrast, English is an accusative language.

Traditionally, grammatical relations of arguments to their predicates are described using the terms subject, object, direct object, indirect object, etc. Nolasco (2006) however proposed that, unlike English,, Philippine languages do not exhibit subject relation.

### 3.3.5. Grammatical Markers

Nouns are easily identifiable because they are usually accompanied by grammatical markers, called determiners. Proper nouns are introduced by *si/sinda* 'ABS.SG/PL.' *ni/ninda* 'ERG.SG/PL.' and *kan/kanda* 'OBL.S/PL.' Common nouns are marked by `*an* (ABS), *san/sin* (ERG), and *sa (*OBL). This is illustrated by the examples (15-18) in the previous section.

Nouns are also preceded by (a) quantifiers (e.g. numeral terms) as in (19) and; (b) modifiers as shown in (20).

(19) **`isád** na báta`
**`isád** na báta`
one LKR child
*"one child"*

(20) ma`áyo na búhay
ma`áyo na búhay
good LKR life
"*good life"*

### 3.3.6. Possessability

One of the structural properties of prototypical nouns is **possessability**. Possession is a relation between possessor and possessum wherein the possessor asserts control over the possessum (Levin and Hovav, 2011). There are two grammatical distinct possession strategies: (a) **alienable** versus (b) **inalienable** possession. Inalienable entities are those which have direct relation to the possessor (i.e. body parts, kinship terms) while alienable items are those which have 'distance' from the possessor (Haspelmath, 2008).

Masbatenyo employs three types of possession strategies: (a) possessive clauses (*may* and *igwá* and oblique phrases *sa/kan*); (b) lexical noun phrases (*ni* and *san/sin* constructions) and; (c) genitive case pronouns (personal and demonstrative pronouns). This is illustrated by the examples below:

[14] De Guzman (1988) and Nolasco (2003) proposed that Philippine languages are ergative languages on the basis of S, A, and O alignment

(21) May kotse si Wilson.
May kotse si Wilson
EXIST car ABS.PR Wilson
*"Wilson has a car."*

(22) `an libro ni Julian
an libro ni Julian
ABS book GEN/POSS Julian
*"Julian's book"*

(23) `an `íya laptop
`an `íya laptop
ABS 3SG.POSS laptop
*"his/her laptop"*

## 3.4. VERBS

Verbs are words that refer to events to which ideas of referents (nouns) participate. The class of verb, whose basic function is to predicate, includes lexemes which express the least time-stable concepts. Most event expressions, unlike nominal entities, are considered unique mentions in discourse and occupy a shorter time span in active consciousness (Nolasco, 2011; Givon, 1984). For instance, two verbs may occur in a narrative as in *Ginkargá niya `an `íya bisikleta* and *Ginkargá niya `an `íya bisikleta kahápon.* These two verbs are separate verbs in that they refer to two distinct activities. *Niya,* however, refers to the same person in the narrative.

Masbatenyo verbs, like verbs in other Philippine languages, are marked for their voice, aspect and modality. Furthermore, Nolasco (2011) observed that in Philippine languages, voice and tense/aspect/mode often interact and it is sometimes difficult to tease them apart.

A major distinction has been drawn between two major classes of verbs in Philippine languages: dynamic vs. stative. Dynamic verbs usually describe actions we can take, or things that happen. A **dynamic verb** expresses a wide range of actions which may be physical (to run), mental (to ponder) or perceptual (to see) as opposed to a **stative verb** which purely expresses a state in which there is no obvious action (to know, believe, suppose etc.).

### 3.4.1. Voice

**Voice** (called 'focus' in most references) is a feature of the verb where a special noun is co-indexed to an affix in the verb identifying it as the **most affected entity**. It distinguishes forms or a system of inflections of a verb to indicate the relation of the most affected entity of the verb to the action which the verb expresses (Nolasco, 2011).

In Masbatenyo, the most affected entity (and the favored nominal) is marked by *`an* or *si.* It is illustrated by the following examples:

(24) Napangkóg **siya** sa bató.

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| N.(k)a-pangkóg | **siya** | sa | bató |
| PFV.INTR(n-).STEM-stumble | 3SG.ABS | OBL | stone |

*"He stumbled on the stone."*

(25) Nagburúlag **`an `iyá piras**.

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| N.(p)ag-b<urú>lag | **`an** | **`íya** | **piras** |
| PFV.INTR(n-).STEM-$V_1$r-scatter | ABS | 3SG.POSS | pear |

*"His pears scattered."*

In (24) the verb *napangkóg* affects *siya* more than it affects *bató.* In (25) *píras* is the source of the action and also the most affected entity.

In English, the idea of active and passive voice is based on the subject's semantic role; whether it is the actor or the patient. Philippine languages have always been described using this traditional Latin-based grammatical model of analysis. The agent nominal is identified as the subject, and the patient nominal is object. Furthermore, the different topic constructions were treated in terms of voice variation; that is, actor-topic sentence was identified as active voice and goal-topic sentence as the passive voice (Bloomfield, 1917; Blake, 1925; Santos, 1939). In this kind of analysis, Philippine languages were treated like English, an accusative language, in which the active voice is basic and the passive voice is a marked and non-basic category (Shibatani, 1988).

Recent studies, however, have shown that Philippine languages favor the patient orientation (Ceña, 1977; De Guzman, 1979; Gerdts, 1979; Starosta, 1982). In their studies, Starosta, Pawley and Reid (1981 in De Guzman, 1988) claimed that Proto-Austronesian, to which Philippine languages belong, is a mixed ergative language, in the sense of the patient being the primary choice for the unmarked and syntactically prominent position.

Subject is defined as "the doer of the action" or "the entity being talked about." It can be considered as the **starting point** of the event or state, "the grammaticized expression of the referent a speaker uses as a point of departure for whatever is expressed by the rest of the clause" (Chafe, 1994). This is further illustrated by the sequence of utterances below:

(26) First segment of English conversation (Mithun & Chafe, 1999):
- (a) Well, the only thing I've ever seen worse than mosquitoes is,
- (b) once when I was about fourteen or so,
- (c) my parents
- (d) my father like to fish too.

(e) So, he'd always take us off to Canada.
(f) He'd go fishing.
(g) We'd get bored.
(h) You know.
(i) So he'd take us to some lake.
(j) in Quebec

In the segment above, the speaker introduced herself using first person pronouns in (26a-b). In (26c-d) she used the possessive pronoun to introduce her parents as an isolated new referent. She used the third person pronoun to refer to his father in (26e-f) and (26i).

(27) Second segment of English conversation (Mithun & Chafe, 1999):
(a) And when we got there,
(b) there weren't any mosquitoes
(c) but there were these little –
(d) I don't know what you call them.
(e) (Black flies.)
(f) Well, they were teeny though.
(g) They were so small.
(h) they could come through the screen.
(i) Is that what they are?
(j) Black flies?

In (27), the conversation turned to the idea of black flies introduced by *there* in (27c). The *black flies* is the subject of the conversation and is repeatedly referred to by *they* in (27f-i). As (26) and (27) have demonstrated, speakers tend to select (a) first persons over third persons, (b) humans over non-humans, and (c) animates over inanimates as subjects. Agents are more natural starting points for transitive events than patients.

Languages with ergative-absolutive patterning such as Philippine languages, however, exhibit another kind of relation. Mithun & Chafe (1999) observed that ergative languages are dominated by the **absolutive relation**, the argument that is typically unmarked formally and is obligatorily present in all clauses. This argument is characterized as "the closest participant in the situation ... the core argument who directly takes part in it" (Kibrik, 1979 in Mithun & Chafe, 1999) and the "participant most immediately or directly involved in the event or state (Mithun, 1994). This property of immediacy of involvement accounts for the following: (a) participants that are not fully involved as not categorized as absolutives; they are marked as ergative and obliques; and (b) immediately involved participants are marked grammatically as definite and referential; new and non-identifiable referents are designated oblique status (Mithun & Chafe, 1999).

Masbatenyo, just like other Philippine languages, observes absolutive relation which focuses more on the idea of most affected referent or the immediately involved entity in a clause. Ceña (1977) calls this property as "p**atient primacy**".

Voice also determines the transitivity of Masbatenyo clauses. It determines the predicate-argument structure in a clause, i.e. the number of arguments, grammatical relations.

### 3.4.2. Transitivity

In his works, Nolasco proposes that transitivity is a central concept in the organization of clauses in Philippine languages (Nolasco, 2003, 2004, 2005).

Transitivity, according to Hopper and Thompson (1980), involves a number of components, only one of which is the presence of an object of the verb. These components:

(1) are all concerned with the effectiveness with which an action takes place, e.g., the punctuality and telicity of the verb, the conscious activity of the agent, and the referentiality and degree of affectedness of the object;

(2) co-vary with one another in language after language, which suggests that Transitivity is a central property of language use.

Hopper and Thompson (1980) came up with a set of semantic criteria for determining how transitive or intransitive a particular construction is in a certain language. They saw transitivity as a cline or continuum and set up two columns of ten features associated with high and low transitivity. They put forward the hypothesis that if a certain construction exhibits one feature on one side of the high-low transitivity table (see Table 10.0), chances are that particular construction will most probably exhibit the other features on the same side. Nolasco (2003) reformulated Hopper and Thompson's (1980) parameters to suit Philippine conditions and came out with a language-specific set of features.

This study employs a discourse-based definition of transitivity in Philippine languages as proposed by Hopper and Thompson (1980) and Nolasco (2003). It differs from its traditional definition in the sense that the mere presence of an object is not enough to determine transitivity in the clause. The more crucial features to consider are related to how effectively the effects of an action are transferred from an agent to the patient or object (Nolasco, 2003; 2006; 2011).

**Table 11.0**
Proposed Transitivity Parameters for Philippine Languages (Nolasco, 2003)

| | High | Low |
|---|---|---|
| A. Number of Arguments | Distinct A and P | S |
| B. Kinesis | action | state |
| C. Aspect | telic | atelic |
| D. Punctuality | punctual | non-punctual |
| E. Intentionality | deliberate | volitional |
| F. Particularity | particular | general |
| G. Directionality | external | internal |
| H. Effort | effortful | effortless |
| I. Affectedness of P | P totally affected | P not affected |
| J. Exclusivity of P | exclusive P | non-exclusive P |

(28) `Idtó na tuló na báta` na nagbúlig sa `iyá pagpamunpón
`Idtó na tuló na báta` na n.(p)ag-búlig
DIST.ABS LKR three LKR child LKR
sa `iyá pag-pam-(p)unpón-Ø
OBL 3SG.OBL STEM-DISTR-pick-TR
*"Those three children helped him picked the (pears) up."*

(29) Ginbulígan sya pumponón `idtón mga piras (san tulo na bata)
Gin-bulíg-an sya pumpon-ón `idto=n mga piras
PFV-help-TR 3SG.ABS pick-PRSP.TR DIST.ABS=OBL PL pears
(san tulo na bata)
ERG three LKR child
*")Those three children) helped him picked those pears up."*

Take the following examples (28)-(29). The verb *nagbúlig* co-indexes `*idtó na tuló* as its sole core argument while *ginbulígan* takes *siya* (the most affected entity) and *san tuló na mga báta*` (the source of action). Compared to the verb *nagbúlig* which may merely express a state or condition, *ginbulígan* denotes some form of activity. Moreover, this helping action in (29) is **external** (the action is directed toward *siya*)**, particular** (the action is undertaken to affect *siya*) and has an endpoint or **telic** (the effects of the action has been transferred from the three children to the one referred to by *siya*) which happens to totally affected. In contrast, the meaning expressed in *nagbúlig* is **internal** (the action is internally directed to the sole argument *idto na tulo na bata*)**, general** (the action is regarded as general) and has no clear terminal or **atelic**. There is also no distinct affected O since there is only one argument. Furthermore, *nagsakát* also expresses

**effortless** and **durative** (the action may not take effect swiftly) compared to *ginsakát* which emails that the action is carried out deliberately and with more effort. Following Nolasco's (2003) parameters, the verb *nagsakát* is exhibits low transitivity while *ginsakát* displays features that are on the side of high transitivity column.

The notion of the **source of action** and the **most affected entity** is important in identifying clause transitivity in Philippine languages. Going back to (28) and (29), the two clauses contain two participants each; *`idto na tulo na báta* ' (those three children) and *sa `íya* (3SG.OBL) in (28); *siya* (3SG.ABS) and *san tulo na báta* '. In (28), the most affected entity is the *`idto na tuló na báta ',* coindexed by the affix *n-* in *nagbúlig* and marked with the distal absolutive demonstrative *`idtó.* The phrase *sa `iyá* ' is not completely involved in the activity, and is marked by *sa*. In (29), *siya* is the most affected entity of the action *ginbulígan* and co-indexed by the affix *gin-.* Meanwhile, *tuló na báta* ' is the source of the said activity in the second clause and is marked by *san.*

The clause is **intransitive** if it contains only one argument (called the S) which is the source of the action and also the most affected entity. It is **transitive** when the source of the action (A) is distinct and separate from the most affected entity (O). Intransitive construction can only have the S argument and can never have A and O. Transitive constructions cannot have an S.

### 3.4.2.1. Intransitive Construction

Intransitive clauses are those whose verbs take *m-* (and its past variant *n-)* affix which co-indexes to an S, which corresponds to source of action and most affected entity. This S is preceded by the determiner *`an* or *si.* As shown in the following examples, S is boldfaced, enclosed in square brackets and the indicated by the subscript S.

(30) **N**aglakát na **`an tuló na báta`.**

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **N**.(p)ag-lakát | na | [`**an** | **tuló** | **na** | **báta`**]s |
| PFV.INTR(n-).STEM-walk | PRT | ABS | three | LKR | children |

"*The three children walked (away) already."*

(31) K**um**adtó `an báta`` sa baybáy.

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| K<**um**>adto | [`**an** | **báta`**]s | sa | baybáy |
| <PFV.INTR>walk | ABS | child | OBL | shore |

"*He went to the seashore."*

(32) **N**agsakát `an táwo sa `ibábaw san káhoy san piras.

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **N**.(p)ag-sakát | | [`**an** | **táwo**]s | sa | `ibábaw |
| PFV.INTR.STEM-climb | | ABS | man | OBL | atop |
| san | káhoy | san | piras | | |
| OBL | tree | OBL | pear | | |

"*He climbed on top of the pear tree."*

The arguments *tuló na báta* ', in (30), *báta* ' ' in (31) and *tawo* in (32) are coindexed as S in the said sentences. They function both as the most affected entity and the source of action of the verbs *naglakát, kumadtó* and *nagsakát,* respectively.

### 3.4.2.2. Transitive Construction

Transitive clauses are those whose verbs have *–an, -on,* and *i-* affixes which co-index an O. This O which is the most affected entity is marked by *an* or *si,* while A, the source of action is marked by *san* or *ni.*

(33) `Inpunas**án niya `an píras.**
`In-punás-**an** [**niya**]A [**`an píras**]O
PFV-wipe-TR 3SG.ERG ABS pear
*"He wiped the pear clean."*

(34) Díli` **ko** káya `abut**ún `an búnga san saging**.
Díli` [**ko**]A káya `abut-**on** [**`an búnga san saging**]O.
NEG ERG able reach-TR ABS fruit OBL banana
*'I can't reach the fruit of the banana plant."*

(35) **I**babálhin **`akó** sa `isád na `eskwelahan dirí sa Masbate North District
**I**-ba~balhin **[`akó**]O sa `isád na `eskwelahan
TR-PRSP~transfer 1SG.ABS OBL one LKR school
dirí sa Masbate North District
PROX.ABS OBL Masbate North District
*"They are going to transfer me to a school here in Masbate North District."*

**Table 12.0**
Voice Affixes of Masbatenyo

| Intransitive | Transitive |
|---|---|
| m-/n- | i- (instrument) |
| | -on (beneficiary) |
| | -an (location/goal) |

### 3.4.3. Aspect

The second distinguishing characteristic of the Philippine verb is aspect. Aspect signals the stage or phase of the action or activity. It indicates whether the activity has begun or not begun, whether it is continuing or has finished and whether it is about to start or has recently started.

Aspect is different from tense. In tense, the verb changes its form according to the temporal relation of the action relative to the moment of speaking. Take the following examples:

(36) a. Bernice plays the harp.
b. Bernice played the harp yesterday.

In (36a), the verb "play" is in present tense, giving the interpretation that the eating activity is taking place at a time which includes the moment of speaking. In (36b), the activity occurred before the moment of speaking, as indicated by the past form of the verb.

English can also inflect for tense with aspect, as shown in the examples that follow:

c. Bernice is playing the harp now.
b. Bernice was playing the harp yesterday when we arrived.

In (36c), the verb is in present tense, progressive aspect while in (36d), it is in the past tense, progressive aspect.

This is where Masbatenyo and other Philippine languages such as Tagalog differ from English. Take the form *kumaká`in* (Tagalog) and *nagaka`ón (*Masbatenyo). These two forms can be used not only to describe a continuing activity at the moment of speaking but also a continuing activity which is located in the past or even in the future.

(37) a. Tumutugtog si Bernice ng harp.
b. Nagatugtog si Bernice san harp.
*"Bernice plays the harp/Bernice is playing the harp."*

(38) a. Tumutugtog si Bernice ng harp ngayon.
b. Nagatugtog si Bernice san harp nyan.
*"Bernice is eating playing the harp now."*

(39) a. Tumutugtog si Bernice ng harp kahápon no`ong nakita namin siya.
b. Nagatugtóg si Bernice san harp kahápon san nakíta námon siya.
*"Bernice was playing the harp yesterday when we saw her."*

(40) a. Bukas, makikita mo si Bernice na tumutugtog ng harp.
b. Buwás makikíta mo si Bernice na nagatugtóg san harp.
*"Tomorrow, you'll see Bernice playing the harp."*

Masbatenyo, like Tagalog and most of Philippine languages, does not require a change in the form of the verb. What is important to the speakers is not a temporal relation of the activity to the moment of speaking, but the internal stages of the activity.

Wolfenden (2001) identified five aspects: neutral (or infinitive), completed, contemplated, progressive and obligatory (commonly known as imperative). In this study, we will use aspectual forms which Nolasco (2006) claimed to occur in Philippine languages, which are the: infinitive or neutral, perfective, imperfective, prospective and recent perfective. Another aspectual category, the inceptive future which Nolasco (pers. comm.) and Ceña (2014) claimed to have occurred in Filipino, will be discussed. The imperative form of the verb will be analyzed as a type of mode, not aspect.

Masbatenyo is not marked for tense since its action is not correlated with time. Instead, it is marked for aspect to show the condition of the action; whether it has begun or not, and whether it is viewed as a process or in a static state.

Ceña (2014) proposed that the aspect of the verb be classified in terms of two opposites: (a) **+/- begun** and; (b) **+/- done**. For those verbs inflected for *–on,* the following affixes are employed to express aspect: *-in-/gin-* if the action has already started and *<a>* and $C_1V_1$ reduplication if the action is continuing. If the verb is not marked by *–in-/gin-*, it indicates that the action has not yet started, and if it is not marked by *<a>* and $C_1V_1$, the action is already done.

The following examples illustrate this:

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| (41a) | ginābakál | -in-/gin- + <a>/$C_1V_1$ | + begun, - done |
| (41b) | ginbakál/binakál | -in-/gin- + ~~<a>/$C_1V_1$~~ | + begun, + done |
| (41c) | babakalón | ~~-in-/gin-~~ + <a>/$C_1V_1$ | - begun, - done |

Verbs that are inflected for *m-,* used *n-* to indicate that the action has already started and *m-* for the one that has not yet begun. *<a>* and $C_1V_1$ reduplication express that the action is not yet finished.

