

UNIVERSITY OF THE PHILIPPINES

A GRAMMATICAL SKETCH OF MASBATENYO

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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. Despite the size of the population and the outstanding academic achievements of the speakers, the Masbatenyo language remains an oral language.

This paper is another attempt to document the language. It is a grammatical sketch, a short description of the most salient points of the grammar of the Masbatenyo 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.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

A	agent or source of action	OBL	oblique
ABS	absolute	PAT	semantic patient
AGENT	semantic agent	PFV	perfective
APT	aptative	PL	plural
BEN	beneficiary/recipient	POSS	possessive
CAUS	causative	PR	personal
CONJ	conjunction	PROX	proximal
COMPR	comparative	PRSP	prospective
		PRT	particle
C ₁ V ₁	first syllable reduplication	QW	question word
DIST	distal	RED	reduplication
DISTR	distributive	RCP	reciprocal
ERG	ergative	RPFV	recent perfective
FOC	focus	S	only argument of an intransitive construction
GEN	genitive	STAT	stative verb
INCP	inceptive future	STEM	stem
IND	indicative	TA	tense-aspect
INTR	intransitive affix	TR	transitive
INTSV	intensive	V _{1r}	first vowel + r reduplication
IMP	imperative	∅	zero-marked
IPFV	imperfective	1	1 st person
LKR	linker	12	dual person
LOC	locative	2	2 nd person
MED	medial	3	3 rd person
MOD	modifier	=	cliticization
MODE	mode	-	morpheme boundary
NEG	negator	.	morpheme with several metalinguage elements
NEUT	neutral tense-aspect	<>	infixation
NOM	nominalization		
NONSPEC	non-specific		
NUM	numeral		
O	patient or most affected entity		

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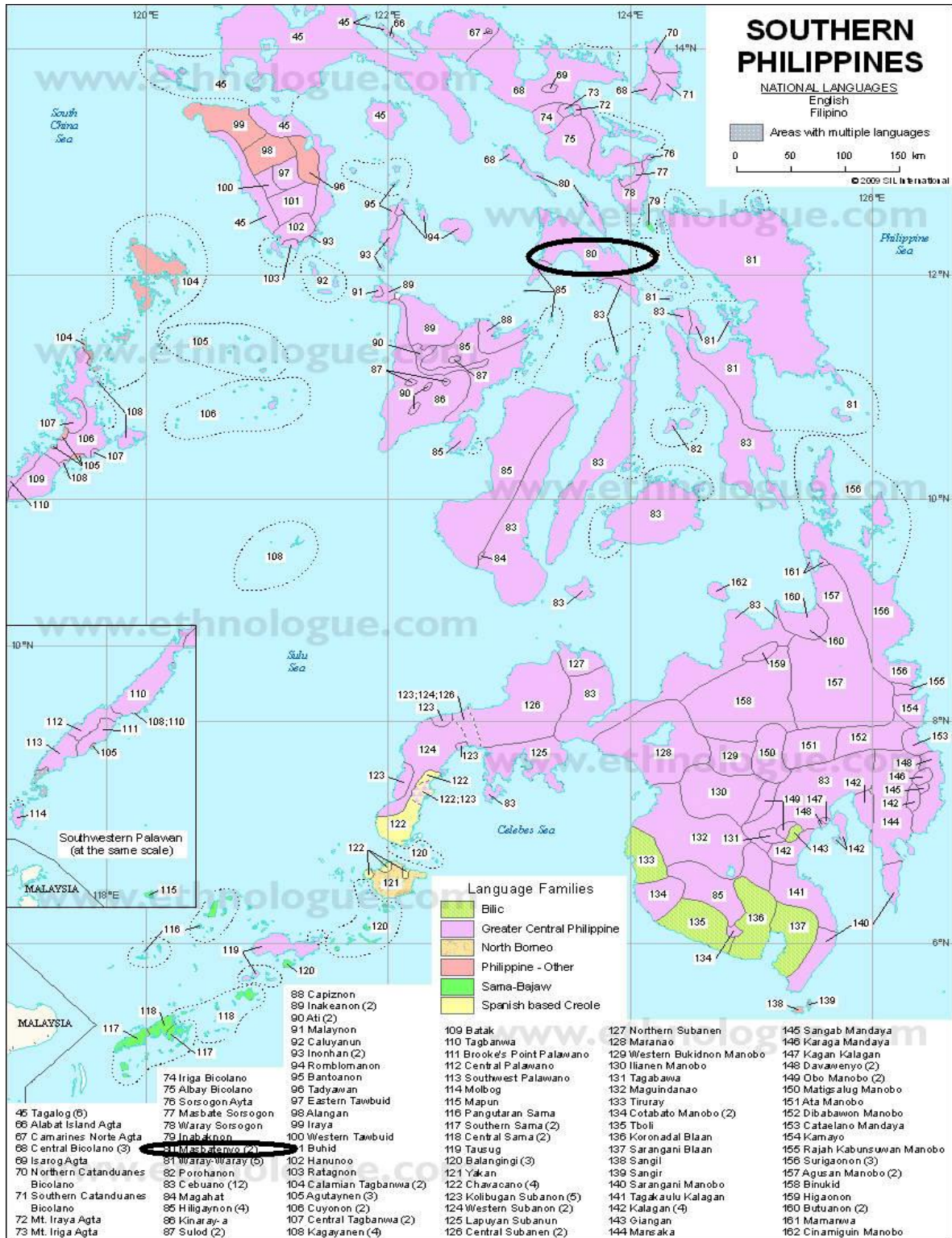