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| (42a) | nagabakál | n- + <a>/$C_1V_1$ | + begun, - done |
| (42b) | nagbakál | n- + ~~<a>/$C_1V_1$~~ | + begun, + done |
| (42c) | magabakál/mabakál | m- + <a>/$C_1V_1$ | - begun, - done |

Due to contact with the Tagalog language, Masbatenyo also uses the affix *–um-* to convey aspect. However, it is only limited to infinitive form, e.g. *bumakál, *bumabákal.*

The aspectual affix *–in-/(g)in-* and voice affix *–on* are in complementary distribution (De Guzman, 1994).[15] De Guzman (1994) cited the **principle of minimal**

[15] **The principle of minimal distinction**
With complex morphological structures, when one type of feature is registered in a form that is minimally different from all other forms in a given paradigm, then another marker which is identical or similar in phonological structure, even if it marks a different grammatical feature, becomes superfluous.

**distinction** to explain this phenomenon. The occurrence of one affix marking one feature sufficiently identifies the form as marking two relevant features such as voice and aspect, then the other feature need not be represented by the designated marker or affix. For instance, in *gin-bakál,* the perfective aspect *–in-/(g)in-* attached to the root sufficiently marks for both aspect and voice so the transitive *–on* affix becomes unnecessary and is zeroed out without losing its function.

**Table 13.0**

Aspectual forms of transitive and intransitive verbs

| Voice | Infinitive | Perfective | Imperfective | Prospective | Recent Perfective | Inceptive Future |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| *m-* | *m-*<br>magbakál | *n-*<br>nagbakál | *n- + <a>*<br>nagābakál<br><br>*n- + $C_1V_1$*<br>nagbābakál | *m- + <a>*<br>magabakál<br>mābakál | | |
| *-on* | *Ø*<br>bakálon | *-in-*<br>binákal<br><br>*(g)in-*<br>(g)inbakál | *gin- + <a>*<br>ginābakál<br><br>*gin- + $C_1V_1$*<br>ginbābakál | *$C_1V_1$*<br>babākálon | *ka- + $C_1V_1$*<br>kakabakál | *pa-*<br>pabákal |
| *-an* | *Ø*<br>bakalán | *-in-*<br>binakalán<br><br>*gin-*<br>ginbakalán | *gin- + <a>*<br>ginābakál<br><br>*gin- + $C_1V_1$*<br>ginbābakál | *$C_1V_1$*<br>babākálan | | |
| *i-* | *Ø*<br>ibakál | *-in-*<br>binákal<br><br>*(g)in-*<br>ginbakál | *gin- + <a>*<br>ginābakál<br><br>*gin- + $C_1V_1$*<br>ginbābakál | *$C_1V_1$*<br>ibābakál | | |

### 3.4.3.1. Perfective Aspect

Verbs under the perfective aspect denote action or state that has begun and completed. The affixes *n-, -in-* or *(g)in-* are used to indicate perfective aspect.

(43) **N**agkadtó kamí sa `eskwelahan para magkitá san risling.
**N**.(p)ag-kadtó kamí sa `eskwelahan
PFV.INTR.STEM-go 1PL.ABS OBL school
para m.(p)ag-kitá san risling
CONJ NEUT.INTR.STEM-watch OBL wrestling
"*We went to school to watch wrestling.*"

(44) K**in**úha niya `an `isád ka tiklís.
K<**in**>úha-Ø niya `an `isád ka tiklís
take<PFV>TR 3SG.ERG ABS one LKR basket
"*He took a basket.*"

(45) `**In**tawág niya `an báta`.
`**In**-tawág-Ø niya `an báta`
PFV-call-TR 3SG.ERG ABS child
*"He called the child."*

(46) **Gin**kitá niya `an táwo na nagapangúha (san piras).
**Gin**-kitá-Ø niya `an táwo
PFV-look at-TR 3SG.ERG ABS man
na n.(p)ag<a>STEM-kúha Ø=san piras
LKR INTR.STEM<IPFV>.STEM-take
*"He looked at the man who is picking pears."*

### 3.4.3.2. Imperfective Aspect

The imperfective aspect shows an action or state that has started but has not been completed yet. Masbatenyo expresses imperfectivity in two ways. The first one is the use of the non-perfective affix <a> attached to the stem composed of *n-* plus the durative affix *pag-* for intransitive constructions. For transitive constructions, *<a>* is attached to the affix *(g)in-.*

(47) Nag**a**`ísip man `an ba`ó kun pán`o makakabalós.
N.(p)ag<**a**>isip man `an ba`ó kun pán`o
INTR.STEM<IPFV>think PRT ABS turtle CONJ how
m.(p)aka~ka-balós
INTR.MODE~PRSP-get.back
*"The turtle is thinking how to get revenge."*

(48) **Naga**hánap sin māká`on
**N.(p)ag<a>**hánap sin m.(p)a(ka)-ka`on
INTR.STEM<IPFV>look.for OBL NEUT.MODE-eat
*"(He) is looking for something to eat."*

(49) Kun `igwá sin `itlog, **gina**balígya` man gihapon ninda.
Kun `igwá sin `itlog **gin**<**a**>balígya`
CONJ EXIST OBL.NONSPEC egg TR<IPFV>sell
man gihapon ninda
also still 3PL.ERG
"*If there is egg, they still sell it."*

The second way is expressed by the reduplication of the first syllable ($C_1V_1$) of the verb stem.

(50) **Nagha**hanáp san `iyá karan`ón
**N.(p)ag-ha**˜hanap san `iya k<ar>an-on
INTR.STEM-IPFV˜look.for OBL 3SG.POSS eat<$V_1$r>
*"(He) is looking for his food."*

(51) **Namu**mutáng `iní na lugár sa tuktók san bukíd.
**N.(p)ang-bú**˜butáng `ini na lugar
INT(n-).STEM- IPFV ˜situate PROX.ABS LKR place
sa tuktók san bukíd
OBL peak OBL mountain
*"This place is situated at the peak of the mountain."*

(52) **Ginba**báhin ninda `an pagká`on sin pareho sa `inda tanán.
**Gin-ba**˜báhin ninda `an pagká`on
TR-IPFV˜divide 3PL.ERG ABS food
sin pareho sa `inda tanán
OBL same OBL 3PL.OBL all
"*They were sharing the food equally among them all."*

### 3.4.3.3. Prospective Aspect

The prospective aspect of the verb shows an action or state that has not yet started. Just like the imperfective aspect, prospective aspect in intransitive constructions is expressed by the non-perfective affix <a> attached to the sequence of non-perfective variant of the *m-* replacive affix and the stem-forming affixes such as *pag-, pang-, ka-,* etc.. The short form *ma-* is also used. For transitive constructions, the $C_1V_1$ reduplication is employed.

(53) **Maga**hímo`/**Ma**hímo` siya san `inda mara`ót na bintána.
**M.(p)ag<a>**hímo` / **M<a>**hímo` siya san
INTR.STEM<PRSP>make INTR<PRSP>make 3SG.ABS OBL
`inda mara`ót na bintána
3PL.OBL ugly LKR window
*"He will fix their ugly window."*

(54) **Mā**ngáyo` siya san `inda mga mara`ót na bintána.
**M.(p)ang**<a>-(á)yo / **M.(p)ang<a>**ayo siya san
INTR.STEM<PRSP>ask.for INTR.STEM<PRSP>ask.for 3ABS.SG OBL
`inda mga mara`ót na bintána
OBL PL ugly LKR window
"*He will ask for their ugly windows."*

(55) Babakalón ko `iní na karabaw.
**Ba**˜bakal-on ko `iní na karabaw
PRSP˜buyTR 1SG.ERG PROX.ABS. LKR carabao
*'I will buy this carabao.'*

(56) `Iní na duta` `an `ihahátag niya sa `íya.
`Ini na duta `an `i-**ha**˜hátag
PROX.ABS LKR land ABS TR-PRSP˜give
niya sa `íya
3SG.ERG OBL 3SG.OBL
"*This land is what he will give to him."*

### 3.4.3.4. Recent Perfective Aspect

Recent perfective aspect denotes an action that has just been done recently. It is expressed by the affix *ka-* and its reduplication plus the root.

(57) **Kaka**ká`on lang námon san nag`abót ka.
**Ka˜ka**-ká`on lang námon
RPFV.INTR-STEM-eat PRT 1PL.ERG
san n.(p)ag-abót ka
OBL PFV.INTR.STEM-arrive 2SG.ABS
"*We've just eaten when you arrived."*

(58) **Kabu**butáng la` san táwo sa basket san piras.
Ka-bu˜butang la` san táwo sa basket san piras
STEM-RPFV˜put PRT ERG man OBL basket OBL pears
*"The man has just put the pears in the basket."*

### 3.4.3.5. Inceptive Future Aspect

The action in the inceptive future aspect denotes an action that is about to start. The affix *pa-* is used to indicatethis aspect.

(59) **Pa**-Legazpi kamí yaná`
**Pa**-Legazpi kamí yaná`
INCP.INTR-Legazpi 1PL.ABS now
*"We are going to Legazpi now."*

(60) **Pa**`ulí na kamí.
**Pa**-`ulí na kamí.
INCP.INTR-go.home PRT 1PL.ABS
*"We are about to go home."*

### 3.4.4. Mode

Mode describes the speakers' attitude toward a situation, including the speakers' belief in its reality, or likelihood (Payne, 1997). It describes the view of the speaker as to how the action is done. The term mode, mood and modality are often used interchangeably. There are at least six types of mode that occur in Masbatenyo: (a) indicative; (b) imperative; (c) aptative/abilitative; (d) reciprocal/social; (e) causative; and (f) distributive.

#### 3.4.4.1. Indicative Mode

This is the simplest mode. It states that an action is performed. This is equivalent to what other studies call as the natural or unmarked mode, or the general mode. This mode is zero-marked.

(61) `Isad na `adlaw, naglakát `an `amó`

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| `Isad | na | `adlaw, | n.(p)ag-**Ø**-lakát | `an | `amó` |
| one | LKR | day | PFV.INTR.**NEUT**-walk | ABS | monkey |

*"One day, the monkey went out."*

(62) Ginpaswítan sya kag lumingí` man siya gihapon

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Gin-**Ø**-paswít-an | | siya | | | |
| PFV—NEUT-whistle-TR | | 3SG.ABS | | | |
| kag | l<**um**>ingí` | | man | siya | gihapon |
| CONJ | <PFV.INTR.**NEUT**>turn.head | | PRT | 3SG.ABS | PRT |

#### 3.4.4.2. Imperative Mode

This mode indicates a request or command. There are two ways to express a command or request in Masbatenyo. First is by the use of the voice affixes *-an* and *–on* as shown in (62) and (63).

(63) Himú`**on** mo `iní sin tuló na beses.

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| Himú-**on** | mo | `iní | sin |
| do-IMP.TR | 2SG.ERG | PROX.ABS | OBL.NONSPEC |
| tuló | na | beses | |
| three | LKR | times | |

"*Do it three times."*

(64) Tanda`**án** mo kag masd**án**, `iná` mamāmatáy.

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| Tanda-**an** | mo | kag | mas(i)d-**an** |
| take.note-IMP.TR | 2SG.ERG | CONJ | watch-IMP.TR |
| `ina` | m.(k)a-ma~matay | | |
| MED.ABS | INTR.STEM-PRSP~die | | |

"*Take note and watch, that (thing) will die."*

The other way is expressed by the imperative affixes *-a* and *–i.*

(65) Himú**`a** `iní sin tuló na beses.

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Himu-**a** | `iní | sin | tuló | na | beses |
| do-IMP.TR | PROX.ABS | OBL.NONSPEC | three | LKR | times |

*"Do it three times."*

(66) Tanda`**í** kag masd**í**, `iná` mamamatáy.

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| Tanda-**i** | kag | masd-**i**, | |
| take.note-IMP.TR | CONJ | watch-IMP.TR | |
| `iná` | m.(k)a-ma~-matáy | | |
| MED.ABS | INTR.STEM.PRSP~die | | |

*"Take note and watch, that (thing) will die."*

The A (the source of action) in (65) and (66) is zero-marked. It means that it is no longer necessary to mention the source of action since it is already understood in the context. It is co-indexed in the affixes *-a* and *–i.*

Imperative expression of intransitive constructions have nominalized forms. In these constructions, second person pronouns are also zero-marked.

(67a) **M**agka`ón ka na.

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| **M**.(p)ag-ka`ón | ka | na |
| IMP.INTR.STEM-eat | 2SG.ABS | PRT |

*"(Please) eat."*

(67b) **Pag**ka`ón na.

| | |
|---|---|
| **Pag**-ka`ón | na |
| IMP.INTR-eat | PRT |

*"(Please) eat."*

### 3.4.4.3. Aptative Mode

Aptative mode expresses possibility or potentiality. Accidental or unintentional modes of other studies fall under this mode. It is expressed by the affixes *paka-.*

(68) **Naka**`ísip siya sin pasalámat.

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| **N.(p)aka**-isip | siya | sin | pasalámat |
| INTR.APT-think | 3SG.ABS | OBL.NONSPEC | thanks |

*"He thought of giving thanks (to the Lord)."*

### 3.4.4.4. Requestive Mode

This mode is equivalent to what other studies call as cooperative mode. This mode indicates that the action is done together by the actor and the goal of the action. This

mode also expresses an exchange of actions between two or more actors and referred to as reciprocal mode. However, as Paul Julian Santiago (pers. comm.) has pointed out, the action expressed by the affix *paki(g)-* is not always comitative or done together.

(69) **Naki**sakáy kamí sa kotsi ni Mira.

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| N.**(p)aki**-sakáy | kamí | sa | kotsi | ni | Mira |
| INTR.RCP-ride | 1PL.ABS | OBL | car | OBL | Mayor |

"*We rode (together) in Mira's car"*

(70) Warά` na `ako **nakig**`amígo sa `íya.

| | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Warά` | na | `ako | **n.(p)akig**-amígo | | | sa | `íya |
| NEG | PRT | 1SG.ABS | INTR.RCP-make.friend | | | OBL | 3SG.OBL |

*"I never made friends with her?*

### 3.4.4.5. Causative Mode

This mode indicates that the actor is the reason the action is done. However, the actor is not the one doing the action. The affix *pa-* is used to express this mode. In (71), aside from the referent encoded by *niya* who caused the action, there is another source of the action that actually did the action.

(71) `Im**pa**ta`ás niya`an mga bató

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| `Im-**pa**-ta`ás-Ø | niya | `an | mga | bató |
| PFV-CAUS-raise-TR | 3SG.ERG | ABS | PL | stone |

"*He made (someone) raise the stones."*

### 3.4.4.6. Distributive Mode

This mode indicates the plurality of an action or that an action is done repeatedly. This is indicted by the affix *pang-.*

(72) Naga**pan**ílhig `akó patalíbud

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| N.(p)ag<a>**pan**-(s)ílhig | `akó | patalíbud |
| INTR.STEM<IPFV>DISTR-sweep | 1SG.ABS | around. |

*"I sweep around."*

(73) May `usád na táwo na **nang**úha` sin piras.

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| May | `usád | na | táwo | na | n.**(p)ang**-(k)uha |
| EXIST | one | LKR | man | LKR | PFV.INTR.DISTR-take |
| sin | | | piras | | |
| OBL.NONSPEC | | | pears | | |

"*There was a man who picked pears (from the tree)."*

In (72), the sweeping action is not particular to only sweeping. It also includes picking up the garbage, collecting it, and putting it a compost pit or trash can. Similarly, the picking of fruits in (73) involves climbing up the tree, picking fruits from the tree, climbing down the tree and putting the fruits in the basket.

**Table 14.0**
Summary of Modes in Masbatenyo

| Mode | Affix | Meaning |
|---|---|---|
| Indicative | *um, m-, -an, -on, i-* | states that an action is performed |
| Imperative | *-on, -an, -a, -i* | request or command |
| Aptative | *paka-* | possibility/ accidental |
| Reciprocal | *paki(g)* | action is done together by the actor and the goal of the action<br>exchange of actions between two or more actors |
| Causative | *pa-* | the actor is the reason why the action is done but the actor is not doing the action |
| Distributive | *pang-* | plurality of an action or that an action is done repeatedly |

## 3.5. STATIVES

A stative is one which asserts that one of its arguments has a particular property (possibly in relation to its other arguments). Statives differ from aspectual classes of verbs; they are static, no duration and no distinguished endpoint. They differ from dynamic verbs in the way that they cannot be inflected for aspect.

Statives do not have adequate definitive characteristics to be considered as an actual and discrete word class. Recent analyses on Tagalog (Nolasco, 2011; Ceña, 2012) have shown that verbs and adjectives exhibit to have remarkably similar morphosyntactic structure and functions. Ceña (2012) has shown that the affix system of the two word categories consist of (i) word-category forming affixes (voice affix and the adjectivalizer), (ii) quantitative affixes of extent or duration (aspect in verbs, number and degree and adjectives), (iii) qualitative affixes (mode affixes, which elaborate on the verb action and adjective quality) , and lastly (iv) the main lexical categories (verb and adjective).

In Masbatenyo, as well as other Philippine languages, statives do not differ completely from verbs in terms of its morphosyntax.

This paper does not distinguish between the traditional notions of adjectives versus adverbs. School grammar teaches us that words that modify nouns are called adjectives and those that modify verbs and non-nouns are called adverbs. This analysis is

derived from English which has formal reasons for separating these two word classes. English adverbs are noted for their *–ly* affix.

In Philippine languages, as observed by Nolasco (2011), "adjectives" and "adverbs" are similar in form. Morphologically, there are no persuasive reasons for separating the modifiers of verbs and non-verbs. Thus, the analysis followed here is to treat them as one word class which we will simply call statives.

### 3.5.1. Types of Statives

There are several types of statives. The first type belongs to a class of unaffixed form of statives. These statives are those which are not derived from a process or those that are possessed innately by the thing being described. Examples are *lab-as* 'fresh (fish)' versus *lúb`ok* 'rotten', *hilaw* 'raw' versus *lutó`* 'cooked'. Additional data from Hipolito & Santos (2014) are as follows:

(74) *dá`an* 'old' (75) *gamáy* 'small'
(76) *bág`o* 'new' (77) *tubód* 'burnt'
(78) *hinóg* 'ripe' (79) *lúma`* 'old'
(80) *sira`* 'rotten' (81) *dakó`* 'big'

Another type of unaffixed form of statives is derived by what Zorc (1977) calls "zero accent suffix". In this case, the accent (or the stress) can be thought of as a zero-marked suffix which moves the accent to the ultimate position. The derived form is the resultant state of the word that has undergone stress shift.

(82) *`aram* 'know' versus *`arám* 'known'
(83) *tápus* 'finish' versus *tapús* 'finished'
(84) *báyad* 'pay' versus *bayád* 'paid'
(85) *túrog* 'sleep' versus *turúg* 'sleep'

Zero-marked stress suffix on the ultima can also include the following, although originally they have accent on the last syllable:

(86) *patáy* "dead'
(87) *humán* 'done'
(88) *matá* 'awake'

The second type of statives is a class of pseudo-verbs such as *kinahanglan* 'need', *`arám'* 'know', *gustó* 'want', *`úyun* 'like', *habú`* 'don't want', *`igwá* 'there is', *máy* 'there is', *warâ* 'none'.

(89) Kinahanglan `an mga ma`ísug na táwo sa gyira.

**Kinahanglán** `an mga ma`ísug na táwo sa gyira
STAT ABS PL brave LKR man OBL war
*"Brave men are needed in the war."*

(90) `Arám ko kun há`in siya.
**`Arám** ko kun há`in siya
STAT 1SG.ERG CONJ where 3SG.ABS
*"I know where she is."*

(91) Gustó san báta` sin dúlsi.
**Gustó** san báta` sin dúlsi
STAT ERG child OBL.NONSPEC candy
"*The child wants candy."*

(92) Habú` `akó sa `íya.
**Habú`** **`**akó sa `íya
STAT ABS OBL 3SG.OBL
"*I do not like/want her."*

(93) `Igwá daw sin bagyo.
**`Igwá** daw sin bagyo
STAT PRT OBL.NONSPEC typhoon
*"There is a typhoon."*

(94) May bagyó.
**May** bagyó
EXIST typhoon
"*There is a typhoon."*

(95) Wará `akón kwarta.
**Wará** `ako=(si)n kwarta
NEG ABS=OBL.NONSPEC money
"*I do not have money."*

The third type is the affixed form of statives. It is further subdivided into various types: (a) *m-* type; (b) *hi-/ha-* type; and (c) those with voice affix.