Figure 1. Linguistic Map of Southern Philippines with Masbatenyo highlighted¹

¹Source: SIL, <http://www.ethnologue.com/map/PH> s

Chapter 1 INTRODUCTION²

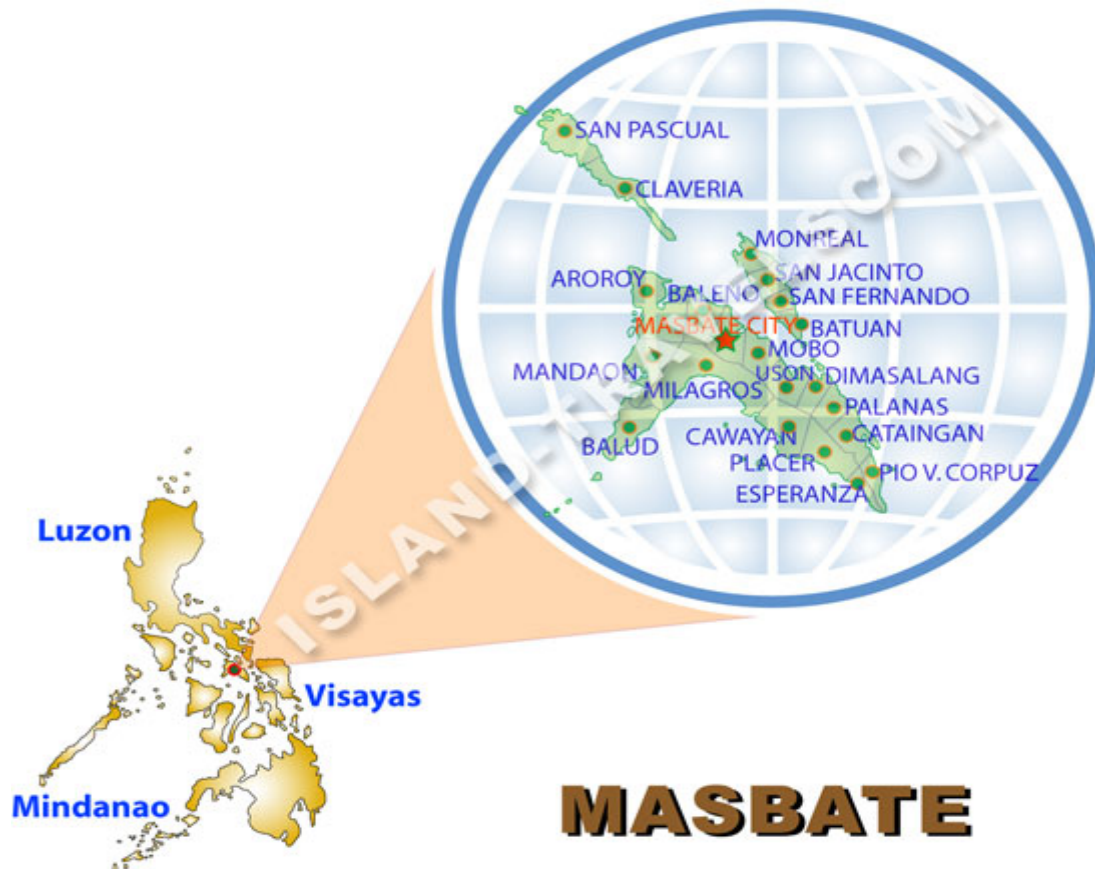


Figure 2. Map of the Philippines with Masbate highlighted³

1.0. GENERAL INFORMATION ON MASBATENYO

Masbate is an island province situated near the center of the Philippine archipelago. 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 average rate of 1.71 percent from 1995 to 2000. The province had an average population density of 174.8 persons per square kilometer.

² The introduction of this paper is derived from an earlier research done on the language: The Linguistic Survey of Milagros, Masbate (2009).

³ Source: <http://masbate.islandsphilippines.com/map.php>

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 considered a melting pot of languages and cultures (Wolfenden, 2001). 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 the Waray variety; residents from Pio V. Corpus, Cataingan and Placer in the south speak Boholano and Cebuano; along the western coast of Mandaon and Balud, people converse in Hiligaynon and Capiznon; and natives of the Ticao and Burias islands talk in variants of the Bicol dialect and Cebuano due mainly to the droves of migrants to the island during the sixties. Up to this date, there is still no updated and detailed dialectology work on Masbatenyo.

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 batí* “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 Rada⁴, 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 *ago*. Then for the third time, its name was changed *Masbaranon* because of the supposed abundance of small fish called *masbad* (Pelorina, 2012).

1.2. 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.

⁴ In Documentary Sources of Philippine History (1990)

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 (Eberhard, D., Simons, G., Fennig, C., 2021) report on the languages of the world, it has a total of 724, 000 speakers (UNSD 2005) with 474,000 users speaking it as their first language and about 250,000 speakers using it as their second language.

Masbatenyo is most closely related to Capiznon, with 79% lexical similarity and Hiligaynon with 76% lexical similarity (Eberhard, D., Simons, G., Fennig, C., 2021). 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. 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).⁵

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.

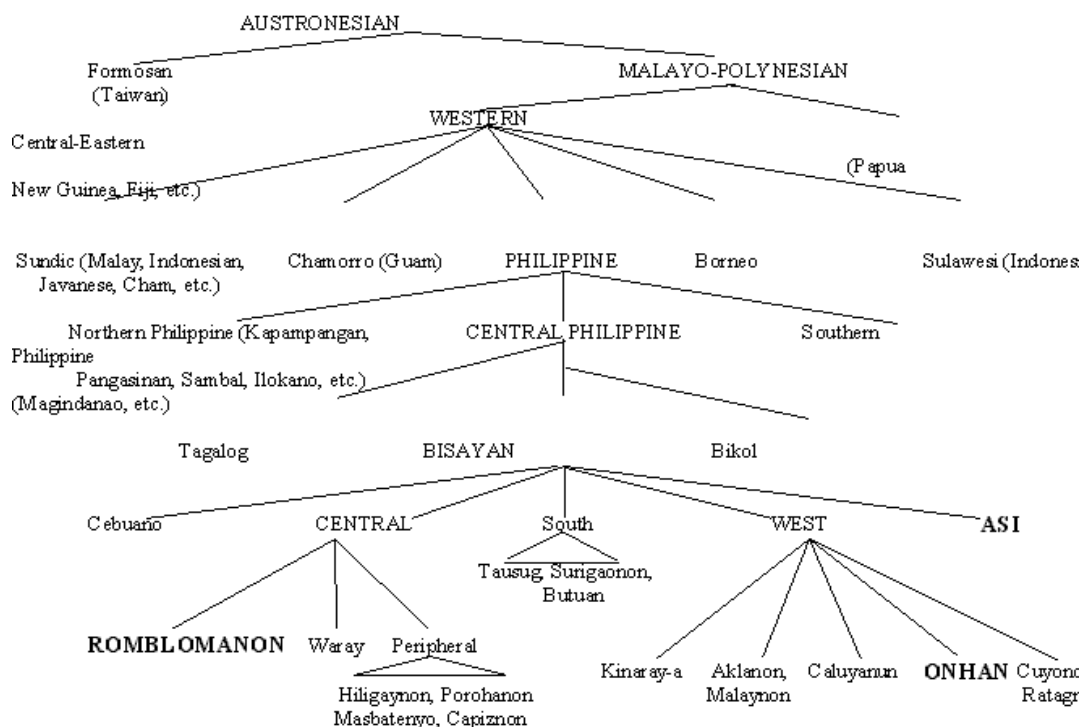


Figure 3. The subgrouping of Austronesian language family (Lobel, 2002)

⁵ Hipolito and Brillante (2013) have 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 Boverns' 200-word list.



Figure 4. Masbatenyo and the Bisayan subgroup of languages (Lobel, 2002)



Figure 5. 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 characteristic 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.

This led Wolfenden (2001) to think that 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.

Zorc (1977), on the other hand, considered Masbatenyo, together with Kinaray-a, Bulalakaw, Hiligayon, Waray, and Surigaonon, as “linking dialects” because they serve as “centers of dialect complexes”.

1.2.1. 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, the capital.

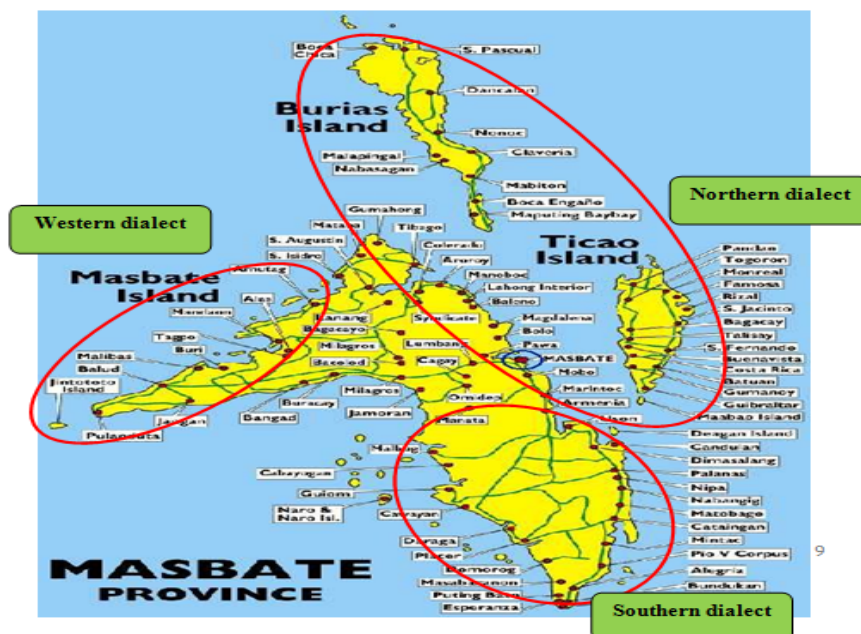


Figure 6. The dialects of Masbatenyo and the areas where they are spoken⁶

⁶ This is merely an approximation. There is no detailed work on Masbatenyo dialectology yet.

1.2.2. 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.

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.

1.3. 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.

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 a 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 spoken in Milagros, having the largest percentage (70%), Cebuano (15%) and Hiligaynon (14%) still have relatively large numbers of speakers. Other languages such as Bikolano, Waray and Kinaray-a comprise the remaining one percent 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.

A Working Orthography of Minasbate (Minasbate Language Society, 2016)

In 2016, the members of newly established Minasbate Language Society, composed of various stakeholders from Masbate, developed a working orthography on the language based on the discussions in the 1st Minasbate Orthography Congress. The Minasbate Working Orthography distinguishes between the native Minasbate orthography and the extended working orthography. The following symbols are used in the native Minasbate orthography:

Aa, Bb, Dd, Gg, Hh, Ii, Kk, Ll, Mm, Nn, NGng, Pp, Rr, Ss, Tt, Uu, Ww, Yy, ` (for glottal stop)

To accommodate the inclusion of borrowed words in native Minasbate vocabulary, an extended orthography was also included in the MWO. The extended orthography consists of the native orthography and the borrowed letters, such the vowels *Ee* and *Oo* and consonants *Cc, Ff, Jj, Ññ, Qq, Vv, Xx, Zz*.

Although it recognizes that all Minasbate words use “a,” “e,” “i,” “o,” and “u,” the vowels “i” and “e” are indistinct and alternate in written native words and are distinct in borrowed words. The vowels “o” and “u” also behave the same.

The draft Minasbate Working Orthography (Rosero, et al. 2016) also sets rules for the following: the representation of the glottal stop; symbolizing stress or accent; the sequence of “u” and “o”; the use of “i” and “e”; the use of hyphen; the representation of consonant clusters; and writing borrowed words.

Other literature includes instructional materials and religious text. No new major written account was added in the collection presented above. This shows that there is a need for further discussion on the language and the area where it is spoken as a first language.

1.4. 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. It is also hoped to be the starting point of research on the Masbatenyo language.

1.5. 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 the analysis.

1.5.1. 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.

1.5.2. 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 identified 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 pattern. It centers more on the role of the patient rather than the actor or the agent. Philippine-type languages show patient primacy.

1.5.3. 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.

Nolasco (2011) argued that 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. The transitive affixes have been found to be only three: *-in-*, *-an-*, and *i-*.

This study employs the Nolasco's (2011) stem-based approach in the analysis of Masbatenyo word formation and structure.

1.5.4. 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.

1.6. 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.

1.6.1. 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 wordlist 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

1.6.2. 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; c) they know how read and write; and d) they are available for the interview. The data were primarily obtained from the following informants:

1. Charito R. Blancaver, 50 years old and native of Narangasan, Milagros, Masbate. She is 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.
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.

Additional data were gathered from the Masbatenyo Corpus (2014). See Appendix for the complete list of informants and their metadata.

1.6.3. 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.

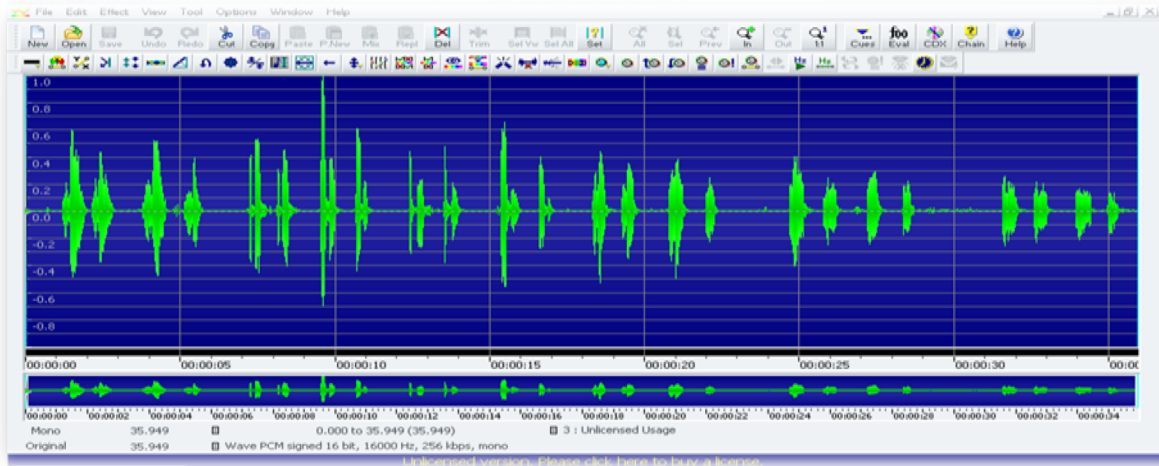


Figure 7. Screen shot of Goldwave v5.57

- (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.

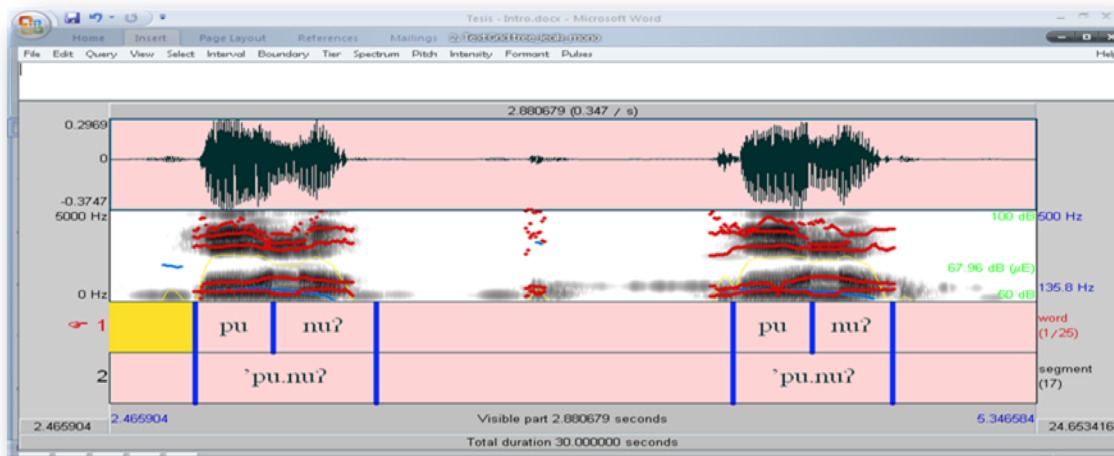


Figure 8. Screen shot of Praat program showing the acoustic analysis of the words *'pu.no* 'tree' and *pu. 'no* 'full'