The first subtype expresses the state or attribute of the referent or entity being described.

(96) Maghandá na kitá kay ta`ódta`od **madulóm** na.
M.(p)ag-handa na kitá
NEUT.INTR.STEM-prepare PRT 2PL.INCL

kay ta`udta`ód **m.(k)a-dulóm** na
CONJ short while STAT.STEM-dark PRT
"*Let us prepare now because it will be dark already in a short while."*

The second subtype, *hi-/ha-* is used to describe measurements

(97) Guyúdon mo `iná sa **harayó**.
Guyud-on mo `iná` sa **ha-rayó**
NEUT-lead-TR 2SG.ERG MED.ABS OBL MOD-far
"*You lead that one far away."*

(98) **Hita`ás** man `an kahúlog.
**Hi-ta`as** `an (pag)ka-hulog niya
MOD-high ABS STEM-fall 3SG.OBL
*"The fall was from high up."*

The third subtype is affixed with voice affix. Additional examples are listed in Table 14.0 below:

(99) Talaw**án** si Pedro
Talaw-**án** si Pedro
coward(ice)-STAT ABS.PR Pedro
*'Pedro is a coward.'*

(100) Saraway**on** na báta` si Shawn
S<ar>away-**on** na báta` si Shawn
mischief<$V_1$r>-STAT LKR child ABS.PR Shawn
"*Shawn is mischievous child."*

**Table 15.0**
Voice affixes deriving stative verbs

| Affix | Lexical Base | Gloss | Examples | Stem/Root |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| *-an* | N, V | personal character | *talawán* 'coward' | *tálaw* 'cowardice' |
| | V | person performing action | *kawatán* 'thief' | *káwat* 'to steal' |
| *<in>* | N | manner | *Minásbaté* 'Masbatenyo style' | *Masbáte* 'Masbate' |
| *ma- + -on* | V | mental or physical qualities | *malangáson* 'joker' | *langás* 'joke' |
| *maka-$V_1$r* | Stative | making one become | *maka `arálo* 'embarassing' | *álo* 'shame' |

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| *-(a)-n-on* | N | state /human modifier | *langitnón* 'heavenly' | *lángit* 'heaven' |
| *-on* | N, V | quality; description of a person | *buwá* '*on* 'liar'<br>*tibíhon* 'person suffering from tuberculosis' | *búwa* ' 'lie'<br>*tíbi* 'tuberculosis' |
| *para-* | V | fond of<br>habitual action | *paralángas* 'joker' | *langás* 'to joke' |

### 3.5.2. Degrees of Intensification

Masbatenyo statives are inflected by means of affixes for four degrees of intensity: basic, comparative, superlative, and intensive.

The morpheme *mas* is used to expressed comparative degree while *pinaka-* is used for superlative. These forms are used to modify different classes.

(111) **Mas gustó** ko sa probinsiya.

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Mas** | **gustó** | ko | sa | probinsya |
| COMPR | STAT | 1SG.ERG | OBL | province |

"*I like more in the province"*

(112) **Mas** magandá si Magdalena.

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| **Mas** | m.(k)a-ganda | si | Magdalena |
| COMPR | STAT.STEM-beauty | ABS.PR | Magdalena |

"*Magdalena is more beautiful."*

(113) **Pinaka**madagmít dumalágan si Ellen sa tanán.

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| **Pinaka**-m.(k)a-dagmit | d<um>alagan | si | Ellen |
| SPRL-STAT.STEM-fast | <NEUT.INTR>run | ABS.PR | Ellen |

*"Ellen runs fastest…"*

Philippine adjectives have a special form of intensity. In Masbatenyo, this is expressed by the affix *ka-* accompanied by the non-obligatory particle *man* attached to bare forms (roots) and affixed forms.

(114) **Ka**lúya mo man.

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| **Ka-**lúya | mo | man |
| INTSV-weak | 2SG,ERG | PRT |

"*You're too weak"*

(115) **Ka**harayó man san baláy mo.

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Ka-**ha-rayó | man | san | baláy | mo |
| INTSV-MOD-far | PRT | ERG | house | 2SG.POSS |

"*Your house is too far."*

Intensive degree may also be expressed by *Curu* reduplication. *ka-* intensification also co-occurs with the C*uru* intensification as shown in (117).

(116) Ma**turu**tam`ís `iní na biko.
M.(k)a-**turu˜**tam-is `iní na biko.
STAT.STEM-INTSV-sweet PROX.ABS LKR rice cake
*"This rice cake is very sweet."*

(117) **Katuru**tam`is saní na biko
**Ka-turu˜**tam-ís saní na biko
INTS<INTSV>sweet PROX.ERG LKR rice cake
*"This rice cake is very sweet."*

The particles *grabe* and *láki* are also used to indicate intensity.

(118) **Grabe láki** `an sakít
**Grabe láki** `an sakít
INTSV PRT ABS pain
*"It is very painful."*

(119) **Grabe ka láki** na báta`
**Grabe** ka **láki** na báta`
INTSV 2SG.ABS PRT LKR child
*"You're such an impossible child."*

### 3.5.3. Distributional Properties

Statives can either be predicative, as a predicate of a clause (120) or attributive, as modifier of word classes (121) as shown in the examples below:

(120) **Magandá** siya.
**M.(k)a-ganda** siya
STAT..STEM-beauty 3SG.ABS
*"She is beautiful."*

(121) Guyúdon mo `ina` sa **harayó**.
Guyud-on mo `iná` sa **ha-rayó**
NEUT-lead-TR 2SG.ERG MED.ABS OBL MOD-far
" *You lead that one far away."*

As mentioned earlier, the so-called adjective versus adverbs distinction is not always valid. In Masbatenyo, adjectives and adverbs have the same forms even when they are used to modify different classes such as nouns as shown in (114-115) and verbs in (122-123).

(122) **Kadurudagmit** ni Pedro dumalágan.
**Ka-duru~dagmít** ni Pedro d<um>alágan
STEM-Curu-fast ERG.PR Pedro <NEUT.INTR>run.
"*Pedro runs very fast.*"

(123) **Kagandá** mo man magsurát.
**Ka-ganda** mo man m.(p)ag-surát
INTS-beauty 2SG.ERG PRT NEUT.INTR.STEM-write
*"You write beautifully."*

Adverbial properties in Masbatenyo are rather expressed by clitic particles such as *na* 'already', *pa* 'still', *ngáni* 'really', *kunó* 'reportedly', etc.

## 3.6. PRONOUNS

In Philippine-type languages, pronouns replace the full noun phrases in a clause. Pronouns however do not take the place of nouns in most expressions (e.g. *an bata* > siya, not *an siya*), but do so in oblique phrases (e.g. *sa bata* `to the child' > *sa iya* `to him/her.' They also assume the grammatical roles of S, A, O or oblique.

There are five important types of pronouns in Philippine languages: personal pronouns, interrogative pronouns, demonstrative pronouns, reflexive pronouns and indefinite pronouns.

### 3.6.1. Personal Pronouns

Personal pronouns refer to entities already mentioned in the discourse or known to the hearer. They are classified according to person, case and number.

They can be classified into two types, according to their phonological properties: (a) the second-position (2P) (en)clitic pronouns; and (b) free pronominals. 2P pronouns form the immediate part of the first element in the clause. They follow the first word in a clause, a position that is not available to non-clitic arguments.

In preposed constructions, the free-standing forms of the ergative case. which express agency and the oblique case forms, which express possession, time and location are morphologically identical. As already noted in earlier analyses, there exist formal, structural and semantic relationships between ergative case which expresses agency in and oblique/genitive case which indicates possession in Philippine languages,

**Table 16.0**
Masbatenyo pronominal forms

| Person | Gloss | ABS | ERG | ABS | ERG | GEN/OBL |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | CLITIC (2P) | | FREE | | |
| 1st sing | 1SG | *=ako* | *=ko* | *ako* | *'ákon* | *'ákon* |
| 2nd sing | 2SG | *=ka/ikaw* | *=mo/nímo* | *ikaw* | *'ímo* | *'ímo* |
| 3rd sing | 3SG | *=siya* | *=níya* | *siya* | *'íya* | *'íya* |
| 1st excl pl | 1+2 | *=kami* | *=námon* | *kami* | *'ámon* | *'ámon* |
| 1st incl pl | 1+2PL | *=kita* | *=náton* | *kita* | *'áton* | *'áton* |
| 2nd pl | 2PL | *=kamo* | *=níyo* | *kamo* | *'íyo* | *'íyo* |
| 3rd pl | 3PL | *=sinda* | *=nínda* | *sinda* | *'índa* | *'índa* |

As mentioned earlier, pronominal clitics appear directly after the first full word, as shown in the examples below. They are not allow to take other positions in a clause.

(124a) Namudó` **siya** san prutas
N.(p)aN-pudo` **=siya** san prutas
PFV.STEM-pick 3SG.ABS OBL fruit
*"He picked fruits."*

(124b) *Siya namudó` san piras
**Siya** n.(p)aN-pudo san prutas
3SG,ABS PFV.STEM-pick OBL fruit
*"He picked fruits."*

(125a) Di` **ko `idtó** makalimútan
Di` **=ko `** **`idtó** m.(p)aka-limut-an
NEG 1SG.ERG DIST.ABS NEUT.APT-forget-TR
*"I will not be able to forget it."*

(125b) ***Ko** `di``idtó makalimútan
=ko di`` idto m.(p)aka-limut-an
1SG.ERG NEG DIST.ABS NEUT.APT-forget-TR
*"I will not be able to forget it."*

(126a) kun sa di`ín **`akó** nagatukdó
kun sa di`ín **`akó** n.(p)ag<a>tukdó
CONJ OBL where 1SG.ABS INTR.STEM<IPFV>teach
*"where I teaches"*

(126b) ***akó** kun sa di`ín `akó nagatukdó

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| **`**akó | kun | sa | di`ín | n.(p)ag<a>tukdó |
| 1SG.ABS | CONJ | OBL | where | INTR.STEM<IPFV>teach |

*"where I teach"*

It can also be observed that the ergative forms of pronouns in Masbatenyo are morphologically identical with the oblique and genitive forms. This observation is not unique to Masbatenyo. In an ergative language, the marker of the agent in transitive clauses is identical to the possessor in possessive constructions as illustrated in (127) and (128).

(127a) Gintángkas **niya** `an mga tunók

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Gin-tangkas-Ø | **niya** | `an | mga | tunók |
| PFV-remove-TR | 3SG.ERG | ABS | PL | thorn |

"*He remove the thorns."*

(127a) **`Iyá** gintangkás `an mga tunók

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| **`Iyá** | gin-tangkas-Ø | `an | mga | tunók |
| 3SG.ERG | PFV-remove-TR | ABS | PL | thorn |

"*He remove the thorns."*

(128a) `an libro **niya**

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| `an | libro | niya |
| ABS | book | 3SG.POSS |

*"his'her book"*

(128b) `an **`iyá** libro

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| `an | **`iyá** | libro |
| ABS | 3SG.POSS | book |

*"his/her book"*

### 3.6.2. Demonstrative Pronouns

Demonstrative pronouns or deictics refer to entities in relation to distance, and space and also refer to their location on a time line. In discourse, demonstratives are also used to track reference across clauses. They sometimes take the place of third personal pronouns.

(129) Kinúha` niya `iní.

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| K<in>uha-Ø | niya | [`**iní**]o |
| take<PFV>TR | 3SG.ERG | PROX.ABS |

*"He took it."*

(130) Bagán may hinátag `idtó na báta` na tuló na bayábas.

| | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Baga=n | | may | | h<in>atag-Ø | | [`**idtó**] |
| PRT=OBL | | EXIST | | <PFV>give-TR | | DIST.ABS |
| na | báta` | na | tuló | na | bayabas]REL CL | |
| LKR | child | LKR | three | LKR | guavas | |

*"Seemingly, that child gave three guavas."*

**Table 17.0**

Demonstrative pronouns in Masbatenyo

| Spatial orientation | Absolutive (S/O) | Ergative (A) | | Oblique |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | Non-specific | Specific | |
| near speaker | `iní | siní | saní | didí` |
| near hearer | `iná`` | siná` | saná` | didá` |
| far from both | `idtó | sidtó | sadtó | didtó |

### 3.6.3. Interrogative Pronouns

Interrogative pronouns are those that take place of the nouns in questions. Interrogatives are used when a concept is being questioned and to elicit information so that an item can be identified. The interrogative pronouns are:

(131) **sin`ó** 'who

**Sin`o** `an maguráng sa `iyó na magmaránghod?

| | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Sin`ó** | `an | maguráng | sa | `iyó | na | m.(p)ag-m<ar>anghod? |
| QW | ABS | old | OBL | 3SG.OBL | LKR | STAT.STEM<PL>sibling |

*"Who is older among your siblings?"*

(132) **náno** 'what'

**Náno** `an kolor san bádo niya?

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Náno** | `an | kolor | san | bádo | niya? |
| QW | ABS | color | OBL | dress | 3SG.POSS |

"*What is the color of her dress?"*

(133) **pan`ó** 'how'

**Pan` ó** `an paglúto` san `adobo?

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Pan`ó** | `an | paglúto` | san | `adobo? | |
| QW | ABS | NOM-cook | OBL | adobo | |

"*How do you cook adobo?"*

(138) **san`ó** 'when'

**San`ó** kita makadtó sa baláy ninda Lolo?

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| **San`ó** | kitá | m.(k)a-kadtó | sa | baláy |
| QW | 12ABS | NEUT.INTR.STEM-go.to | OBL | house |

ninda Lolo?
3SG.POSS grandfather
" *When are we going to Lolo's house?"*

(139) **pirá** 'how many/much'
Pirá katáwo `an kinahánglan niyó?
Pirá ka=táwo `an kinahánglan niyó?
QW LKR=man ABS STAT 2PL.POSS
"*How many people do you need?"*

(140) **há`in** 'where'
**Há`in** `an ma`estro mo?
**Há`in** `an ma`estra mo?
QW ABS teacher 2SG.POSS
" *Where is your teacher?"*

(141) **di`ín** 'where'
**Di`ín** ka halí`?
**Di`ín** ka halí`?
QW 2SG.ABS from
" *Where are you from?"*

### 3.6.4. Reflexive Pronouns

Reflexive pronouns are special words which refer to the same referent in a construction. It is made up of the word *sadíri* plus the relevant pronoun, as in the phrase *sa sadíri niya* or *sa iya sadíri.*

### 3.6.5. Indefinite Pronouns

Indefinite pronouns refer to entities, persons, places or times which cannot be clearly established. The indefinite pronouns can either be expressed in two ways: (a) by the same form as the interrogatives plus the particle *man* or (b) by the use of the connectors *bísan* 'even, including', *máski* 'even though' or *kun* 'if' plus interrogative word.

(142) **Maskí di`ín** siya magkadtó, kilalá siya sa baryo.
**Maski di`ín** siya m.(p)ag-kadtó
PRT QW 3SG.ERG NEUT.INTR.STEM-kadtó
kilalá siya sa baryo
known 3SG.ABS OBL barrio
*"She is well-known, wherever (even where) she goes"*

(143) **Bísan náno** na klase na pagká`on.
**Bísan náno** na klase na pagká`on
PRT QW LKR kind LKR food
"*Whatever kind of food..*"

### 3.6.6. The Pro-form

`*Amó* is a general pro-form that can be used to replace any of the noun, verb, modifier, or even whole clauses. Wolfenden (2001) refers to `*amó* as the universal substitute.

(144) `An `alupíhan, `amo `an magmasíd kun `adláw.
An `alupíhan `***amo*** `an m.(p)ag-masíd kun `adláw
ABS centipede PRO ABS NEUT.INTR.STEM-watch PRT day
"*The centipede (will be the one) to watch during daytime.*"

`*Amo* is also used to track an antecedent in a previous sentence.

(145) "Táma na na mag`eskwela siya," sábi san principal.
Táma na na m.(p)ag-eskwela siya
enough PRT LKR NEUT.INTR.STEM-eskwela 3SG.ABS
`an sábi san principal
ABS say ERG principal
"'*He is old enough to study,' said the principal.*"

"`Amo gáni`, pare," `an sábi ni `Itay.
***`Amo*** gáni`, Pare, `an sábi ni `Itay
PRO PRT brother ABS say ERG father
*"'That's really so, Pare,' said Father.*"

## 3.7. CASE DETERMINERS

Determiners in Philippine languages differ from that of English whose function is restricted to indicating whether an entity is definite (e.g. *the* ball) or indefinite (e.g. *a* ball). Philippine determiners function to instantiate (or make an instance of) nouns and establish them as referential (Nolasco, 2011). Referentiality means that an entity exists as a "bounded, individuated entity in the message world (also called **objective referentiality** or **specificity**) or it has something to do with continuing importance over a portion of a text (**discourse referentiality**). In other words, a noun phrase is referential when it is used to refer to an object which has a continuous identity over time (Du Bois, 1980).[16]

[16] Referentiality is is one of the two pragmatic statuses that play a significant role in the grammars of most languages. The other one is identifiability (Payne, 1997).

(146) Ma`estra **si Maria**.
Ma`estra **si** **Maria**
teacher ABS.PR Maria
"*Maria is a teacher.*

(147) Ma`áyo magtukdó` **`an ma`estra** ko.
M.(k)a-ayo m.(p)ag-tukdó` **`an** **ma`estra** ko
STAT.STEM-good NEUT.INTR.STEM-teach ABS teacher 1SG.POSS
"*My teacher teaches well."*

In (146), *Maria* is referential as indicated by the determiner *si.* The *ma`estra,* however is non-referential because no real teacher is being talked about and the clause just states that Maria belongs to a class of people. In (147), the *ma`éstra* which is marked by *`an,* refers to a concrete person; therefore it is referential.

**Table 18.0**
Case determiners in Masbatenyo

| | | Absolutive (S/O) | Ergative (A) | Genitive | Oblique |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Personal | Singular | si | ni | ni | kan |
| | Plural | sinda | ninda | ninda | kanda |
| Common | Non-referential | | | sin | sin |
| | Referential | `an | san | san | sa |

One important function of determiners in Masbatenyo, as in many Philippine languages is to identify grammatical relations such as S, A, O and oblique. They neutralize a particular function that an entity performs in a clause.

(148) Natumbá kag nagkalát sa dálan **`an mga piras**.
N.(k)a-tumbá kag n.(p)ag-kalát
PFV.INTR.STEM-fall CONJ PFV.INTR.STEM-scatter
sa dálan [**`an** **mga** **piras**]S
OBL way ABS PL pear
"*The pears fell down and scattered along the way."*

(149) Ta`odta`ód, `an tuló na báta`, naglabáy.
Ta`odta`ód, [ **`an** **tuló** **na** **báta`** ]S
later on ABS LKR three LKR child
n.(p)ag-labáy
PFV.INTR.STEM-pass.by
"*Later on, those three children passed by."*

The grammar generalizes the particular roles of *piras* as the one that has fallen and scattered in (148); and of *tuló na báta`* as passers-by in (149). These entities are recognized as the S in their respective clauses and marked with *`an* or *si* indiscriminately.

(150) Kinúha **san `usád na báta` `an `usád ka bangkát** san piras.