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

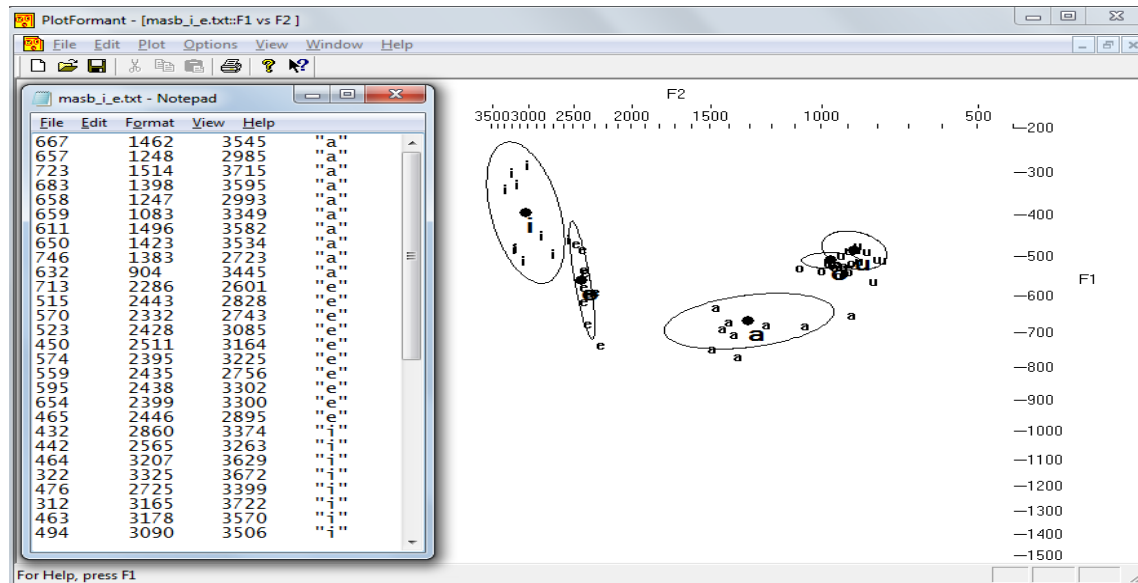


Figure 9. Screen shot of a PlotFormants output showing the raw measurements and the plotted values of Masbatenyo vowels.

1.6.4. Methodology and Analysis

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

1.6.4.1. 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.

1.6.4.2. 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.

1.6.4.3. 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.

1.6.4.3.1. 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.

1.6.4.3.2. Interview Procedure

The participants were asked to watch the film. Within 5-25 minutes afterward, they were interviewed individually in a different room. The speakers were asked to tell the story quite naturally. Each narrative took around two minutes. The narrative was audio or videotaped.

1.6.4.4. Intonation Units and Clause Structure

The narrations were transcribed, classified and divided into clauses. In this study, the clause 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. 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.

In this section, the International Phonetic Alphabet (see Figure 10) will be used to represent the speech sounds of Masbatenyo.

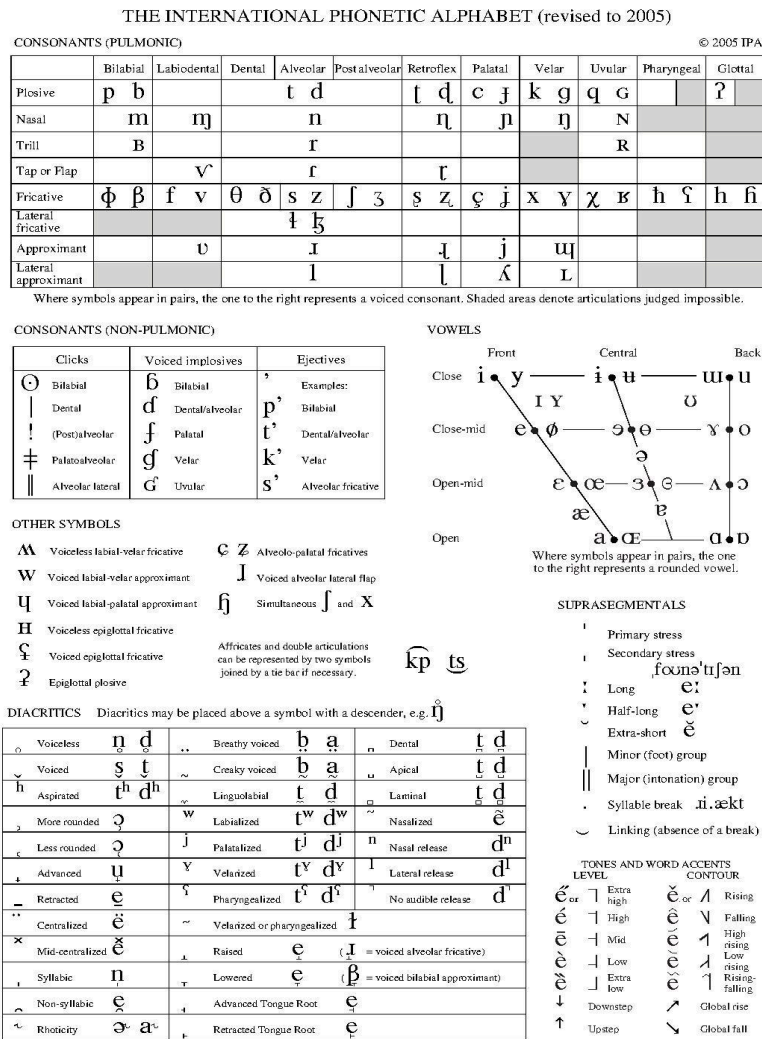


Figure 10. The International Phonetic Alphabet (2005)

2.1. MASBATENYO PHONEMIC INVENTORY

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

- | | | | | | |
|-----|---------------|-----------------|----|---------------|-----------|
| (1) | <i>dila</i> | ‘tongue’ | vs | <i>dili</i> | ‘no/not’ |
| (2) | <i>hubug</i> | ‘drunk’ | vs | <i>hubag</i> | ‘swollen’ |
| (3) | <i>bungoʔ</i> | ‘skull’ | vs | <i>bungol</i> | ‘deaf’ |
| (4) | <i>butung</i> | ‘young coconut’ | vs | <i>butang</i> | ‘put’ |
| (5) | <i>sira</i> | ‘damaged’ | vs | <i>sura</i> | ‘viand’ |

The minimal pairs above show the contrast between the vowels. The sounds *a* and *i* in (1), *u* and *a* in (2 and 4), ʔ (glottal stop) and *l* in (3) and *i* and *u* in (5) occur in **contrastive distribution**, which means that they are phonemically distinct. On the other hand, the phonemes *u* and *o* 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) | <i>labʔog</i> | vs | <i>labʔug</i> | ‘wallow’ |
|-----|---------------|----|---------------|----------|

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 three vowel sounds /a, i, u/. It also has a suprasegmental phoneme, the stress / ˈ/, which is characterized by vowel length /:/. The segmental phonemes can be divided into vowels and consonants. The symbol ‘.’ is used to show syllable boundary in this study.

2.1.1. 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 1 shows the distribution of Masbatenyo consonants.

Table 1. The consonant chart of Masbatenyo

	Labial		Alveolar		Palatal		Alveopalatal		Velar		Glottal	
Stop	p	b	t	d					k	g	ʔ	
Nasal		m		n						ŋ		
Tap				r								
Fricative			s				ʃ				h	
Affricate							tʃ	dʒ				
Approximant				l								
Glide		w				j						

Consonants are described in terms of three dimensions: the place where the sound is articulated, the manner of that is produced, and the voicing. Voicing is determined by the vibration of the vocal folds. Speech sounds are **voiced** if they are produced when the vocal folds are vibrating and **voiceless** if they are produced when vocal folds are apart. In Masbatenyo, [p] is voiceless and [b] is voiced.

The **place of articulation** refers to a point where an articulator (usually some part of the tongue and lips) comes in contact with a location (typically a part of the vocal tract). The table below lists the places of articulation involved in producing human speech sounds.

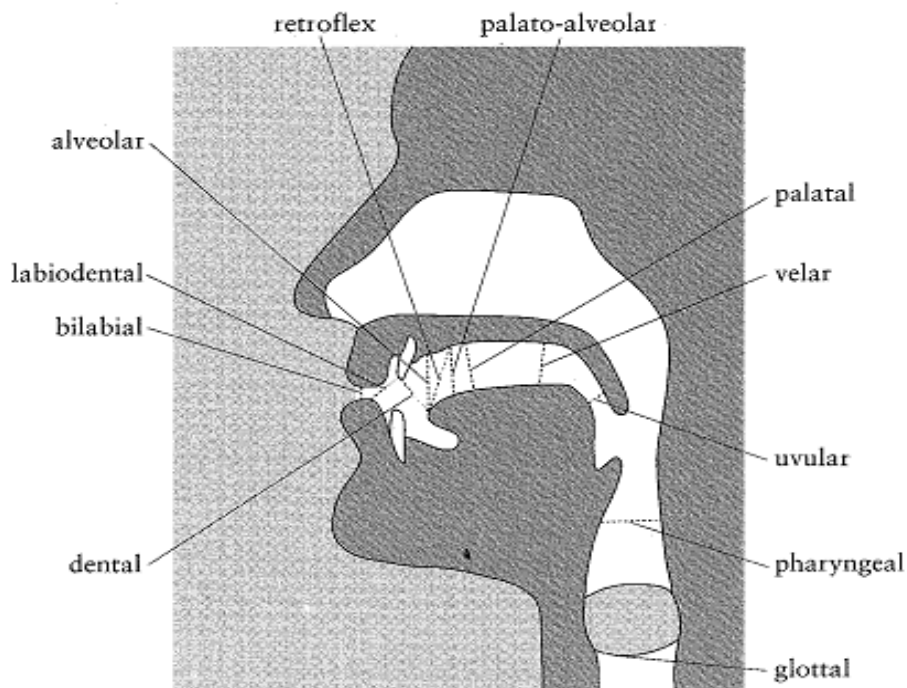


Figure 11: Place of articulation (Hayes, 2009)

Table 2. Places of Articulation

Place of Articulation	Description	Examples
Bilabial	Sounds are produced by the narrowing or complete closure of the lips	[pa.'haʔ] 'thirsty' [ba.'haʔ] 'flood' [ma.'nɔk] 'chicken' [wa.'raʔ] 'none'
Alveolar	Sounds are produced when the front of the tongue is raised to the alveolar ridge	['tʊ:.rɔn] 'toss' [sɔ.'lɔd] 'enter' ['lɪ.nɔg] 'earthquake' ['lɪ.ʔɔg] 'neck' ['sɔ.jɔp] 'sip'

		[rɪ'boʔ] 'noise'
Post-alveolar/ Alveopalatal	Sounds which involve the area just behind the alveolar ridge	[tʃɪ.nɛ.las] 'slipper' [ʃa] 'third person singular pronoun' [dʒɪp] 'jeep'
Palatal	Sounds involve the contact with the roof of the mouth in the center of the hard palate	[pa.'jaʔ] 'coconut shell'
Velar	Sounds are produced by the contact of the tongue and the soft palate or velum	[ka.'mɔt] 'hand' [.'ba:gaʔ] 'ember' [bo.'ŋoʔ] 'skull';
Glottal	Sounds involve only the larynx	[.'baʔ.baʔ] 'mouth' [hɔ.'jɔp] 'blow'

The **manner of articulation** refers to the differences in the narrowness of constriction in the vocal tract, which affects the airflow, thus producing different speech sounds.

Table 3. Manner of Articulation

Place of Articulation	Description	Examples
Stop	complete closure of the vocal tract	[p, b, t, d, k, g] and the glottal stop
Fricative	a constriction is made, tight enough to let the air pass through the mouth	[s, ʃ, h]
Nasal	the airflow through the mouth is blocked, allowing air to escape through the nose	[m, n, ŋ]
Affricate	consists of a stop followed by a fricative, produced in rapid succession that it results in a typical duration of single speech sound	<i>ts</i> in [tʃɪ.nɛ.las] 'slipper; <i>dy</i> in [dʒɪp] 'jeep'
Tap or Flap	the tongue makes a rapid brush against a place of articulation; it is a flap if the motion of articulation is forward while it is a tap if the motion is backward	[rɪ'boʔ] 'noise'
Approximant	the constriction is fairly wide so the air passes through without creating turbulence or trilling	
Lateral approximants	the air passes through the sides of the tongue	[l]
Central approximants	the flow is through a gap in the center	[r, w, j]

Approximants are sometimes classified differently, according to their characteristic acoustic quality. The *l*-like and *r*-like sounds are called **liquids** while the *w* and *y* are referred as **glides** (or **semivowels**).

The Masbatenyo consonants can occur in syllable-initial and -final positions. They can also be found in all word positions – initial, medial and final. Further discussion of their distribution will be presented under section 2.2.3 *Distribution of Consonants*.

2.1.2. Vowels

Vowels, on the other hand, have no points of articulation; it is the whole vocal tract that serves a resonating chamber. When describing vowels, three modifications to the vocal tract are to be considered:

- **Rounding of lips**. Masbatenyo [ʊ] and [ɔ] (orthographically *u* and *o*, respectively) are rounded vowels while *i* [ɪ] is unrounded
- **Height**, which refers to the widening or narrowing of the mouth. Vowels are classified as **high**, **mid** or **low**. [ɪ], and [ʊ] are also referred to as **close** vowels while low vowel such like [a] is called **open** vowels.
- **Frontness or backness**, wherein the body of the tongue is placed towards the front of the mouth or towards the back. Vowels are classified as **front** like [ɪ], **central** [a] and **back** like [ʊ] and [ɔ].

Masbatenyo has three phonemic vowels – the high front unrounded /i/, the low central unrounded /a/ and the back central rounded /u/. Orthographically, they are represented by *a*, *i*, *u*.

Table 4. Masbatenyo vowel chart

	Front	Central	Back
High	ɪ		ʊ
Mid	ɛ		ɔ
Low		a	

/i/ has the mid front unrounded, lax vowel [ɛ] (written orthographically as *e*) as its variant; /u/ 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.

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.

2.1.2.1. 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.⁷

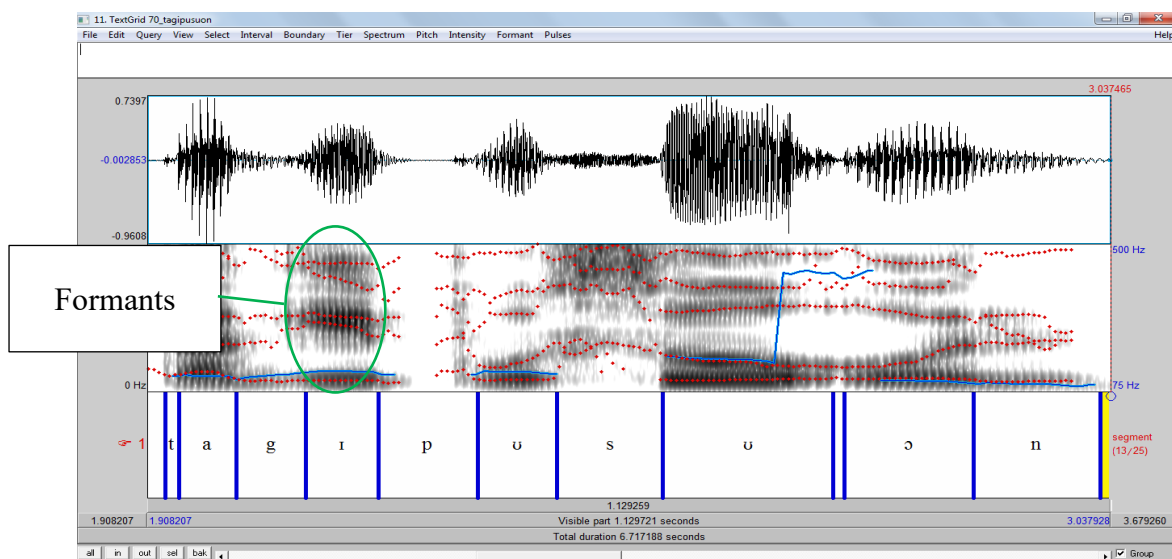


Figure 12. Vowels and their formant frequencies as seen in the spectrogram

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 12. Using Praat, the formant frequencies of the vowel can be measured and plotted, as shown in Figure 13 below.