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| K<in>uha-Ø | [**san** | **`usád** | **na** | **báta`**]A | |
| take-PFV-TR | ERG | one | LKR | child | |
| **[`an** | **`usád** | **ka** | **bangkát**]O | [san | piras]OBL. |
| ABS | one | LKR | basket | OBL | pears |

*"A child took a basket of pears."*

(151) `Inbulígan **`an báta`** san tuló na báta` na laláki.

| | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| In-bulíg-an | [**`an** | **báta`**]O | [**san** | **tuló** | **na** | **báta`** | **na** | **laláki**]A |
| PRFV-help-TR | ABS | child | ERG | three | LKR | child | LKR | man |

*"The three boys helped the child."*

In (150), *báta`* marked by the ergative case *san* plays the role of the agent and takes *`usád ka bangkát (san piras),* which is marked by the absolutive case *`an,* the most affected entity. In (151), *tuló na báta` na lalaki* does the helping action to the child. In this example, all the doer roles, the agent are identified by the grammar as A (the source of the action) and marked accordingly with *ni/ninda* or *san.* On the other hand, entities that do not act but acted upon or undergo the action are treated as the most affected entity (O). Like S of the intransitive constructions, they are marked by *`an.*

An entity in the clause which is not an S, A, or O is referred to as an oblique. Obliques are identified through the determiners they are accompanied with. Obliques that refer to proper names take the determiner *kan/kanda* while those which refer to common nouns take *san, sin* or *sa.* In (150), *san piras* is neither S, A, O and is considered an oblique. Obliques also include noun phrases that express possession or part-whole relationship encoded by *san* and *sin,* as shown in (152-153). Masbatenyo has two markers for genitive and oblique phrases, *san* and *sin. Sin* is used to indicate attributive relation of a noun phrase to another noun or verb which in non-specific and indefinite such as *maká`on* in (152).The monkey is telling the turtle that he will give him something to eat.

(152) Hulúgan ta `ikáw **sin maká`on**

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Ø-Hulug-an | ta | `ikáw | [**sin** | **maká`on**]OBL |
| CONT-fall-TR | 1SG.ERG | 1SG.ABS | OBL | food |

"*I will give you something to eat."*

(153) Ginbutangán niya san mga tunók `an láwas **san ságing**

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Gin-butang-an | niya | [**san** | **mga** | **tunók**]OBL |
| PFV-put-TR | 3SG.ERG | OBL | PL | thorn |

`an láwas [**san** **ságing**]OBL
ABS body OBL banana
*"He put thorns on the body of the banana plant."*

## 3.8. NUMERAL TERMS

This section will discuss the numeral expression including numeral terms, plural markers and plural pronominal forms and reduplication.

Masbatenyo, like most Philippine languages, has native terms for numbers. However, in the domain of money and time, Spanish terms are used.

### 3.8.1. Numeral Expressions

Numerals typically go with nouns to specify the number of the items talked about. They can also modify verbs and other predicates to indicate degree and quantity of action.

**Table 19.0**
Numeral expressions in Masbatenyo

| Numeral | Cardinal | Ordinal | Distributive | Time expression |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| one | `isád/ `uno | primiro | tig`isád | ala`úna |
| to | duwá/duhá/dos | ika-duwá | tig-duwá | alas-dos |
| three | tuló/tres | ika-tuló | tig-tuló | alas-tres |
| four | `upát/kwatro | ika`upát | tig`upát | alas-kwatro |
| five | lima/singko | ika-limá | tig-limá | alas-singko |
| six | `unóm/sais | ika`unóm | tig`unóm | alas-sais |
| seven | pitó/syete | ikapitó | tigpitó | alas-syete |
| eight | waló/otso | ikawaló | tigwaló | alas`otso |
| nine | siyám/nwebe | ikasiyám | tigsyám | alas-nwebe |
| ten | napúlo/dyis | pangnapúlo` | tignapúlo` | alas-dyis |
| eleven | `ónse | pang-ónse | tig`ónse | alas-ónse |
| twelve | dose | pandóse | tig-dóse | alas-dóse |
| thirteen | trese | pantrese | tig-trese | |
| twenty | beynte | pambeynte | tig-beynte | |
| thirty | treynta | pantreynta | tig-treynta | |
| one-hundred | syin/`isád ka gatús | | tig-syin | |
| one thousand | mil/`isád ka líbo | | tig`isád ka líbo | |

Numerals can be classified as:

(a) Cardinals. Examples: `*isád* 'one', *duwá* 'two', *tuló* 'three', *napúlo* ' 'ten'. The Spanish counting system is also used in this context, especially after *napúlo* 'ten', e.g. `*uno* 'one,' *dos* 'two,' *tres* 'three' … *ónse* 'eleven';
(b) Ordinals, which consists of the `*ika-* or *pang-* series. *primiro* 'first', `*ikaduhá* 'second' *pangnapúlo* ' 'tenth';

(c) Distributives which specify how much or how many each. Examples: *tig* `*isád* 'one apiece', *tignapúlo* 'ten apiece'. The forms can be pluralized by V1r reduplication. Examples: *tigturúlo* 'three each, *tigrilíma* 'five each'.

(d) Time-expression. Examples: `*ala* `*úna* 'one o'clock', `*alas-dyis* 'ten o'clock'

### 3.8.2. Plural noun markers

The marker *mga* (pronounced /maŋa/) indicates plurality. It occurs almost always right before the noun as can be seen in (154), although it can be positioned right after the case markers as in (155) and before the modifiers.

(154) May nakakíta sa `íya na tuló na **mga** báta`.

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| May | n.(p)aka-kíta | sa | `íya | na | tuló |
| EXIST | PFV.INTR.STEM-see | OBL | 3SG.OBL | LKR | three |
| na | **mga** | báta` | | | |
| LKR | PL | child | | | |

"*There are three children who saw him."*

(155) `Inbutáng niya `an **mga** napudó` na piras sa basket.

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| `In-butáng-Ø | | niya | `an | **mga** | n.(k)a-pudó` |
| PFV-put-TR | | 3SG.ERG | ABS | PL | PFV.INTR.STEM-harvest |
| na | piras | sa | basket. | | |
| LKR | pear | OBL | basket | | |

"*He put the pears he harvested in the basket."*

The plural marker *mga* is polysemous: it can be used to indicate an approximation if it occurs before a numeral or a measure word.

(156) **Mga** tuló ka tú`ig na kamí di nagkíta`.

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **mga** | tuló | ka= | tú`ig | na | kamí |
| PL | three | LKR | year | PRT | 1PL.ABS |
| di | n.(p)ag-kíta` | | | | |
| NEG | PFV.INTR.STEM-see | | | | |

"*It has been about three years that we haven't seen each other."*

Aside from the plural marker *mga,* the stem-forming affix *ka-* attached to a nominalized root form affixed with *–an* indicate collective nouns as in (157a-b).

Quantifiers such as *damó* ` 'many' and *dyútay* 'few' are also used to indicate plurality as in (158). In modifier, the plurality is expressed by the infixation of <*g*> combined with the <V1r> reduplication, as shown in (159).

(157a) **ka**sagíngan
**ka**-saging-an
COLL-banana-NOM
"*banana plantation"*

(157b) **ka**`igmanghúdan
**ka**-igmanghúd-an
COLL-relative-NOM
"*brothers and sisters"*

(158) **Damón** pagká`on sa kasál niya.

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Damo**=(si)n | pagká`on | sa | kasál | niya |
| many=OBL.NONSPEC | food | OBL | wedding | 3SG.POSS |

*"There's so many food in her wedding."*

(159) D**arag**kó` na `an mga báboy ni Juan.

| | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| D<**ar**>a<**g**>ko | na | `an | **mga** | báboy | ni | Juan |
| big<PL><PL> | PRT | ABS | PL | pig | POSS | Juan |

"*Juan's pigs are already big."*

### 3.8.3. Plural pronominal forms

Pronouns expressed their plurality through their plural forms (see Table 16.0).

(160a) Kinúha` niya `an basket

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| K<in>úha-Ø` | **niya** | `an | basket |
| <PFV>take-TR | 3SG.ERG | ABS | basket |

"*He took the basket."*

(160b) Kinúha` ninda `an basket

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| K<in>úha-Ø` | **ninda** | `an | basket |
| *"*<PFV>take-TR | 3PL.ERG | ABS | basket |

*"They took the basket."*

### 3.8.4. Reduplication

V1r reduplication also indicates plurality of arguments (161) and action (162).

(161a) Dakó` na`an báboy ni Juan.

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Dakó` | na | `an | báboy | ni | Juan. |
| big | PRT | ABS | pig | POSS | Juan |

"*Juan's pig is big."*

(161b) D**arag**kó` na `an **mga** báboy ni Juan.

| | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| D<**ar>**a<g>ko | na | `an | **mga** | báboy | ni | Juan |
| big<PL><PL> | PRT | ABS | PL | pig | POSS | Juan |

"*Juan's pigs are already big."*

(162) Nagtinaráwa sinda `Itay.

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| N.(p)ag-t<in><**ar**>awa | sinda | `Itay |
| INTR.STEM<PFV><PL>laugh | ABS.PR.PL | father |

*"Father kept on laughing."*

## 3.9. CLITIC PARTICLES

Clitic particles constitute a group that adds meaning to the predicate or a part of the sentence. They are prosodically weak elements which form part of a word (or other prosodic unit) with other material from which it is syntactically distinct. They follow the first full word in the clause. Clitics are also polysemous; in most instances, they need to have a context to acquire meaning.

The clitic particles in Masbatenyo can be classified as pronominal and adverbial. This section will discuss the placement of clitics in the clause, their distribution and their relative ordering within a cluster.

Masbatenyo attests a mixture of clitic-placement types: post-initial or best known as second-position (2P) clitics (also called Wackernagel's clisis) and verb adjacent (Lee, 2006).

### 3.9.1. Clitic Placement

Clitics typically occupy the second position in a clause. They have to be positioned right after the verb when both clitic clusters and non-clitic phrases occupy the post-verbal position in a verb-initial clause.

The clitics can be found in the positions as shown below:

**Table 20.0**

Clitic placement and distribution in Masbatenyo (Lee, 2006)

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Verb-initial | | | verb | clitic |
| Adjunct-fronted | | adjunct | clitic | verb |
| Negated | | neg | clitic | verb |
| A combination of constructions | adjunct | neg | clitic | verb |
| | adjunct | clitic | neg | verb |
| Multiple fronted adjuncts | adjunct | adjunct | clitic | verb |
| | adjunct | clitic | adjunct | verb |

(163) **Verb-initial clauses**
`Inhánap **niya** kay kúlang na `an `íya bangkát.
`In-hánap **=niya** kay kúlang
PFV-look.for-TR 3SG.ERG CONJ lack
na `an `íya bangkat
PRT ABS 3SG.POSS basket
*"He looked for (it) because there's a basket missing."*

(164) Nakakúha` **na** siya sin duwá ka bángkat na piras.
N.(p)aka-kúha` =**na** =siya sin duwá
INT.STEM-take PRT 3SG.ABS OBL NUM

ka= bangkát na piras
LKR basket LKR pears
*"He already had two basket of pears."*

Pronominal clitics, such as the 3SG.ERG *niya* in (164) immediately follows the verb in verb-initial clauses. Pronominal clitics exhibit both Wackernagel and verb-adjacent clisis.

In pragmatically marked constructions such as preposing, adjunct-fronted and negated clauses, the clitics precede the verb. This is because the negator or fronted adjuncts become the host for clitic.

(165) **Adjunct-fronted clauses**
Didtó **niya** naku`ánan na `an `íya peras…

Didtó =**niya** n.(k)a-ku`an-an
DIST.ABS 3SG.ERG PFV.STEM-filler-TR(-an)
na `an `íya piras
LKR ABS 3SG.POSS pear
*"There he realized that his pears…"*

(166) **Negated clauses**
Díli` **ka** magpáng`onsi` sin ka`úpod.
Díli` =**ka** m.(p)ag-páng`onsi` sin ka`úpod
NEG 2SG.ABS NEUT.INT(m-).STEM-cheat OBL companion
"*Do not cheat your companion."*

(167) Díli **siya** magbúso sa túbig.
Díli` **=siya** m.(p)ag-búso sa túbig
NEG 3SG.ABS NEUT.INTR.STEM-dive OBL water
"*He must not dive into the water.*"

(168) Warά` **man** niya ginhungά`.
Warά` **=man** =niya gin-hungά`-Ø
NEG.EXIST PRT 3SG.ERG PFV-ask-TR
*"He didn't ask."*

(169a) **A combination of constructions** (Lee, 2006)
Díli` ka`ángay magpáng`onsi sin ka`upod.
Díli` **`ángay =ka** m.(p)ag-pang`onsi sin ka`úpod
ought PRT 2SG.ABS NEUT.INTR.DISTR-cheat OBL companion
"*You ought not to cheat your companion.*""

(169b) *`Angay díli` ka magpáng`onsi sin ka`úpod.
* 'Angay díli` =ka m.(p)ag-páng`onsi sin ka`úpod.
ought NEG 2SG.ABS NEUT.INTR.DISTR-cheat OBL companion
*"You ought not to cheat your companion."*

When it comes to adverbials, some can optionally function as clitic members. As illustrated by example (170a), adverbial clitics (such as *anay* 'first') can be conclusively part of the clitic cluster. It can also be positioned outside of the cluster as shown in (170b).

(170a) Díli` **ko `ánay** `i`atóp `iní na `ímo sim.
[Dili **=ko** =`**anay**] `i-atóp `iní
NEG 1SG.ERG PRT PRSP.TR-roof PROX.ABS

na `ímo sim
LKR 2SG.POSS corrugated.tin
"*I will not first use this corrugated metal sheet of yours to roof with.*"

(170b) Díli` =**ko** `i`atóp `anay `iní na `ímo sim.
[Dili **=ko** `i-atóp] `ánay `iní
NEG 1ERG.SG PRSP.TR(i-)-roof first PROX.ERG
na `ímo sim
LKR 2SG.POSS corrugated.tin
*"I will not first use this corrugated metal sheet of yours to roof with."*

### 3.9.2. Clitic Order

Billings & Kaufman (2004) has shown that in Austronesian languages, there are compromises between morphosemantic and prosodic requirements in determining the

relative order of multiple clitics within the cluster.[17] Masbatenyo clitic order is governed mostly by prosodic features and follows the hierarchy schematized below:

a. monosyllabic pronominal >clitic particles > disyllabic pronominals
b. class 1 clitics > class 2, 3, 4
c. class 3a > class 4

The hierarchy means that monosyllabic pronouns always precede clitic particles, which in turn precede disyllabic pronouns. (b) says that class 1 clitic particles always precede classes 2, 3 and 4. (c) says that class 3a always precede class 4 clitics.

The following table shows the classes of clitic relative to their position in the clitic cluster.

**Table 21.0**
Order of clitic particles

| | |
|---|---|
| Class 1 | *pa* 'still' |
| | *na* 'already' |
| Class 2 | *man* 'also' |
| Class 3 (a) | *ba* 'interrogative marker' |
| | *la(ng)* 'only; just' |
| | *(n)gáni* ` 'really' |
| | *ga(yó)d* 'really' |
| Class 3 (b) | *daw* 'probably; reportedly' |
| | *kunó* reportedly' |
| | *`ánay* 'first; before' |
| Class 4 | *`amó* 'speculation marker' |
| | *galí* ` 'surprise marker' |
| | *kuntáni* 'optative marker' |
| | *lugód* 'as a result' |
| | *sigúro* 'perhaps' |

(171) Díli` **ka kuntáni` niya** ma`ábtan.
Díli` [=**ka** **=kuntáni** **=niya**] m.(k)a-ab(o)t-an
NEG 2SG.ABS hopefully 3SG.ERG PRSP.STEM-reach-TR
"*Hopefully, he won't reach you.*"

[17] Tagalog shows mostly prosodic features, Cebuano exhibits a mixed system and Bikol shows properties between these two other languages (Billings & Konopasky, 2002). Kapampangan and a host of Central Luzon languages, on the other hand, are ordered by case; the ergative case is followed by the absolutive (Kitano, 2006).

(172) Warά` **pa man gáni` siya** nagahalí`.
Wara [=**pa** =**man** =**gáni`** =**siya**] n.(p)ag<a>halí`
NEG still even really 3SG.ABS INTR.STEM<IPFV>leave
*"He is still not really leaving."*

## 3.10. LINKERS

Linkers are words which connects words, phrases and sentences into larger constructions. The linkers in Masbatenyo are: *na,* and *ka.* The linker *na* is used to connect words, phrases and clauses, while the linker *ka* is only used to connet the numerical expressions to the entity it modifies. The non-specific case marker *sin* can also be used as linker in phrases that express measurement, time and quality.

(173) tuló na báta`
tulo ***na*** báta`
three LKR child
"*three children"*

(174) `isad ka tiklís
`isad ***ka*** tiklís
one LKR basket
*"one basket"*

(175) `isád sin hápon
'isád ***sin*** hápon
one LKR afternoon
"*one afternoon"*

(176) Nag`eskwela kamí sin ma`áyo
N.(p)ag`eskwela kamí sin ma`áyo
PFV.INTR.STEM-go.to.school 1PL.ABS OBL good
*"We studied well."*

### 3.10.1. Conjunctions

Conjunctions are connector words such as *kag* 'and', *pero* 'but', *kay* 'because', *kun* 'if', *bísan* 'even', *para* 'in order to' which can also be considered as linkers in the sense that they link one clause to another. These words link utterances in discourse to ensure an efficient and coherent expression of thoughts.[18]

[18] Chua and Monghit (2013) has reinvestigated Masbatenyo conjunctions and classified according to their semantic and syntactic description.

There are two major classifications of conjoining: **coordination** and **subordination** conjunctions. Coordination is a process which combines similar types of constructions into larger units and still has the same semantic relations with other surrounding elements. Subordination, on the other hand, connects two unequal clauses which involve part-whole relationship.

### 3.10.1.1. Coordinating Conjunctions

Masbatenyo has the following coordinating conjunctions: *kag* 'and', *`o* 'or' and *pero* 'but'. *Kag* and *`o* differ semantically, however their coordinants are the same. Moreover, *kag* and *`o* can connect both phrases and clauses while *pero* only connects clauses.

*Kag* connects phrases or clauses of equal importance and also adds up information regarding an event or state (177). *`O* lays down choices or options (178).

(177) `ilóy kag `ama`
`ilóy **kag** `ama`
mother CONJ father
*"mother and father"*

(178) Nagaduhá-dúhá siya kun mādalágan o díli`.
N.(p)ag<a>duha~duha siya kun
INTR.STEM-<IPFV>-two 3SG.ABS if
m.(k)a-dalágan **`o** díli`
NEUT.INTR.STEM-run or NEG
"*He is thinking twice whether to run or not."*

*Pero* connects clauses that express ideas in contradiction.

(179) `Akó po `an `una`una na nagsulód pero `akó `an pinaka`urhí.
`Akó po `an `una~`una na n.(p)ag-sulód
1SG.ABS PRT ABS INTSV~first LKR PFV.INTR.STEM-enter
**peró** `akó `an pinaka`urhí.
CONJ 1SG.ABS ABS SPRL-last
*"I was the very first to enter but I was the last to go out.*

### 3.10.1.2. Subordinating Conjunctions

Subordinating conjunctions connect two unequal clauses: an independent clause and a dependent clause. In this paper, subordination will be analyzed in terms of their syntactic properties and the semantic relations they express, Jonsson (2012) distinguished two major classifications of semantic relations: **temporal** and **co-variational.** They are further subcategorized as follows:

**Table 22.0**
Semantic Classification of Subordinating Conjunctions

| TEMPORAL | CO-VARIATIONAL |
|---|---|
| co-occurrence | condition |
| posteriority | concession |
| anteriority | purpose |
| terminal boundary | reason |
| initial boundary | result |

### *3.10.1.2.1. Temporal Relations*

Temporal relations are expressed by the following: *hábang* (co-occurrence), *bag`ó* (anteriority), *pagkatápos/paghumán* (posteriority), *hásta* (terminal boundary) and *túna`* (initial boundary).

Co-occurrence means that a certain event occurs with another event at the same time and expressed by *hábang* in Masbatenyo*.* .The verb is in imperfective aspect and indicates the meaning of progression.

(180) **Hábang** nagalakát, nag`i`isturyáhan sinda.
**Hábang** n.(p)ag<a>lakát
CONJ INTR.STEM<IPFV>walk
n.(p)ag-`i~isturyá-han sinda
INTR.STEM-IPFV~talk-RCP 3PL.ABS

Anteriority and posteriority indicate relations of things that comes before (anterior to) and after (posterior to) something else. In Masbatenyo, *bag`ó* expresses anteriority while *pagkatápos/paghumán* indicates posteriority.

(181) Hálos` isad ka `adláw **bag`o** siya naglabás
Hálos ` isad ka `adláw **bag`o** siya
almost one LKR day CONJ 3SG.ABS
n.(p)ag-labás
PFV.INTR.STEM-go.out
*"It's almost a day before he went out."*

(181) **Paghumán** námon kumá`on, maháli` na kamí.
**Paghumán** námon k<um>á`on,
CONJ 1PL.ERG NEUT.INTR-eat
m.(k)a-háli` na kamí
PRSP.INTR.STEM PRT 1PL.ABS
*"After we eat lunch, we will leave."*

*Túna`* 'since' expresses an origin when the action has started occurring (initial boundary while *hásta* 'until' conveys an endpoint, the resultant state of affairs as illustrated in (182)-(183).

(182) **Túna`** san pagkatransfer ko didí hastá na nagretire `akó, `amó la` `inán subjects ko.

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Túna`** | san | pagka-transfer | ko | didí |
| CONJ | DIST.OBL | NOM-transfer | 1SG.ERG | PROX.OBL |
| hastá | na | n.(p)ag-retire | `akó, | |
| CONJ | LKR | PFV.INTR.STEM-retire | 1SG.ABS | |
| `amó | la` | `iná=n | subjects | ko. |
| PRO | PRT | MED.ABS=ABS | subjects | 1SG.POSS |

*"Since I started until I retired, those were the only subjects I got."*

(183) `Idto na tuló na báta` padáyon man sa paglákat-lakátun **hastá** san na`abtán ninda `idtó na laláki.

| | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| `Idto | na | tuló | na | báta` | padáyon | man | sa |
| DIST.ABS | LKR | three | LKR | child | continue | PRT | OBL |
| pag-lákat-lakátun | | | **hastá** | san | | | |
| STEM-DISTR~walk-TR | | | CONJ | DIST.OBL | | | |
| n.(k)a`ab(u)t-án | | | ninda | | `idtó | na | laláki. |
| PFV.STEM-reach-TR | | | 3SG.ERG | | DIST.ABS | LKR | man |

*"Those three children went on walking until they reached that man."*

### *3.10.1.2.2. Co-varying Relations*

Co-varying relations indicate that the state of affairs involved is hypothetical (conditional), expected but altered (concessive), intended (purpose), directly/indirectly causes (reason and result) (Jonsson, 2012).

In Masbatenyo, *kun* and *pag* operate on two constructions in which one of the clause is explicitly marked denoting a hypothetical state of affairs which represents a condition on which the state of affairs of the other clause is dependent for its realization. *Kun* generally indicates conditional relations. *Pag,* however, expresses a higher potential truthfulness than *kun.* This is demonstrated by *pag* only taking an imperfective or a prospective form of the verb in which the action is not done yet. On the other hand, *kun* can take the perfective aspect of the verb.

(184) **Kun** mabalúd `an dágat, `itlog `an `ámon surá`

| | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Kun** | m.(k)a-balúd | `an | dágat, | `itlog | `an | `ámon | surá` |
| CONJ | STAT.STEM-wave | ABS | see | egg | ABS | 1SG.POSS | viand |

*"If the sea is violent, our dinner is egg."*

(185) Pirmí daw po `idtó ninda ginahímo` **pag** ma`abót `an bangká.
Pirmí daw po `idtó ninda gin<a>hímo`
always PRT PRT DIST.ABS 3PL.ERG TR<IPFV>do
**pag** m.(k)a-abót `an bangká
CONJ PRSP.STEM-arrive ABS boat
*"They said they always do that when the boat comes."*

*Kundí`* expresses a rather different conditional relation. It denotes that one state of affair is a possible alternative condition of the given state of affair.

(186) Warà` siyán mahimú`an sa paraiso **kundí`** magparapasáway.
Warà` siya=(si)n
NEG 3SG.ABS=OBL.NONSPEC
m.(k)a-himu-an sa paraíso
NEUT.STEM-do-TR OBL paradise
**kundí`** m.(p)ag-para-pasaway
but.only INTR.STEM-MODE-disturb
"*He had nothing to do in paradise but only to continually disturb others."*

There is a rare conditional distinction that can be found in Masbatenyo expressed by *`ugáling.*

(187) Damó` gayód `an mahihímo``**ugáling** warán kwarta.
Damó` gayód `an m.(k)a-hi˜himo
many really ABS INTR.STEM-PRSP˜do
**ugáling** warà=(si)n kwarta
however NEG=OBL.NONSPEC money
*"There's really so much to do however there is no money."*

In concessive relation, one state of affairs is unexpected given the occurrence of another. It is expressed by *bísan* or *máski.*

(188) Malipáyon siya **bísan** warán kwarta.
M.(k)a-lipáy-on siya **bísan**
INTR.STEM-happiness-STAT 3SG.ABS CONJ
warà=n kwarta
NEG.EXIST=OBL.NONSPEC money
"*She is a happy person even though she has no money."*

(189) M**áski** ginturúkan `akó sin anesthesia, batyág ko gayód `an sakít.
**Máski** gin-turúk-an `akó sin anesthesia,
CONJ PFV-inject-TR 1SG.ABS OBL anesthesia

batyág ko gayód `an sakít
feel 1SG.ERG really ABS pain
*"Even though I was injected with anesthesia I really still felt the pain."*

Another type of co-varying relation is expressed by *kay.* This relation denotes that one state of affair constitutes the cause of another.

(190) Nagaparatángis la` siya **kay** namimíngaw.
N.(p)ag<a>para-tángis la` siya
INTR.STEM<IPFV>MODE-cry PRT 3SG.ABS
**kay** n.(k)a-mi~míngaw
CONJ INTR.STEM<IPFV>miss.someone
"*She just cries because she misses someone."*

*Kayá* ` encodes state of affairs occurring as direct or indirect consequence of the state of affairs of the accompanying clause.

(191) Wará pa nag`ulí` si Pedro **kayá`** nagparahánap `an `íya `ilóy.
Wará pa n.(p)ag-ulí` si Pedro **kayá`**
NEG PRT PFV.INTR.STEM-come.home ABS Pedro therefore
n.(p)ag-para-hánap `an `íya `ilóy
PFV.INTR.STEM-MODE-look.for ABS 3SG.OBL mother
*"Pedro has not come home yet so his mother has been looking for him."*

Another consequential relation is expressed by *tádi* ` denoting that one state of affair is the result of another.

(192) Kun nagtugá` ka dáyon **tádi`** warán` masakití.

kun n.(p)ag-tugá` ka dáyon **tádi`**
CONJ PFV.INTR.STEM-tell.truth 2SG.ABS immediately then
warán` m.(k)a-sakit-í
NEG PRSP.INTR.STEM–hurt-TR
*"If you told the truth immediately, then you would not get hurt."*

The word `*agód* signifies that one state of affair is the aim or purpose of an another.

(193) Matúrog na kitá **`agód** `átab pa kitá magbángon.
M.(k)a-túrog na kitá **`agód**
NEUT.INTR.STEM-sleep PRT 12ABS so

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| `átab | pa | kitá | m.(p)ag-bángon |
| early | PRT | 12ABS | NEUT.INTR.STEM-wake.up |

*"Let's sleep so that we may wake up early."*

`Another relation that is found in Masbatenyo is indicated by the word *pwera.* It expresses an exception to the given state of affair. *Pwera* is a Spanish word but it is already incorporated in the language's lexicon.

(194) `Iláhid mo `an panláhid na `asúpre sa láwas **pwera** lang sa bayhón.

| | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| `I-láhid | | mo | `an | panlahid | na | `asupre |
| NEUT.TR-wipe | | 2SG.ERG | ABS | ointment | LKR | sulphur |
| sa | lawas | **pwera** | lang | sa | bayhón | |
| OBL | body | except | only | OBL | face | |

*"Apply the sulphur ointment on the body only except on the face."*

## 3.11. SUMMARY

This chapter provides information about the morphosyntax of Masbatenyo. It discusses the structure of words and various operations involved in word formation. It also deals with the different principles governing the way words are put together to form larger structures like phrases, clauses and sentences.

This chapter also presents a new approach on word formation and word analysis in Masbatenyo, namely, the layered stem or stem-based hypothesis. The analysis of Masbatenyo stems is used to support the pre-categoriality of Philippine root words – that unless they are marked for voice and case, they cannot be categorized into one of the word categories. Grammatical categorization can also be established according to how a form varies when used in discourse.

The grammatical categories that can be found in Masbatenyo are as follows: nouns, verbs, statives, determiners, pronouns, numerals, modifiers, and clitic particles and linkers (which include conjunctions). Adjectives and adverbs which are traditionally analyzed as distinct from each other are lumped into one category, namely, statives because of their lack of morphosyntactic distinction. Nouns are identified according to their semantic roles and grammatical relations to events and states that they participate in. Verbs are analyzed in terms of voice, aspect and modality.

This section also deviates from the traditional idea of active-passive voice dichotomy which is based on the subject's semantic role. Voice here is defined as the feature of the verb that distinguishes the relation of the most affected entity of the verb to the action it expresses. Voice can be intransitive or transitive. The clause is intransitive if it contains only one argument (called the S) which is the source of the action and also the most affected entity. It is transitive when the source of the action (A) is distinct and

separate from the most affected entity (O). Intransitive construction can only have the S argument and can never have A and O. Transitive constructions cannot have an S. Intransitive clauses are those whose verbs take the *m-* replacive affix which co-indexes to an S. This S is preceded by the determiner *an* or *si.* Transitive clauses are those whose verbs have *–an,- on,* and *i-* which co-index an O. This O is marked by the *an* or *si,* while A is marked by *an* or *ni.*

This chapter treats transitivity not only as a valency-changing operation but also as a continuum or a scale of affectedness of the favored nominal in a clause. Transitivity is a central concept in the organization of clauses in Philippine languages; it helps the speakers of the language choose one construction over the other in terms of how effectively the effects of an action are transferred from the source of action to the most affected entity.

Masbatenyo is marked for aspect and not for tense. There are at least four aspects: the infinitive, perfective, imperfective, prospective and recent perfective. There are at least six types of mode that occur in Masbatenyo: (a) indicative; (b) imperative; (c) aptative/abilitative; (d) reciprocal/social; (e) causative; and (f) distributive.

Lastly, it is shown that Masbatenyo, like Tagalog and other Philippine languages, is an ergative language. The S of the intransitive constructions is aligned with the O of the transitive construction. The A of the transitive construction is marked differently.

# Chapter 4
# CLAUSE STRUCTURE

## 4.0. INTRODUCTION

When people communicate, they do so through a series of propositions, commonly known as sentences or clauses (Nolasco, 2011). It is when morphemes combined into words, words into phrases and phrases into clauses, we produce a meaningful discourse. A clause is the basic unit in discourse for accomplishing the ends of communication. It consists of at least a predicate (usually a verb) and an entity.

Clauses may be unmarked or pragmatically marked. Unmarked clauses are simple declarative clauses which do not perform any specialized function other than to state an idea or transmit information. Pragmatically marked clauses are used in more specialized contexts. They may exhibit variant intonation (as in questions), word order (as in focus or cleft constructions), or clause structure (as in relative clauses).

## 4.1. INTONATION UNITS AND CLAUSE STRUCURE

Past researches on language take the sentence as the basic unit of description and theoretical generalizations (Du Bois, 1980). However, analyses of discourse data have shown that speakers of the language tend to speak in units smaller than the sentence. Spoken language appears to occur in a series of brief spurts of vocalization which are characterized by one or more intonation peaks and usually separated by pauses. Such unit, referred to as intonation unit (IU), is defined phonetically as a stretch of speech uttered under a single coherent intonation contour and frequently demarcated by an initial pause (Du Bois, 1980). Iwasaki and Tao (1993) suggested that IUs may be parts of a clause or in some cases, may contain more than a single clause.

Tao (1991) characterized IUs by the following properties: (a) pauses, breaks in the utterance wherein speaker would catch their breath or stay silent when they are thinking; (b) final element lengthening and; (c) non-conformity to any specific type of grammatical structure. Following Tao (1991), Cruttenden (1997) presented two additional properties of IU which are (a) anacrusis, the fast delivery of unstressed syllable and (b) change in pitch direction from one IU to another. Himmelmann (2006) proposed a more comprehensive set of criteria for the identification of IUs. Intonation units can be identified through changes in pitch and rhythm. Evidence from pitch is of three kinds:

> (a) the occurrence of a boundary tone at the end of the intonation unit (i.e. a clearly perceptible change in the pitch on the last syllable of the next unit; (b) a new onset at the beginning of the unit; and (c) a reset of the baseline.

Moreover, rhythmic evidence is of three kinds:

(b) a pause in between two major units; (b) beginning of the final segment of a given unit; (c) anacrusis, (i.e. an accelerated delivery of the unstressed syllables of the new unit).

Tanangkingsing (2006) demonstrated that IUs reflect language in use through which a more realistic account of the grammatical units in a spoken language can be provided. Different discourse researches have also shown that intonation often coincide with the grammatical unit called 'clause'. In Du Bois (1980), most intonation units were simple clauses. Givon (1983) hypothesized clause as the 'basic information processing unit in human discourse'. Chafe (1987) suggested that the clause appears to be the prototypical intonation type, from which other types are derived.

### 4.1.1. Identification of Intonation Units[19]

In Masbatenyo, IUs can be identified by (a) pauses, (b) final element lengthening, and (c) change in pitch. This is further illustrated by the sentences below.

Figure 15.0 shows IUs characterized by pause. In examples (1-4) below, the figures in parentheses represent the length of pauses in second. Pauses shorter than 0.3 seconds are represented by two dots, while those with longer pauses are represented by three dots accompanied by figures in the parentheses. Therefore, there is a 1.81 and a 0.64 second pause before and after the utterance of *may `isád na laláki*.

Padera - Pear story (0.00-6.26s)

(1) … (1.81) may `isád na laláki
may `isád na laláki
EXIST one LKR man

(2) … (0.64) na nagkadtó sa `íya `umá
na n.(p)ag-kadtó sa `íya ` umá
LKR PFV.INTR.STEM-go OBL 3SG.POSS farm

(3) … (0.91) kay namudó` san

kay n.(p)am-(p)udó` san
CONJ PFV.INTR.STEM-pick OBL

(4) … (0.85) peras
peras
pear
*"There was one man who went to his farm because he picked pears."*

[19] The data used in this section are obtained from Chua and Yuson's (2013) preliminary analysis of Masbatenyo intonation units. These IUs are reviewed and reanalyzed in this paper.

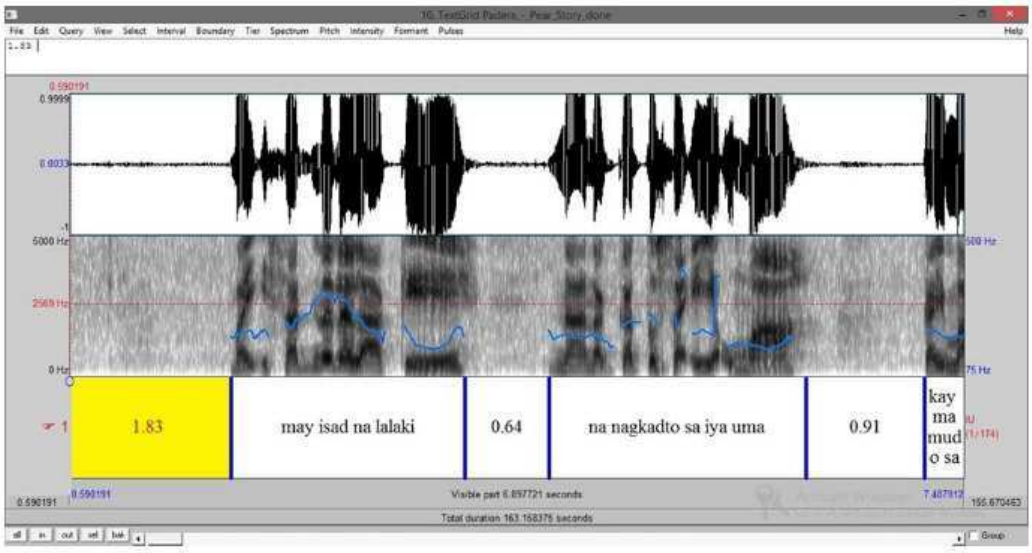



**Figure 15.0**
A screenshot of segment (0.00-6.26s) of Padera Pear story text grid annotation in Praat

Intonation units can also be separated by lengthening as in line (5-8). Lengthening is usually used as filler for word search. They may also occur within a prosodic contour. IUs may end with a case marker or a verbal prefix, with the head word uttered in a following intonation unit.

Padera- Pear story (10.42-17.07s)

(5) … (1.28) nagsakát siyá sa-
n.(p)ag-sakát siya sa-
PFV.INTR.STEM-climb.up 3SG.ABS OBL

(6) .. sa-
sa
OBL

(7) .. káhoy
káhoy
tree

(8) … (0.46) hábang nagpupudó` siya san mga peras
hábang n.(p)ag-pu˜pudo siya
CONJ INTR.STEM-IPFV-pick 3SG.ABS
san mga peras
OBL PL pear
*"He climbed up the tree while he is picking pears."*

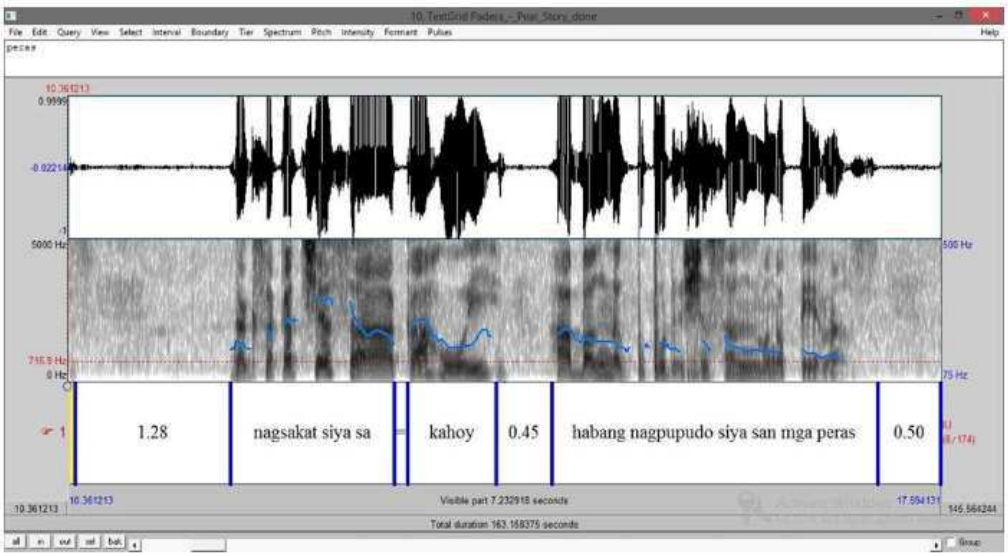



**Figure 16.0**
A screenshot of segment (10.42-17.07s) of Padera Pear story

Changes in pitch can also be used to identify IUs. In line (9), the onset pitch of beginning was 173.3Hz and went up to 199.7Hz as it ended. In the next IU, from the previous 199.7Hz, the pitch was reset to 163.1Hz. This then ended with a high 222.9 Hz. After a long pause, the pitch was again reset down to 199Hz. It ended with a 171.5Hz. After a short pause, the pitch was then reset now to 125.1Hz and this ended in 205.2Hz.