⁷ 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.

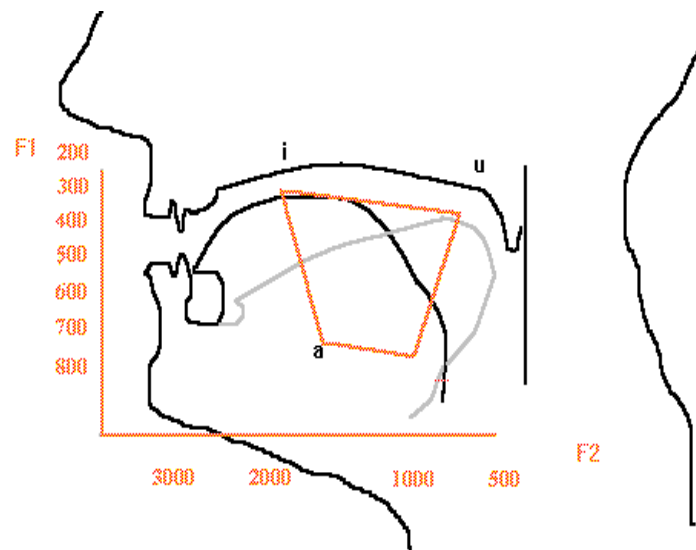


Figure 13. F1 and F2 formant frequencies in vowels

Figure 14 shows the vowel space mapping of Masbatenyo.

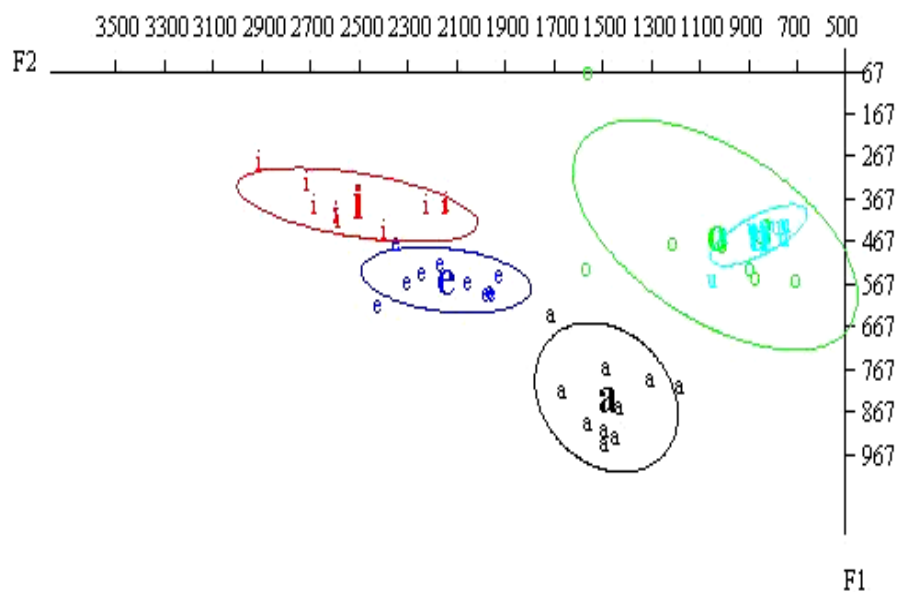


Figure 14. The plotted values of the formant frequencies for each vowel in Masbatenyo.

The following can be observed: a) that [u] and [ɔ] overlap; b) [i] and [ɛ] are somewhat closer to each other; and c) the [a] sound is very much distinct. The overlapping distribution of [u] 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 *primero*, *karne*, and *pwertahan*. There is no [ɛ] sound in native Masbatenyo words.

Table 5 shows the mean values of F1 and F2 of Masbatenyo vowels.

Table 5. 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

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 at the acoustic level, these two sounds are not distinguishable from each other. These values are plotted in Figure 15.

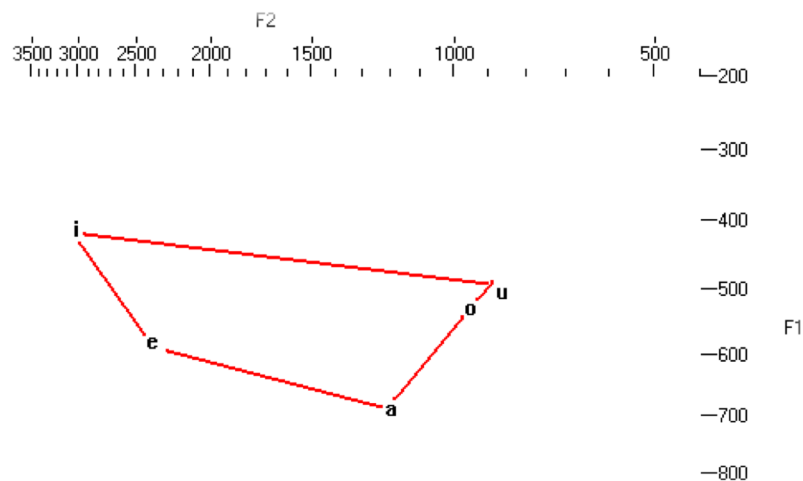


Figure 15. The mean values of the formant frequencies of Masbatenyo phonemes

This analysis shows that there are only three phonemic vowels in Masbatenyo. The sound [ɛ] only appears in loan words from English and Spanish and occurs in free variation with [ɪ]. Similarly, the sound [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. Diphthongs

A **diphthong** is a sequence of two sounds: a vowel and a glide. Diphthongs occur in many languages, including Philippine languages. The diphthongs in Masbatenyo are: [aw] in *sabaw* ‘soup’, [ɪw] in *agiw* ‘soot’, [aj] in *balay* ‘house’, and [ɔj] or [ɔj] in *baboy* ‘pig’.

2.1.4. Suprasegmentals

Phonetic properties above the level of individual sounds (otherwise known as **segments**) are called **suprasegmentals**. This includes the syllable, stress, tone and intonation. This section will discuss the features of the syllable and stress in Masbatenyo.

2.1.4.1. Syllable

The **syllable** is defined as a linguistic grouping of segments that consist of a nucleus (or a peak), an onset, or a coda. The **nucleus** is the most prominent part of the syllable. Consonants preceding the nucleus are called the **onset** within the syllable while consonants following the nucleus are called the **coda**. The most common syllable patterns in Philippine languages are CV (also called open syllable) and CVC (also referred to as closed syllable).

Syllable boundaries are represented by period positioned between syllables. For example, the word *parapangisda* ‘fisherman’, which has five syllables, would be transcribed as [,pa.ra.pa.ŋis.da].