Tabigue – Self-introduction (3.93 – 17.57s)

(9) `Akó po si Expectation Tabigue taga-Masbate
`Akó po si Expectation Tabigue
1SG.ABS PRT ABS.PR Expectation Tabigue
taga-Masbate
from-Masbate

(10) …(0.57) Masbate City
Masbate City
Masbate City

(11) .. (0.04) Masbate
Masbate
Masbate

(12) …(2.26) Magse-seventy years old na po
M.(p)ag-se˜seventy years old na po
PFV.INTR-PRSP˜seventy years old PRT PRT
*"I am Expectacion Tabigue, from Masbate City, Masbate. I am turning 70 years old."*

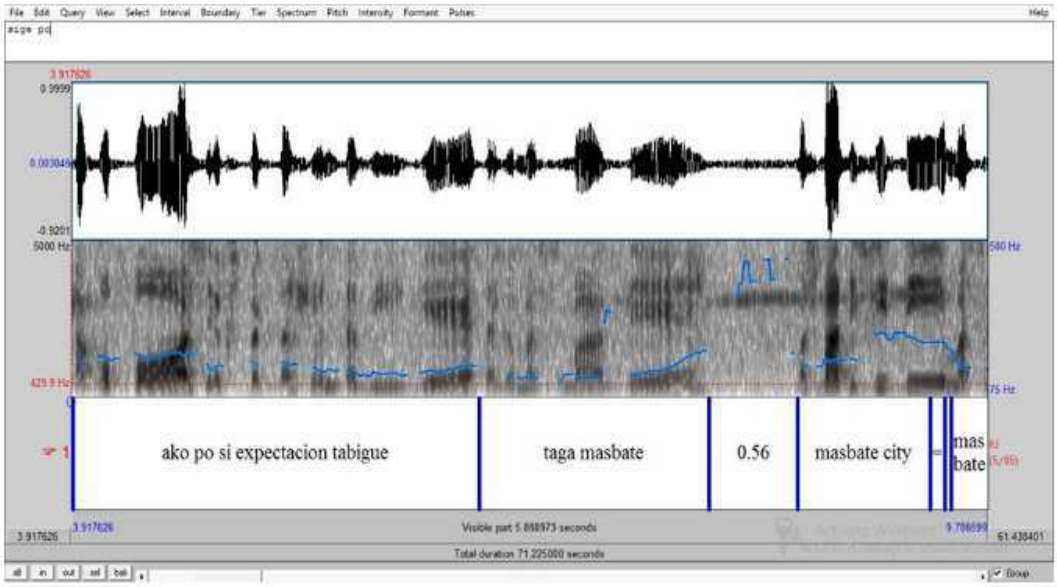



**Figure 17.0**
A screenshot of segment (3.93-17.57s) of Tabigue – Self-introduction

Although pitch and lengthening can be used to identify IUs, they are not as consistent as pause. Pitch and lengthening may occur not just on the beginning and end, respectively, but also within IUs. This is affected by factors such as the stress of word. Chua and Yuson (2013) observed that in every intonation unit the starting pitch is often, if not always, higher than the ending pitch, usually the middle pitch being the highest.

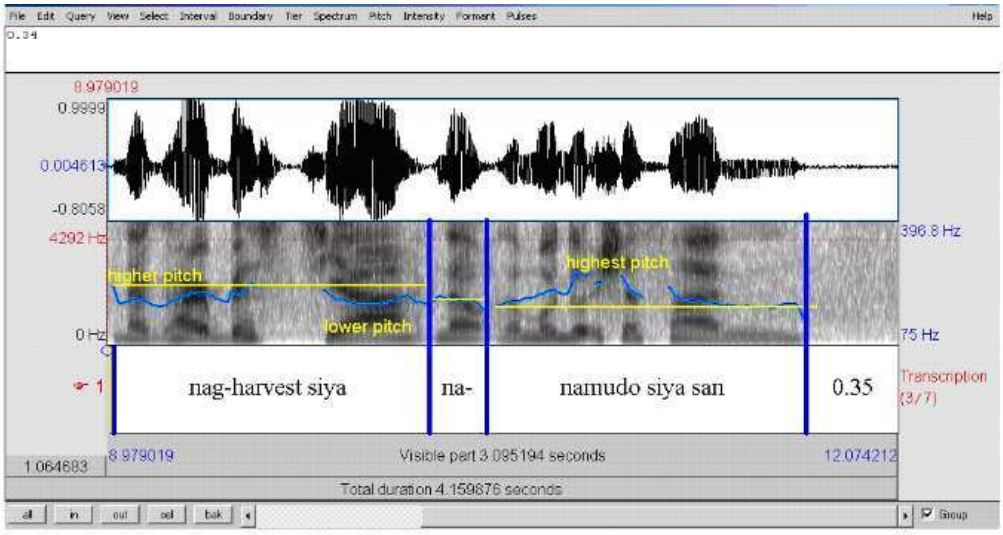



**Figure 18.0**
Screenshot of Padera – Pear Story annotation showing changes in pitch

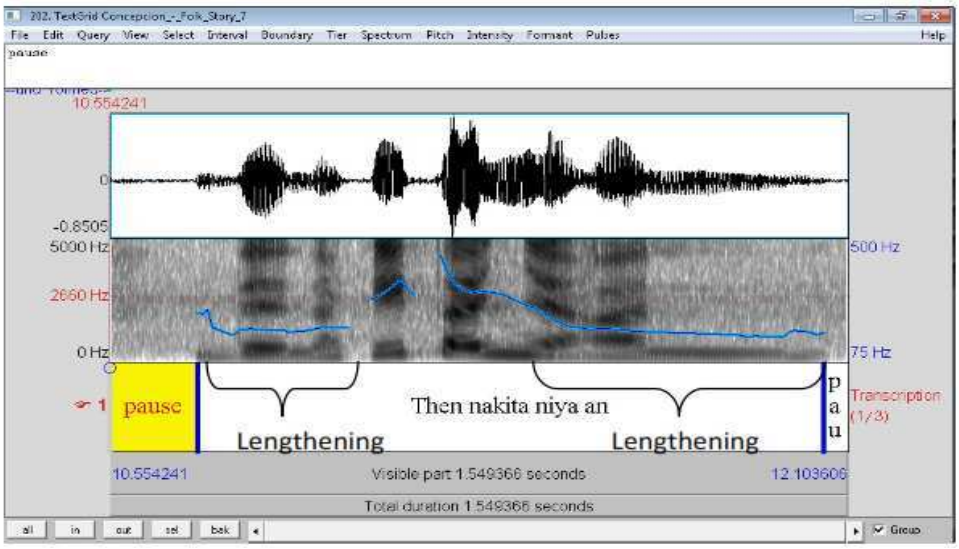



**Figure 19.0**
Screenshot of Padera – Pear Story illustrating final element lengthening

### 4.1.2. Types of Intonation Units

Figure 20.0 shows the classification of intonation units in Masbatenyo.

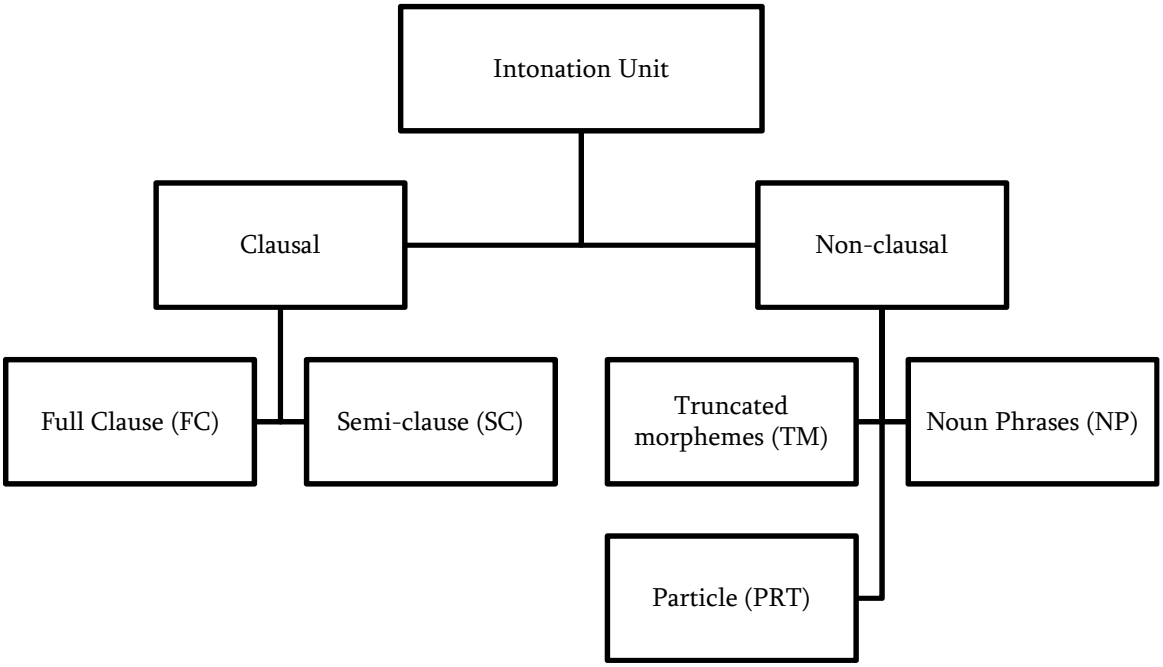



**Figure 20.0**
IU types in Masbatenyo

Intonation units can be grouped into clausal and non-clausal types. The presence or absence of a predicate distinguishes one from the other. Table 21.0 shows the frequency of occurrence of different IU types in Masbatenyo. It shows that noun phrases

constitute most of the IU in the language, followed by full clauses, particles, semi-clauses and truncated morphemes.

**Table 22.0**
Frequency of IU types in Masbatenyo

| Intonation Units | Frequency | Percentage |
|---|---|---|
| **Clausal** | | |
| Full clause | 136 | 31.26 |
| Semi-clause | 35 | 8.04 |
| **Non-clausal** | | |
| Truncated morphemes | 18 | 4.15 |
| Noun phrase | 145 | 33.48 |
| Particle | 101 | 23.21 |
| Total | 435 | 100.14 |

#### 4.1.2.1. Clausal Units

Clausal IUs can be further classified into full clauses and semi-clauses. A full clause is composed of the predicate with its arguments given in a single intonation unit as in (13).

Padera – Self-introduction (13.34 – 17.75s)

(13) (0.85) Nagatrabáho po `akó sa

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| n.(p)ag<a>trabaho | po | `akó | sa |
| INTR.STEM<IPFV>work | PRT | 1SG.ABS | OBL |

(14) (0.56s) Masbate City
Masbate City
Masbate City
*"I am working at Masbate."*

A semi-clause, on the other hand, only has a verbal predicate and whose arguments are not found in the same intonation unit or it may not be given at all as shown in (17) in which the argument of the verb *nagkata `ón* is found in the next IU.

Padera – Unforgettable Experience (64.44 – 71.23s)

(15) (0.14) sa káso ko

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| sa | kaso | ko |
| OBL | case | 1SG.POSS |

(16) (0.13s) manipís an `ákon matres

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| m.(k)a-nipís | an | `ákon | matres |
| STAT.STEM-thin | ABS | 1SG.POSS | uterus |

(17) (0.5s) **kayá` nagkata`ón na**

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| kaya | n.(p)agkata`ón | na |
| CONJ | PFV.INTR-chance | LKR |

(18) (0.46) `amó `idtó dugáy-dúgay na

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| 'amó | `idtó | dugáy~dúgay | na |
| PRO | DIST.ABS | INTS~stay.long | PRT |

*"I n my case, my uterus is thin that is why it took longer."*

#### 4.1.2.2. Non-clausal units

Non-clausal intonation units can be classified as a truncated morpheme (25), a particle (in the example (19), a filler) or a noun phrase (21), (22), (24) and 26).

Padera – Pear Story (1.05 – 6.46s)

(19) am
am
PRT

(20) (0.28) Minasbate
M<in>asbate
<STAT>Masbate

(21) (1.84) **`an `usád na táwo**

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| `an | `usád | na | táwo |
| ABS | one | LKR | man |

(22) (0.31) **táwu na laláki**

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| tawu | na | lalaki |
| man | LKR | boy |

*"one man"*

Padera – Pear Story (17.75 – 22.27s)

(23) (0.79) binutáng niya sa

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| b<in>utang-Ø | niya | sa |
| <PFV>put-TR | 3SG.ERG | OBL |

(24) (1.65) **sa basket**

| | |
|---|---|
| sa | basket |
| OBL | basket |

(25) (0.46) **tu-**
**tu-**
PRT

(26) (0.18) **tuló na basket siya**
tuló na basket siya
three LKR basket ABS
*"He put (the pears) in the basket; there were three baskets."*

Nominal phrases may take the form S, A, O or oblique. Table 22.0 shows ABS and OBL noun phrases occur most frequently, 48% and 50% respectively and ERG noun phrases which only correspond to 1.3% rarely do. The large amount of ABS and OBL NPs and the rare occurrence of ERG NPS correlate to the high frequency of intransitive constructions in Masbatenyo (see Table 23.0).

**Table 23.0**
Frequency of non-clausal IUs in Masbatenyo

| NP | | | PRT | | | | TM |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| ABS | ERG | OBL | PRO | FILL | CON | PRT | |
| 71 (48%) | 2 (1.3%) | 72 (50%) | 8 (8%) | 15 (15%) | 38 (37%) | 40 (39%) | 18 |
| 145 | | | 101 | | | | 18 |

Another type of non-clausal IUs is one-word morpheme such as pronouns, connector words, clitic particles and fillers. Connector words are words such as linkers *na* and conjunctions *kayá`, tapos, pero* that link words phrases and clauses. Clitic particles are adverbial particles such as *na, yaná`* negator words such as *di.* Fillers such as in (32) are discourse particles that usually indicate word search and repairs.

The last non-clausal IU type is truncated morphemes (33). These IUs are morphemes made up only of a verbal prefix with its root or the first syllable of a noun root word.

Tabigue – Unforgettable Experience (26.61 – 34.9)
(29) (0.74) `an `ákon pagsirbí sa Ginó`o
`an `ákon pagsirbí sa Ginó`o
ABS 1SG.POSS service OBL Lord

(30) (0.84) na kun dí`in
na kun dí`in
LKR CONJ where

(31) (0.25) pagkatápos san
pagkatápos san
CONJ OBL

(32) (1.24) a
a
PRT

(33) (0.5) **mga t-**
mga t-
PL

(34) (0.24) mga trenta i síngko katú`ig sigúro
mga trenta i singko ka=tú`ig sigúro
PL thirty CONJ five LKR=year perhaps
*"… my service to the Lord after thirty years, perhaps."*

## 4.2. INTONATION UNITS AND MASBATENYO GRAMMATICAL STRUCTURES

Intonation units reflect language in use and provide a more realistic account of grammatical structures in a spoken language (Tanangkingsing, 2006). The previous sections have demonstrated that these units correspond to grammatical units referred to as 'clause' which is the basic processing unit in human discourse (Givon, 1988).

IUs may also provide reliable basis for the identification of preferred argument and clause structure in language which will be the topics of the following section.

### 4.2.1. Basic Word Order in Masbatenyo

Mithun (1992) discussed three standard strategies for detecting the basic word order of languages, namely; (a) statistical frequency; (b) descriptive simplicity; and (c) pragmatic neutrality. Following Mithun (1992) the basic order is whichever order that appears the most often, permits the simplest syntactic description or accompanied by the least morphological marking and the order that is the least pragmatically marked. Pragmatic neutrality as mentioned earlier is characterized by simple declarative clauses which do not perform any specialized function other than to convey an idea or information.

The aforementioned strategies are employed by Philippine languages such as Masbatenyo - the order in which pragmatically neutral simple declarative clauses appear most frequently in discourse is typically predicate-initial. Table 23.0 shows a simple frequency count of transitive and intransitive IUs in Masbatenyo where predicate-initial constructions (146 IUs or 85.38%) outnumber other alternative order (25 or 14.61%), thus making it the basic word order.

**Table 24.0**
A frequency count of intransitive and transitive IUs

| IUs | Predicate-Initial | Alternative Order | Total |
|---|---|---|---|
| Intransitive | **114 (85.07%)** | 20 (14.02%) | 134 |
| Transitive | **32 (84.48%)** | 5 (13.51%) | 37 |
| Total | **146 (85.38%)** | 25 (14.61%) | 171 |

(35) (0.57) May naglabáy
May n.(p)ag-labáy
EXIST PFV.INTR.STEM-pass.by

(37) (0.89) **`idtó na naglabáy** **(PREPOSED)**
`idtó na n.(p)ag-labáy
DIST.ABS LKR PFV.INTR.STEM-pass.by

(38) (0.06) na teenager
na teenager
LKR teenager

(39) (0.05) kinúha niya `an `usád na bangkát **(PREDICATE-INITIAL)**
k<in>uha-Ø niya `an `usád na bangkát
<PFV>take-TR 3SG.ERG ABS one LKR basket

(40) (0.44) then binutáng niya sa bike
then b<in>utáng-Ø niya sa bike
CONJ <PFV>take-TR 3SG.ERG OBL bicycle

(41) (0.4) sa biskleta
sa biskleta
OBL bicycle
*"There was (someone who) passed by. That teenager who passed by took one basket and then he put it in the bicycle."*

There are instances however, that an argument may precede the predicate as shown in (37). This occurrence is called preposing. An argument can occur in a pre-predicate slot under certain pragmatic conditions, namely: a) clitic position and movement in a clause; b) setting the scene or theme in a discourse narrative (i.e. introduction of new themes, change in scene or theme; c) listing of information (i.e. new information usually appears at the beginning of the clause; d) signaling exclusivity or contrast (Rosero, 2011).

Thompson (lecture notes) also noted that it is also important to consider the nominal arguments present in a clause. The word order for a given language is easiest to

figure out if we have lexical Noun Phrases for both 'A' and 'O'. That is, we have to look at the transitive clauses with two lexical noun arguments. The word order of pronominal arguments might differ from the word order of lexical noun phrases.

### 4.2.2. Preferred Argument Structure and Clause Types

Table 23.0 shows that of 146 clausal IUs, 85 percent are intransitive. They may be motion clauses, presentative, identificational, equational, relative clauses and stative clauses. The remaining 25 percent are transitive clauses. The data have shown that intransitive clauses are preferred in Masbatenyo discourse.

## 4.3. NON-VERBAL OR 'PREDICATE NOMINAL' CLAUSES

Non-verbal constructions are simple clauses whose predicates are not verbs. They are a type of intransitive clause because they only have an S and this can only be accompanied by oblique phrases. Existential constructions are exceptional because while they are intransitive, they do not have an S (Nolasco, 2011). The predicates of these verbs function to describe the existence, state, condition or location of the entity/entities being talked about.

Non-verbal constructions may be classified into: (a) proper inclusion clauses; (b) equative clauses; (c) attributive clauses; (d) locative clauses; (e) existential or presentative clauses; and (f) possessive clauses.

### 4.3.1. Proper inclusion clauses

Proper inclusion clauses assert that the entity talked about belongs to a class of items specified in the predicate. Sentence (42) might be paraphrased as 'I am a member of the class of items designated by the noun '*Iglesia ni Kristo'.* Usually the entity being talked about of the predicate nominal clause indicating proper inclusion is specific (*ako*) and the nominal predicate is non-specific (*Iglesia ni Kristo)* as illustrated below*.*

(42) (0.4) Iglesia `akó ni Kristo
Iglesia `akó ni Kristo
Iglesia 1SG.ABS GEN Christ
*"I am (a member of) Iglesia ni Kristo*

### 4.3.2. Equative clauses

Equative clauses assert that the entity talked about is identical to the entity specified in the predicate. Sometimes it is difficult to determine which nominal is the predicate and the most affected entity in equative clauses.