2.1.4.2. Stress

Stress is phonemic in Masbatenyo. This means that the placement of stress leads to meaning differences. At the phonetic level, the symbol ['] 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.'kʊʔ] ‘wings’	vs.	['pa.kʊʔ] ‘nail’
(8)	['tʊ.rʊʔ] ‘drop, leak’ (n)	vs.	[tʊ.'rʊʔ] ‘leak’ (v)
(9)	[pʊ.'nʊʔ] ‘full’	vs.	['pʊ.nʊʔ] ‘tree’
(10)	[bʊ.'haj] ‘alive’	vs.	['bʊ.haj] ‘life’
(11)	[sa.'pat] ‘bird’	vs.	['sa.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.'bag] ‘swollen’. Secondary stress or stresses can be found elsewhere. The third to the last syllable of the word [,ha.ma.'baw] has secondary stress.

2.1.4.2.1 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. Table 6 presents the results of the analysis.

Table 6. Duration, Pitch, Intensity Measurements of Stressed and Unstressed Syllables
Syllables in bold-faced and blue highlight are stressed

Male					Female				
Syllable	Duration (m/s)	Intensity		Pitch (Hz)	Syllable	Duration (m/s)	Intensity		Pitch (Hz)
		Peak (dB)	Mean (dB)				Peak (dB)	Mean (dB)	
'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

From Table 6, 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 [bo.'haj] 'alive' and ['bo.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.

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

The 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	‘T’
	/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 by the entry of borrowed words from Spanish and English. Table 7 below shows examples of consonant clusters in Masbatenyo which are notably of Spanish origin.

Table 7. Consonant clusters in Masbatenyo (adapted from Wolfenden, 2001)

	/l/	/r/	/w/	/y/
/p/	pla.to	pri.to	pwer.ta.han	pia.no
/t/	-----	tra.po	twer.ka	tyan
/k/	kla.ro	kru.s	kwar.ta	-----
/b/	blang.ko	bra.so	bwe.no	byu.da
/d/	-----	dra.ma	dwen.de	dyu.tay
/g/	glor.ya	gri.po	gwa.po	-----

/m/	-----	-----	-----	myin.tras
/n/	-----	-----	-----	-----
/s/	-----	-----	Swerte	syu.dad
/h/	-----	-----	Hwe.bes	-----

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) [ris.pi.'tar] 'to respect'

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

(14) [ʔor.hi] '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) ['boʔ.boʔ] 'pour'

Table 8 shows the distribution of consonants in Masbatenyo.

Table 8. Consonants in word-initial, medial and final positions in Masbatenyo

	Initial	Medial	Final
/p/	[pa.'haʔ] 'thirsty'	[sa.'pat] 'bird'	[da.'kop] 'catch'
/b/	[ba.'haʔ] 'flood'	[hʊ.'bug] 'drunk'	['ta:.'ʔub] 'high tide'
/t/	['tu:.'ron] 'toss'	[bʊ.'tʊk] 'bundle'	['sa:.'pat] 'insect'
/d/	['du:.'ron] 'grasshopper'	['kad.tʊ] 'to go'	[so.'lud] 'enter'
/k/	[ka.'mʊt] 'hand'	[pa.'kʊ ʔ] 'wings'	[had.'lʊk] 'afraid'
/g/	[ga.'mʊt] 'root'	['ba:.'gaʔ] 'ember'	[hu.'bag] 'swollen'
/s/	['su:.'jʊp] 'sip'	[ba.'saʔ] 'wet'	['la:.'was] 'body'
/h/	[hʊ.'jʊp] 'blow'	[bʊ.'haj] 'alive'	-----

/l/	['li.ʔug] 'neck'	[wa.'la] 'left'	[ba.'kal] 'to buy'
/r/	[ri.'bok] 'noise'	['ʔor.hi] 'last'	-----
/m/	[ma.'nuk] 'chicken'	['ʔa.mun] 'us'	[ta.'rum] 'sharpness'
/n/	[nin.'da] 'them'	['li.nug] 'earthquake'	['bu:.lan] 'moon'
/ŋ/	['ŋi.pon] 'teeth'	[bo.'ŋoʔ] 'skull'	[bo.'toŋ] 'coconut'
/j/	[ja.'naʔ] 'today'	[pa.'jaʔ] 'coconut shell'	['bu:.haj] 'life'
/w/	[wa.'raʔ] 'none'	['pa.waʔ] 'bright'	[ha.ma.'baw] 'shallow'
/ʔ/	['ʔa.'moʔ] 'monkey'	['baʔ.baʔ] 'mouth'	[hu.'ŋaʔ] 'ask'

2.3. MORPHOPHONEMICS

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

2.3.1. Syncope or Vowel Deletion

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

- (17) [da.ra.'han] → [dar.'han] 'bring someone something'
 (18) [pu.no.'ʔon] → [pon.'ʔon] '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.'mo sin 'ta:.wʊ] → [da.'mun 'ta:.wʊ] 'many people'
 (20) [wa.'raʔ sin 'kwar.ta] → [wa.'ran 'kwar.ta] 'without money'

2.3.3. Assimilation

One sound becomes more like that of nearby sound. There are two types: **partial assimilation**, if the assimilated sound retain at least one of its original features and only adopts some of the phonetic features of another sound; and **full assimilation**, if the assimilated sound adopts all the phonetic features of another sound and becomes identical to it.

The prefix [pan], and its derivatives [man] and [nan] 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) [ʔi] + [-(V₁)r-] + [ʔi.'nom] + [-ʔʊn] → [ʔi.'r im.non] '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) [ˈdɪ.lɪʔ] → [dɪʔ] ‘no’

2.3.7. Epenthesis

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

(37) [la.ˈba] + [ʔan] → [la.ˈba.han] ‘laundry’

(38) [ʔɪn.tɪn.ˈdɪ] + [ʔɔn]. → [ʔɪn.tɪn.ˈdɪ.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 (Himmelman, 2006).⁸

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 (Himmelman, 2006).⁹

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 (Himmelman, 2006), e.g. the velar nasal /·ʔ/ 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.

⁸ Himmelman (2006) also distinguishes between “deep” and “shallow” orthographies. Shallow 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.

⁹ 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 (Himmelman, 2006). There are two subtypes of phonographic systems: syllabic (such as Japanese Kana) and alphabetical writing systems (such as Greek and Latin).

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). 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.

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.

Table 9. 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* ‘old’ versus *dálan* ‘road’.

An instrumental approach could also be used to show the presence of the glottal stop. Figure 16 below shows the spectrogram of the glottal stop viewed using Praat.

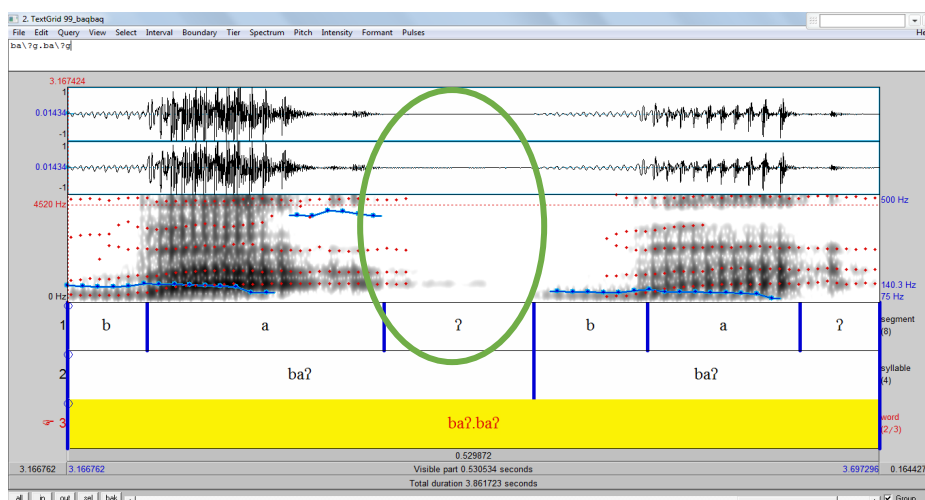


Figure 16. A screenshot of the Praat Edit window showing the glottal stop in [baʔ.baʔ]

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 intervocally 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:

- Don’t write it, since speakers of the language know if there’s one anyway;
- Don’t write it, because it’s difficult to write it;
- Write it for the purposes of accuracy; and
- 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 as circumflex (^) and dash (-) also solve certain problems such as aesthetic ones, e.g. *`atí* versus *^atí^* versus *-atí-* ‘dirty’.