(43) (0.17) `an
`an
ABS

(44) (0.09) `an pápa ko
`an pápa ko
ABS father 1SG.POSS

(45) (0.09) `an principal sa Bantigue Elementary School
`an principal sa Bantigue Elementary School
ABS principal OBL Bantigue Elementary School
*"My father is the principal of Bantigue Elementary School."*

### 4.3.3. Attributive clauses

Attributive clauses assert that the attribute contained in the predicate applies to the entity talked about.

(46) (0.14) manipís `an `ákon matrís
**m.(k)a-nipís** `an `ákon matrís
STAT.STEM-thin ABS 1SG.POSS uterus
*"My uterus is thin."*

### 4.3.4. Locative clauses

Locative expressions assert that the entity talked about is in a certain location or condition.

(47) (0.62) **`adtó** po talagá `an lying in, `an `anákan
**`adtó** po talagá `an lying in, `an `anákan
EXIST.DIST.OBL PRT PRT ABS lying in ABS lying in
*"The lying in is actually there."*

### 4.3.5. Existential clauses

Existential clauses assert the presence or absence of some person or thing that is new to the discourse. In IUs (48)-(50), *may* is used to introduce the appearance of three men in the Pear Film who helped the child stand whose bicycle stumbled upon a rock, causing him to fall.

(48) (0.58) **may** nakakíta` sa `iyá na tuló na táwo
**may** n.(p)aka-kíta` sa `iyá
EXIST PFV.INTR.MODE-see OBL 3SG.OBL
na tuló na táwo
LKR three LKR man
*"There were three men who saw him."*

(49) (0.09) `imbulígan siya
` im-bulíg-an siya
PFV-help-TR 3SG.ABS

(50) (0.25) na makatindóg
na m.(p)aka-tindóg
LKR NEUT.MODE-stand
*"(They) helped him to stand."*

They also indicate possession or ownership. In IUs (51)-(53), the speaker was talking about the man who was picking pears. The man saw those three children who helped the child who has fallen off his bicycle eating the pears the child gave them. The existential *may* is used to express their possession of pears.

(51) (0.08) nakíta` sádto na nagapudó`
n.(k)a-kíta` sádto
PFV.INTR.STEM-see DIST.ERG
na n.(p)ag<a>pudó`
LKR INTR.STEM<IPFV>pick

(52) (0.14) na **may bitbít**
na may **bitbít**
LKR EXIST thing.to.be.lifted

(53) (0.03) o **may ginaka`ún sinda**
o **may** **gin<a>ka`ún** **sinda**
CONJ EXIST TR<IPFV>eat 3PL.ABS
*"That man who is picking fruits saw that they are carrying or eating something."*

Aside from *may,* the form *`igwá* is also used. This form is followed by a clitic particle (54), clitic pronoun (55) or nothing (56). *May* is used elsewhere.

(54) **`Igwá** sin bág`o na bádo` si Marielle.
**`Igwá** sin bág`o na bádo` si Marielle
EXIST OBL new LKR dr4ss ABS.PR Marielle
"*Marielle has a new dress."*

(55) **`Igwá** `akó sin bág`o na kanáman.`
**`Igwá** `akó sin bág`o na kanáman
EXIST 1SG.ABS OBL new LKR toy
"*I have new toys."*

(56) **`Igwá** kamón súka`? **`Igwá**.
**`Igwá** kamo=(si)n súka`? `Igwá.
EXIST 2PL.ABS=OBL.NONSPEC vinegar EXIST
*Do you have vinegar? Yes, we have.'*

Existential constructions are exceptional because while they are intransitive, they do not have an S. The arguments attached to the existential forms *may* and *`igwá* are syntactically obliques. This might be because there are no really entities which can be considered "sources of action" or "most affected entity". The existential predicates merely express the idea of existing.[20] Obliques convey ideas of location, time and possession which existential constructions also assert.

### 4.3.6. Possessive clauses

Possessive clauses are those whose predicate asserts the possession of one things or things by another. There are two types of possessive clauses: the standard type and the predicate nominal type. The standard type looks like an existential construction, except that it has an *`an* or *si* phrase expressing the possessor (57). These arguments, although they the absolutive case, are the ones that give these constructions the 'possessive' meaning. Nouns or pronouns, as long as marked as absolutive, would make a construction somewhat possessive in nature if they refer to the possessor.

(57) **May** Mountain Dew si Myrus
EXIST Mountain Dew ABS.PR Myrus
"*Myrus has a bottle of Mountain Dew."*
.

The predicate nominal type of possessive clause has an oblique *sa/kan* phrase as predicate representing the possessor and *an*-phrase representing the possessed item as shown in (58) and (59).

(58) **Kan Lolo Windolo**`iná` na sundáng.
**Kan** **Lolo Windolo** `iná` na sundáng
OBL.PR Lolo Windolo MED.ABS LKR bolo
"*That bolo is Lolo Windolo's."*

(59) **Sa kandá** Kapitan `an baláy na `iná`.
**Sa** **kandá** Kapitan `an baláy na `iná`
OBL 3SG.OBL Kapitan ABS house LKR MED.ABS
"*That house belongs to the captain."*

## 4.4. PRAGMATICALLY MARKED CLAUSES

Pragmatically marked clauses are used in more specialized contexts. They may exhibit variant intonation (as in questions), word order (as in focus or cleft constructions), or clause structure (as in relative clauses). Pragmatically marked constructions found in

[20] Pama & Ponio (2013) forwarded this claim in their investigation of existentials which include presentative, locative and possessive constructions.

Masbatenyo are: (a) exclamatory clauses; (b) questions; (c) relative clauses; (d) imperative clauses; (e) complement clauses; (f) preposed constructions; and (g) negation clauses.

### 4.4.1. Exclamatory clauses

Exclamatory clauses are used to express extreme emotions, like surprise or dejection. Exclamation point is used in the end of this sentence type.

(60) Kadaragkó` man siná` na okra!
Ka-d<ar>a<g>kó` man siná na okra!
INTSV<PL><PL>big PRT MED.OBL LKR okra
"*Those okras are so big!*"

### 4.4.2. Question clauses

Questions in Masbatenyo can be classified into five categories: (a) yes-no questions (61-62); (b) alternative questions (63); (c) confirmation questions (64-65); (d) information questions, also called question word questions (66-67) and (e) echo questions (68-69).

Yes-no questions express uncertainty. This type of question convey doubt if the proposition is valid or not. These questions always have a rising intonation.

(61) Má`uli` ka?
M.(k)a-uli` ka?
PRSP.INTR.STEM-come.home 2SG.ABS
*"Are you coming home?"*

(62) Má`uli` ba kamó sa `Abril?
M.(k)a-uli` ba kamó sa Abril?
PRSP.INTR.STEM-come.home PRT 2PL.ERG OBL April
"*Are you coming home this April?*"

Alternative question is a type of question to which the expected answer is one of two or more alternatives. Most alternative questions are analyzable into two parts, the first of which is a normal yes-no question (including normal interrogative intonation) and the second of which begins with an alternative conjunction *'o'* and has a statement intonation.

(63) Maka`on ba kamo `o **dili`?**
M.(k)a-ka`on ba kamó `o **dili`?**
PRSP.INTR.STEM-eat PRT 2PL.ABS CONJ NEG
"*Are you going to eat or not?*"

A confirmation question is one to which the expected answer is assent to a proposition made by the questioner. Unlike English, confirmation questions (also called

tag questions) do not vary in form according to whether the proposition to be confirmed is affirmative or negative. Masbatenyo uses formulas such `*anó, díli ba (or di bayá`),* etc in confirmation questions. *Díli` ba* always takes a rising intonation pattern.

(64) Má`uli` kamó sa `Abril **díli` ba**?
M.(k)a-uli` kamó sa Abril, **díli`** **ba**?
PRSP.INTR.STEM-come.home 2PL.ABS OBL April NEG PRT
"*You're coming home this April, right?"*

(65) Ma`uli` kamó sa Abril, **`anó**?
M.(k)a-uli` kamó sa Abril, **`anó**?
PRSP.INTR.STEM-come.home 2PL.ABS OBL April what
"*You're coming home this April, right?"*

Interrogative pronouns are used to stand for possible answers in question-word questions. Examples can be found in Chapter 3, (3.3.4. Pronouns).

(66) **Sin`o** ka?
**Sin`o** ka?
who 2SG.ABS
"*Who are you?"*

(67) **Náno** `ina`?
**Náno** **`**ina`?
what MED.ABS
*"What is that?"*

Echo questions are a subtype of question-word questions that function to confirm or verify whether something is true or not.

(68) Tatay mo **sin`o?**
Tatay mo **sin`o**?
father 2SG.ABS who
*"Your father is who?"*

(69) Mākádto ka **di`ín**?
M.(p)a-kadto ka **di`ín**?
PRSP.INTR.STEM-go 2SG.ABS where
*"You're going where?"*

### 4.4.3. Relative clauses

A relative clause is a type of clause which modifies nominals. This pragmatic type of clause is similar to attributive modifiers; the only difference is that the modifier is not a

word but an entire clause. Tagalog relativization, however, perform functions other than modifying a nominal. It is also a lexical process involving nominalization with a voice affix. A relative clause is a derived noun phrase opposed to its head noun and a voice affix works as a nominalizer.

Masbatenyo employs the following relativization strategies to form the relative clauses. It could be: a) through the use of a relativizer (70-71); and b) a nominalization (IUs 72-73). The clause (70) *na nangúha sin `usád na-* modifies *`idtó* and restricts its meaning to 'the one who picked one basket of pears'. In (71), *na nagapudó`* modifies *sadtó,* restricting its meaning to 'that someone who is picking pears'. Meanwhile, the word *bitbít* (72) and *ginaka`ún* (73) are relativized nominalized verbs that modify the anaphoric argument of the existential construction in IU (71). They restrict the meaning of the said argument to 'the ones who are carrying something' and 'the ones who are eating something'.

(70) (0.49) Naghalí` na `idtó **na nangúha` sin `usád** na
N.(p)ag-halí na `idtó [**na**
PFV.INTR.STEM-leave PRT DIST.ABS LKR
**n.(p)ang-(k)uha sin `usad na**]REL
PFV.INTR.STEM-take OBL one LKR
*"That one who picked pears left."*

(71) (0.08) nakíta sádto **na nagapudó`**
n.(k)a-kita sádto
PFV.INTR.STEM-see DIST.ERG
[**na n.(p)ag<a>pudó`** ]REL
LKR INTR.STEM<IPFV>pick

(72) (0.14) na may **bitbít**
na may [**bitbít**]REL
LKR EXIST thing.to.be.lifted

(73) (0.03) o may **ginaka`ún sínda**
o may [**gin<a>ka`ún sinda**]REL
CONJ EXIST TR<IPFV>eat 3PL.ABS
*"That man who is picking fruits saw that they are carrying or eating something."*

Relative clauses can have heads as in (70) and (71) but it can be also 'headless', as shown in (72)-(73) repeated below.

(72) (0.14) na may (piras na) **bitbít**

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| na | may | [**bitbít**]REL |
| LKR | EXIST | thing.to.be.lifted |

(73) (0.03) o may (piras na) **ginaka`ún sinda**

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| o | may | [**gin<a>ka`un** | **sinda**]REL |
| CONJ | EXIST | TR<IPFV>eat | 3PL.ABS |

*"That man who is picking fruits saw that they are carrying or eating something."*

The enclosed portions in (72)-(73) are relative clauses which have been directly connected to their determiners. Philippine grammar allows this because the determiner is what gives nominal phrases specificity (which means it exists in the real word) and instantiation (which means it is an instance of something). As a result, the entire relative clause becomes a referential expression, the meaning of which is severely restricted to that "something they are carrying", or "the ones they are eating". However, these expressions remain indefinite and indeterminate (Nolasco, 2011).

### 4.4.4. Imperative clauses

Imperative clauses are clauses that express command or request.

Commands have special grammar in that the verb in the neutral form (*kumadtó,* and *kadtu `ón*) and the S or A is in the second person form (*ka* and *mo),* as shown in (74) and (75).

(74) Himú`**on** mo `iní sin tuló na beses.

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Himú-**on** | | mo | `iní | sin |
| do- IMP.TR | | 2SG.ERG | PROX.ABS | OBL.NONSPEC |
| tuló | na | beses | | |
| three | LKR | times | | |

"*Do it three times."*

(75) Tanda`**án** mo kag masd**án**, `iná` mamamatáy.

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| Tanda-**an** | mo | kag | mas(i)d-**an** |
| take.note-IMP.TR | 2SG.ERG | CONJ | watch-IMP.TR |
| `ina` | m.(k)a-ma~matáy | | |
| MED.ABS | INTR.STEM-PRSP~die | | |

"*Take note and watch, that (thing) will die."*

The other way is expressed by the imperative affixes *-a* and *–i.*

(77) Himú`**a** `iní sin tuló na beses.

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Himu-**a** | `iní | sin | tuló | na | beses |
| do-IMP.TR | PROX.ABS | OBL.NONSPEC | three | LKR | times |

*"Do it three times."*

(78) Tanda`**í** kag masd**í**, `ina mamamatáy.

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| Tanda-**i** | kag | masd-**i**, | |
| take.note-IMP.TR | CONJ | watch-IMP.TR | |
| `iná` | m.(k)a-ma~-matáy | | |
| MED.ABS | INTR.STEM.PRSP~die | | |

*"Take note and watch, that (thing) will die."*

Imperative expression of intransitive constructions have nominalized forms. In these constructions, second person pronouns are also zero-marked.

(79a) **Magka`ón** ka na.

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| M.(p)ag-ka`ón | ka | na |
| IMP.INTR.STEM-eat | 2SG.ABS | PRT |

*"(Please) eat."*

(79b) **Pagka`ón** na.

| | |
|---|---|
| **Pag**-ka`ón | na |
| IMP.INTR-eat | PRT |

*"(Please) eat."*

A good test for a command is to negate it and turn it into prohibitive. If the clause can take the negator `*ayáw* 'don't', then it is an imperative clause.

(79) **`Ayáw** pagkadtó sa `íya

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| **`Ayáw** | pagkadtó | sa | `íya |
| NEG | NEUT-go.near | OBL | 3OBL |

*'Don't go near him.'*

Requests have also special grammar. It may contain the word *pwede* and *tábi`* 'please' and/or stem-forming polite affix *paki-*.

(80) Maki`abót tábi` san bag ko.

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| M.(p)aki-abót | **tábi`** | san | bag | ko |
| NEUT.INTR.STEM-get | please | OBL | bag | 1SG.POSS |

"*Please get my bag."*

(81) Maki`ági **tábi`.**
M.(p)aki-agi **tábi`**
NEUT.INTR.STEM-pass please
"*May I please pass?"*

### 4.4.5. Complement clauses

A complement clause refers to a clause which serves as one of the arguments of a complement-taking predicate. Relative clauses are also the complement clauses. In (82), the clause *mābalík ka pa* functions like an oblique of the complement taking intransitive verb *naglá`om.* In (83), the clause *matíbay ka magbasketball* functions as the O of the complement taking transitive verb *sinábi.*

(82) Naglá`om siya **na mābalík ka pa**.
N.(p)ag-la`om siya **na**
PFV.INTR.STEM-hope 3SG.ABS LKR
[**m.(k)a-balik** **ka** **pa**]COMP
PRSP.INTR.STEM-return 2SG.ABS PRT
"*She hoped that you will return."*

(83) Sinábi niya matíbay ka magbasketball
S<in>abi-Ø niya
<PFV>say-TR 3SG.ERG
[**m.(k)a-tibay** **ka** **m.(p)ag-basketball**]COMP
STAT.STEM-good 2SG.ABS NEUT.INTR.STEM-basketball
"*He said that you're good at basketball."*

### 4.4.6. Preposed constructions

One phenomenon that alters the basic order of constituent is preposing. Preposing occurs when arguments occupy the pre-predicate position. Masbatenyo has the following types of preposed constructions: (a) focus constructions which include cleft (84), question (85), and contrastive focus constructions (86); (b) oblique/adjunct fronting; and (c) pronominal preposing.

(84) Cleft Construction
(0.51) **`Akó** po `an `úna `una nagsulód
[**`Akó**]CLEFT po `an `úna ~`úna n.(p)ag-sulód
1SG.ABS PRT ABS INTSV~first PFV.INTR.STEM-go.inside
*"I was the very first to go inside."*

(85) Question
**Sin`o** `an maguráng sa `iyó na magmaránghod?
[**Sin`ó**]QW `an maguráng sa `iyó na m.(p)ag-m<ar>anghod?
QW ABS old OBL 3SG.OBL LKR STAT.STEM<PL>sibling

*"Who is older among your siblings?"*

(86) Focus Construction
(0.06) **`Akó** first year college na

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| [**`Akó** ]FOC | first year | college | na |
| 1SG.ABS | first year | college | LKR |

*"I was in first year already."*

The first bracketed portion in each sentence is the focused element. The second bracketed portion describes, identifies or assigns a value to it.

Contrastive focus clauses can be divided into two parts. The first part is the focused element or topic while the second part is a determiner-headed relative construction which describes, assigns a value to, or identifies the first part. Question clauses such as in (85) are also a type of preposed constructions; the question word being the preposed element and the second NP a determiner-headed relative construction.

Oblique clauses are also fronted to introduce new information or to set the time or place in a discourse narrative as seen in (87).

(87) Oblique Fronting
(1.01) Sadtó na `úna na panahón, sábi san mga guráng…

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| [**Sadtó** | **na** | **`úna** | **na** | **panahón**]OBL |
| DIST.OBL | LKR | one | LKR | time |
| Ø-sabi | san | mga | guráng… | |
| TR-say | ERG | PL | elders | |

*Once upon a time, the elders say …"*

The movement of clitic pronouns also re-structures the basic word order, as evidenced by the preposing of pronominal in (88).

(88) Pronominal Preposing
Sigen `íya padalágan pag`abót sa `unhán

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| Sige=n | | **`íya** | padalágan |
| continue=ABS | | 3SG.ERG | TR-run |
| pag-abót | sa | `unhán | |
| NOM-arrive | OBL | end | |

*He drove continuously until he reached the end."*

An argument can occur in a pre-predicate slot under certain pragmatic conditions, namely: a) clitic position and movement in a clause; b) setting the scene or theme in a discourse narrative (i.e. introduction of new themes, change in scene or theme; c) listing

of information (i.e. new information usually appears at the beginning of the clause; d) signaling exclusivity or contrast (Rosero, 2011).

(89) Clitic Movement

(0.7) Di` ko po `idtó makalimútan na pangyayári

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Di` | ko | po | `idtó | m.(p)aka-limút-an |
| NEG | 1SG.ABS | PRT | DIST.ABS | PRSP.APT-forget-TR |
| na | pangyayári | | | |
| LKR | event | | | |

*"I can't forget that event."*

(90) Scene or theme-setting

(0..22) Sadtó po na date na January 21, 1997

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Sadtó | po | na | date | na | January 21, 1997 |
| DIST.ERG | PRT | LKR | date | LKR | January 21, 1997 |

(1.27) beinte po kamí na nanganák

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| beinte | po | kamí | na | n.(p)ang-anák |
| twenty | PRT | 1PL..ABS | LKR | PFV.INTTR.DIST-give.birth |

*"That date, January 21, 1997, there were 20 of us who gave birth."*

(91) Listing of information

`Igwán tuló na basket.

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| `Igwá=(si)n | tuló | na | basket. |
| EXIST=OBL.NONSPEC | three | LKR | basket |

`An `isád, punó na,

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| `An | `isád, | punó | na, |
| ABS | one | full | PRT |

`an `isád, ginabutángan pa la` niya

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| `an | `isád | gina-butáng-an | pa | la` | niya |
| ABS | one` | IPFV-put-TR | PRT | PRT | 3SG.ERG |

*"There were three baskets.. One is already full and the other one is being filled by him."*

(92) Exclusivity/Contrast

(0.06) `Akó first year college na

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| `Akó | first | year | college | na |
| 1SG.ABS | first | year | college | PRT |

*"I was already in college."*

### 4.4.7. Negation clauses

Negation clauses assert that some event, state, condition or situation does not hold. Simple clauses are negated by attaching the negative particles to the affirmative clauses and making it the first word in the sentence. The words *wará`, díli`, `ayáw, habú`* are used as negators. They are positioned before the negated predicate or noun phrase.

(93) **Wará`** po sadtó didí san mga public – ay private clinic.

| **Wará`** | po | sadtó | didí | san | mga | public |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| NEG | PRT | DIST.OBL | PROX.OBL | OBL | PL | public |

(1.17) ay private clinic
FILL private clinic
*"There were no public – private clinics then."*

(94) (0.16) na sayáw **díli`** lang sa Masbate gināsayáw

| na | sayáw | **díli`** | lang | sa | Masbate |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| LKR | dance | NEG | PRT | OBL | Masbate |

gin<a>sayáw
TR<PFV>dance
*"dance that not being only danced in Masbate."*

Existential clauses, locative constructions and prohibitives have special negative forms. Existential and locative constructions use the particle '*wara'* in place of *may, `igwá* and *` áda/`adtó/`ádi.*

(95a) May táwo sa baláy.

| May | táwo | sa | baláy |
|---|---|---|---|
| EXIST | man | OBL | house |

"*There's someone inside the house."*

(95b) **Wará** sin táwo sa baláy.

| **Wará** | sin | táwo | sa | baláy |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| NEG | OBL | man | OBL | house |

*"There's no one inside the house."*

(96a) `Igwá siya sin kanáman.

| `Igwá | siya | sin | kanáman |
|---|---|---|---|
| EXIST | 3ABS | OBL | toy |

"*He has a toy."*

(96b) **Wará`** siyan kanáman.

**Warà`** siya=(si)n kanáman
NEG 3SG.ABS=OBL.NONSPEC toy
"*He doesn't have a toy."*

(97a) **`Adtó** sa `íya `an libro ko.
**`Adtó** sa `íya `an libro ko
LOC OBL 3SG.POSS ABS book 2SG.POSS
"*She has my book."*

(97b) **Warà`** sa `íya `an libro ko.
**Warà** sa `íya `an libro ko
NEG OBL 3SG.POSS ABS book 2SG.POSS
*"She doesn't have my book."*

Imperatives become prohibitives when attached with *`ayáw'.*

(98a) Ka`óna `iná`.
Ka`on-**a** `iná`
eat-IMP.TR DIST.ABS
"*Eat that."*

(98b) **`Ayáw** `iná` pagka`óna
**`Ayáw** `ina pagka`ón-a
NEG MED.ABS STEM-eat-IMP.TR
"*Don't eat that."*

*Habú* ` ` is used as negator of the stative verb *gustó.*

(99a) **Gustó** ko `an Mountain Dew.
**Gustó** ko `an Mountain Dew
STAT 1SG.ERG ABS Mountain Dew
"*I want mango."*

(99b) **Habú`** na `ako san Mountain Dew.
**Habú`** na `ako san Mountain Dew
NEG PRT ABS OBL Mountain Dew
*"I don't want mango."*

## 4.5. SUMMARY

This research appeals to discourse basis of clause structure analysis. Past researches on languages take the sentence as the basic unit of description and theoretical generalizations. However, upon analysis of Masbatenyo discourse narratives, the data

have shown that speakers of the language tend to speak in units smaller than the sentence characterized by one or more intonation peaks and usually separated by pauses. These units are referred to as intonation units (IU) which may be parts of a clause and in some cases may contain more than a single clause. In Masbatenyo, IUs can be identified by (a) pauses, (b) final element lengthening, and (c) change in pitch

It is also demonstrated that IUs have correlation to grammatical structures in Masbatenyo. They can be classified as clausal or non-clausal depending on the presence or absence of a predicate. Clausal IUs appear to be full clauses or semi-clauses whose arguments are not found in the same IU. Non-clausal IUs may be truncated morphemes, nominal phrases or particles (pronominals, fillers, adverbial clitics and linkers).

Intonation units also provide a reliable basis for establishing the basic word order in Masbatenyo. Following Mithun's (1987) criteria, the data have shown that the order in which pragmatically neutral simple declarative clauses appear most frequently in discourse is typically predicate-initial. A simple frequency count of transitive and intransitive IUs in Masbatenyo shows that predicate-initial constructions (146 IUs or 85.38%) outnumber other alternative order (25 or 14.61%), thus making it the basic word order. However, there are instances that an argument precedes the predicate. This occurrence is called preposing. An argument can occur in a pre-predicate slot under certain pragmatic conditions, namely: a) clitic position and movement in a clause; b) setting the scene or theme in a discourse narrative (i.e. introduction of new themes, change in scene or theme; c) listing of information (i.e. new information usually appears at the beginning of the clause; d) signaling exclusivity or contrast (Rosero, 2011).

This section also discusses the classification in Masbatenyo. Clauses may be classified a unmarked or pragmatically marked. Unmarked clauses are simple declarative clauses which do not perform any specialized function other than to state an idea or transmit information. Pragmatically marked clauses are used in more specialized contexts.

Unmarked clauses are non-verbal or predicate nominal clauses whose predicates are not verbs. They are a type of intransitive clause because they only have an S and this can only be accompanied by oblique phrases. Non-verbal constructions may be classified into: (a) proper inclusion clauses; (b) equative clauses; (c) attributive clauses; (d) locative clauses; (e) existential clauses; and (f) possessive clauses.

On the other hand, pragmatically marked constructions found in Masbatenyo are: (a) exclamatory clauses; (b) questions; (c) relative clauses; (d) imperative clauses; (e) complement clauses; (f) focus constructions; and (g) negation clauses.

## CONCLUSION

This grammatical sketch of Masbatenyo language is another attempt to document the language. It is a short description of the most salient points of the grammar of the language. In undertaking this research, I have set the following objectives: (1) to describe the language based on the actual spoken language; and (2) to depart from the traditional analyses done in the previous studies.

This paper is the first to make a detailed description of the Masbatenyo grammar after Wolfenden's brief discussion in his dictionary. This paper presents the basic phonological, morphological and syntactic structures of the language based on both the written and actual spoken language following the framework of discourse-functional grammar.

The discussions done here are patterned to some recent research findings on Philippine language that constitute a very important role in the description of Masbatenyo grammar. Philippine languages, including Masbatenyo, have always been analyzed similar to the English grammar. However, recent works show that Philippine languages exhibit features that are very different from English language. For example, earlier studies used to describe the Philippine voice system in terms of active-passive and the notion of 'subject'. However, recent studies (Nolasco, 2003, 2006, 2008) show that the two systems are incommensurable to each other and subject relation does not exist in Philippine languages. Masbatenyo, like many other Philippine languages, exhibits patient primacy. That is to say that it centers more on the role of the patient which is the most affected entity in clause.

The other is the stem-based hypothesis which provides a neater and simpler approach to word formation analysis. This approach shows the formal and functional relationship between words with the same root. Using the layered structure analysis, the pre-categorial nature of Philippine roots is explored and grammatical categorization is established. It is shown that apart from the structural and distributional properties of a word construction, its discourse function is as much as useful as a tool for the identification of its grammatical categories. In this light, Philippine word classes are re-classified. For instance, adjectives and adverbs are lumped into one single category, statives, because there is no sufficient morphosyntactic evidence that warrants the distinction between these two classes.

This research also utilizes the availability of the instrumental approach to the study of language. Using computer technologies, this study is able to provide a more reliable basis for the description of Masbatenyo grammar. An acoustic investigation of Masbatenyo sounds is used to efficiently describe the phonemic inventory of the language. It shows through mapping of the vowel space shows that Masbatenyo only has three phonemic vowels (/a, ɪ, ʊ/). It also shows that stress or accent is best characterized

by length or duration. At the morphosyntactic level, it is demonstrated that Masbatenyo speech can be analyzed using the notion of intonation units; that is the spoken language tends to appear in a series of brief spurts of vocalization. These units are found to have some correlation to grammatical structures in the language.

In conclusion, this research it can be said that it is able to discuss the most important points of Masbatenyo grammar thoroughly. It also provides a more reliable starting point to the study of the language. It can serve not only as a guide for the community of speakers and users of the language but also for educators who are tasked to use Masbatenyo as medium of instruction and to teach it as a subject in schools. It can also serve as manual for other young linguists who desire to make a grammar of their respective languages.

However, it must be recognized that there is still a great need for the generation of an extensive body of written and actual speech corpus of Masbatenyo. As this study has proven, it is through discourse that effective and comprehensive analysis of the language can be attained.

## REFERENCES

Almario, Orlando. 1995. *Masbate: Men and Events*. Masbate.

Anderson, Stephen. (1993). Wackernagel's revenge: Clitics, morphology and the syntax of second position. *Language* 69. 68-98.

Anderson, Stephen. (2008). Second Position Clitics in Tagalog. In S. Inkelas & K. Hanson, eds. *Nature of the Word*. MIT Press.

Asaula, Jerome Maximo. 2010. *Sa Paglayog san Tabon. Ticao*, Masbate. Unpublished.

Baart, Joan. 2001. *A Field Manual of Acoustic Phonetics*. SIL International.

Bird, Sonya & Wang, Qian. Ling 380: *Acoustic Phonetics Lab Manual*. Department of Linguistics, University of Virginia.

Bloomfield, Leonard and Santiago, Alfonso. 1917. *Tagalog texts with grammatical analysis*. University of Illinois Studies in Language and Literature 3 (2-4). Urbana: University of Illinois.

Bresnan, John. 1995. Lexicality and Argument Structure. Paper presented at the *Paris Syntax and Semantics Conference*.

Billings, Loren & Daniel Kaufman. 2004. Towardsa Typology of Austronesian Pronominal Clisis. In Paul Law, ed., *Proceedings of AFLA II.* ZAS Papers in Linguistics.

Brillante, Ma. Glenina & Hipolito, Katrina Isabel. 2013. *Lexical Comparison of Speech Varieties in Five Towns of Masbate.* University of the Philippine-Diliman. Unpublished draft.

Ceña, Resty. 1978. Patient Primacy in Tagalog. Paper presented at the *LSA Winter Meeting. Chicago*.

Ceña, Resty M. and Nolasco, Ricardo Ma. (2011). *Gramatikang Filipino: Balangkasan*. Diliman, Quezon City: University of the Philippines Press.

Ceña, Resty M. 2012. *Sintaks ng Filipino*. Manila: National Commission on Culture and the Arts.

Chafe, Wallace. 1980. The Pear Stories: Cognitive, cultural, and linguistic aspects of narrative production. Norwood, NJ: Ablex.

Chua, MLR & Yuson, MK. 2013. *A Study in Identifying Intonation Units in Masbatenyo*. University of the Philippines-Diliman. Unpublished draft.

Chua, MLR & Monghit, John Oliver. 2013. *Conjoining in Masbatenyo Discourse.* University of the Philippines-Diliman. Unpublished draft.

Comrie, Bernard, et al. 2008. *The Leipzig Glossing Rules: Conventions for interlinear morpheme-by-morpheme glosses*. Max Planck Institute for Evolutionary Anthropology and Department of Linguistics of the University of Leipzig.

Constantino, Ernesto. unknown. 500 Word List. Department of Linguistics: University of the Philippines-Diliman.

De Guzman, Videa P. 1988. Ergative Analysis for Philippine languages: An Analysis. In RichardMcGinn (ed.), *Studies in Austronesian Languages*. Ohio University Monographs Studies, Center for International Studies, Center for Southeast Asian Studies.

De Guzman, Videa P. 1994. Verbal Affixes of Tagalog: Inflection or Derivation? In Ode, Cecilia & Wim Stokhof, 1994. *Proceedings of the Seventh International Conference on Austronesian Languages,* Leiden.

De Guzman, V. P. 1996. Lexical categories in Tagalog. In *Pan-Asiatic Linguistics: Procedings of the Fourth International Symposium on Languages and Linguistics*, 1 pp. 307–396. Mahidol University.

Dixon, R. M. W. 1979. *Ergativity*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Doctolero, Eduardo. 2004. *Paglikom at Pagsusuri ng mga Karunungang Bayan ng Masbate.* University of Saint Anthony. Iriga City.

Dubois, John. 1993. *Discourse Basis for Ergativity*. University of California Sta. Barbara.

Du Bois, J. W. (1980). Beyond definiteness: The trace of identity in discourse. In Chafe, W.L. (ed.) *The pear stories: Cognitive, cultural, and linguistic aspects of narrative production*. Norwood, NJ: Ablex. 203-274

Erbaugh, Mary. The Chinese Pear Stories – Narratives Across Seven Chinese Dialects. Retrieved on March 31, 2011 from: http://www.pearstories.org/docu/ThePearStories.htm

Foley, W. 1998. *Symmetrical Voice Systems and Precategoriality in Philippine Languages*. University of Sidney

Fox, Barbara. 1985. Word Order Inversion and Discourse Continuity in Tagalog. *Interdisciplinary Journal for the Study of Discourse.*

Grimshaw, Jane. 1990. *Argument structure*. Cambridge: The MIT Press.

Haspelmath, M. 2007. Coordination. In T. Shopen (Ed.), *Language Typology and Syntactic Description: Complex Constructions* (2nd ed., Vol. 2, pp. 1-51). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Haspelmath, Martin. 2008. *Syntactic Universals and Usage Frequency.* Liepzig School on Linguistic Diversity.

Haspelmath, Martin. 2012. Handouts on Functionalist Linguistics.

Himmelman, Nikolaus. 1991. *The Philippine Challenge to Universal Grammar*. Univesitat zu Koln.

Himmelmann, Nikolaus. 2006*. Essentials of Language Documentation*. New York: Mouton de Gruyter.

Hopper, Paul and Sandra Thompson. 1980. Transitivity in Grammar and Discourse. *Language* 56.

Iwasaki, S. and Tao, H. 1993. A comparative study of the structure of the intonation unit in English, Japanese, and Mandarin Chinese*, Annual Meeting of the Linguistics Society of America*,, Jan. 9. 199, Los Angeles, CA

Jonsson, N. 2012. *Temporal and co-varying clause combining in Austronesian languages: Semantics, morpho-syntax and distributional patterns*. Unpublished PhD dissertation. Stockholm University: Stockholm.

Laviña, A. (2012). *The essentials on existentials: The presentative function*. University of the Philippines-Diliman. Unpublished draft.

Lee, Celeste Chia-Yen. 2006. Clitic Pronouns in Masbatenyo. Paper read at the *Tenth International Conference on Austronesian Linguistics*. Palawan.

Levin & Hovav, Rappaport. 2011. *Conceptual Categories and Linguistic Categories.*

Lim, Roger. 2011. *Sa Paghanap san Sinauna na Tabonan: Mga Palatandaan san ika-10 pa 14 na siglo san Rawis sa San Fernando*. Ticao, Masbate.

Lobel, Jason William. 2002. An Introduction to the Languages of Romblon Province. *Sanrokan News Magazine*. Retrieved last March 23, 2011. http://www.sanrokan.com.

McFarland, Curtis. 1974. *The Dialects of the Bikol Area*. Unpublished dissertation. Yale University.

Mithun, Marianne. 1987. Is basic word order universal? In Russell Tomlin, ed. *Grounding and Coherence in Discourse. Typological Studies in Language* 11. Amsterdam: John Benjamins. 281-328. Reprinted 1992 in *The Pragmatics of Word-Order Flexibility*. Typological Studies in Language 22. Doris Payne, ed. Amsterdam: John Benjamins. 15-6.

_____. 1994. The implications of ergativity for a Philippine voice system. In Barbara Fox and Paul Hopper, eds. *Voice: its Form and Function*. *Typological Studies in language* 27. Amsterdam: John Benjamin's. 247-277.

_____. 1999. What are S, A, and O?. With Wallace Chafe. *Studies in Language* 23.3:579-606.

Mithun, Marianne. 1998. *The Difference a Category Makes in the Expression of Possession and Alienability*. Offprint: John Benjamins Publishing Company.

Nolasco, Ricardo Ma. 1994. *Grammar ng Sorsoganon*. M.A Dissertation. University of the Philippines-Diliman.

_____. 2003. *Ang Pagkatransitibo at Ikinergatibo ng mga Wikang Pilipino*. Ph.D Dissertation. University of the Philippines- Diliman

_____. 2005. What Philippine Ergativity Really Means. Paper presented at *Taiwan-Japan Joint Workshop on Austronesian Languages*, Taiwan: National Taiwan University.

_____. 2011. *Grammar Notes on the National Language*. (unpublished)

_____. 2006. Ano ang S, A, at O sa mga Wika ng Pilipinas? Paper read at the *9th Philippine Linguistics Congress*, January 2006. University of the Philippines-Diliman, Quezon City.

Pama, Eunice & Ponio, Elisha. 2013. *To Be or Not to Be: Re-describing Existentials in Masbatenyo.* University of the Philippines-Diliman. Unpublished draft.

Payne, Thomas. 1997. *Describing Morphosyntax*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Rosero, Michael Wilson. 2008. *A Linguistic Survey of Milagros, Masbate*. University of the Philippines-Diliman. Unpublished.

_____. 2008. An Ergative Analysis of Masbatenyo. University of the Philippines-Diliman. Unpublished.

_____. 2011. Multiple Motivations for Preposing in Philippine Languages. Paper presented at the *11th Philippine Linguistic Congress*, Quezon City: University of the Philippines Diliman.

Schachter, Paul and Fe Otanes. 1972. *Tagalog Reference Grammar*. Berkeley: University of California Press.

Shibatani, Masayoshi, ed. 1988. *Passive and voice*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.

Stone, R. & Zamora, N. 2010. Designing an Alphabet for Unwritten Languages. Paper presented at the *1st Philippine Conference-Workshop on MTBMLE*, February 2010. Cagayan de Oro City: Capitol University.

Summer Institute of Linguistics. 1979. *Magbasa Kita San Masbatenyo 1*. Summer Institute of Linguistics Press.

_____. 1979. *Magbasa Kita San Masbatenyo 2*. Summer Institute of Linguistics Press.

_____. 1979. *Magbasa Kita San Masbatenyo 3*. Summer Institute of Linguistics Press.

Tanangkingsing, M. (2006). *What Intonation Units Tell Us About Cebuano Grammar.* National Taiwan University.

Tanangkingsing, Michael. 2009. *A Functional Reference Grammar of Cebuano*. Ph.D. Dissertation. National Taiwan University.

Tao, H. 1991. The Intonation Unit as a Basic Unit of Discourse Analysis. Edited by Yuchi Zhiping and Huang Shuxian. Special issue of Yuyan Yanjiu [Language Research]: *Proceedings of the International Conference on Chinese Linguistics*. Wuhan, PRC., 216-220

Tantiangco, CMK, et al. 2009. *Acoustic Correlates of Stress*. Quezon City: University of the Philippines-Diliman. Unpublished.

Villegas, Merriam. 2010. *A Grammar Sketch of Iriga Agta*. Unpublished thesis. Quezon City: University of the Philippines-Diliman.

Wolfenden, Elmer. 2001. *A Masbatenyo-English Dictionary*. Linguistic Society of the Philippines. Manila.

_____. *The Subject Noun Phrase of Masbatenyo*. Summer Institute of Linguistics. Microform.

_____. *The Phonemes of Masbatenyo*. Summer Institute of Linguistics. Microform.

Zorc, David Paul. 1977. *The Bisayan Dialects of the Philippines: Subgrouping and Reconstruction*. Australian National University.

Online Resources:

Masbate. Retrieved last January 10, 2011 from http://masbate.islandsphilippines.com/
Masbate. Retrieved last January 10, 2011 from http://www.wikipedia.com/
Masbate. Retrieved last January 10, 2011 from http://www.nscb.gov.ph/