- | | | | | | |
|------|---------------------|--------|------|----------|------------|
| (39) | `adl ^á w | ‘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*.

(43) túrog + -an → turugán ‘bed’

(44) kudkód + -on → kudkudún ‘to grate’

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’), *sira* (*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 10. Masbatenyo equivalents of borrowed consonants

Borrowed letters	Masbatenyo letters
<i>c</i> when followed by <i>o</i> , <i>u</i> , or <i>a</i>	k
<i>c</i> when followed by <i>i</i> or <i>e</i>	s
<i>ch</i>	ts
<i>f</i>	p

<i>j</i>	h
<i>ll</i>	y or ly
<i>ñ</i>	ny
<i>q</i>	k
<i>v</i>	b
<i>x</i>	ks
<i>z</i>	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, u/, 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 conditions, 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: syncope, 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

In describing the internal structure of words, the **morpheme** is considered 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 be 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.

In Philippine languages, a word 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 morpheme. For example, the **stem** *karaút* from the root *raút* 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 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. Nolasco (2011) posits that part-of-membership of roots is much clearer when affixes are attached to them or when they are used in phrases or sentences.

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: *Nagdaragkô 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 pagdakô san bátà niya* ‘I didn’t see his child growing up.’

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 roots in Tagalog and other Philippine languages have no inherent argument structure. 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. 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.

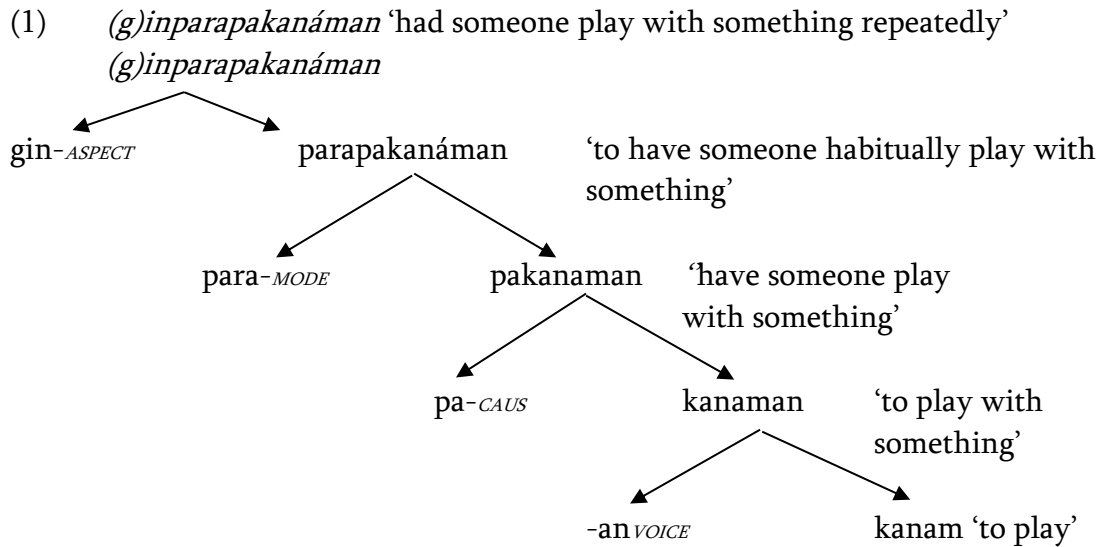
Other linguists like Himmelmann (1991) suggested that root words are not the only pre-categorial but also full words. Gil (1993) further claimed that there is only one open syntactic class of words in Tagalog.

However, the existence of bare root forms of modifiers (adjectives and adverbs) in Masbatenyo can also provide evidence that root forms also have lexical properties. Examples of this are *lab`as* ‘fresh (fish)’ versus *lúb`ok* ‘rotten’, *hilaw* ‘raw’ versus *lutó* ‘cooked’.

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-*.



Traditionally, the word *ginparapakanaman* ‘had someone play with something 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 construction has a number of variants: *-um- mag-*, *mang-*, *maka-*, etc.

3.1.3. Deriving New Words in Masbatenyo

New words can be derived through the process of inflection and derivation. **Inflection** is the process by which variation in the form of a word such as aspect, person, number and gender in grammatical forms are derived through affixation to express an

obligatory grammatical contrast for the stem's word categories in some given grammatical context. Inflectional operations create forms that can be naturally integrated into discourse. Derivation, in contrast, is the process that derives a new category from the original form. Derivational operations 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.¹⁰

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. *karaút* + *m-* > *marauít* '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* + C₁V₁ reduplication > *babakalón* 'will buy'
- c. **Stress shift**, e.g., *báyad* 'pay' > *bayád* 'paid'

3.2. GRAMMATICAL CATEGORIES¹¹

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

¹⁰ 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

¹¹ 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.

according to their structural and distributional properties and how they are used in discourse.

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*, *ni/ninda*, and *kan/kanda* while common nouns are accompanied by *an*, *san/sin*, and *sa*.

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) | <i>táwu</i> ‘man’ | <i>tawu-táwu</i> ‘toy’ |
| (4) | <i>baláy</i> ‘house’ | <i>balay-bálay</i> ‘little house/ an imitation of a real house’ |
| (5) | <i>kalán</i> ‘stove’ | <i>kalan-kálan</i> ‘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) | <i>barúto</i> ‘boat’ | <i>burubarúto</i> ‘mini boat’ |
| (7) | <i>bugsáy</i> ‘paddle’ | <i>burubugsáy</i> ‘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) | <i>adláv</i> ‘day’ | <i>uruadláv</i> ‘everyday’ |
| (9) | <i>gab`í</i> ‘night’ | <i>gurugab`í</i> ‘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 *háyo* ‘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 11. Nominalization morphemes

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

Table 12. Nominalizing voice affix

Affix	Base	Gloss	Example	Root/Stem
-(h)an	N, V	location of a thing, action or process	<i>atubángan</i> 'in front of'	<i>atúbang</i> 'front'
	V	Instrument	<i>kanáman</i> 'toy'	<i>kánam</i> 'play'
	V	someone addicted to a particular action	<i>kawatán</i> 'thief'	<i>káwat</i> 'to steal'
ka-STEM + -an	V	degree, quantity	<i>karaútan</i> 'ugliness'	<i>raút</i> 'ugly'
	N	collection or group	<i>kaigmanghúdan</i> 'brothers'	<i>igmanghúd</i> 'relative/brother'
	N	place for N	<i>kahadían</i> 'kingdom'	<i>hádi</i> 'king'
-in-	V	resultant state	<i>pinaláypay</i> ' <i>sinugbá</i> 'smoked fish/meat	<i>palaypáy</i> <i>sugbá</i> 'to smoke fish/meat'
	N	in the manner of	<i>Minásbate</i> 'Masbate style'	<i>Masbáte</i> 'Masbate'
-(h)un	N, V	made of/ has the quality of	<i>langitnón</i> 'heavenly'	<i>lángit</i> 'heaven'
	N, V	something to be V- ed	<i>anihún</i> '(crop) to be harvested'	<i>áni</i> 'harvest'
-V _r - + -on	V	inherently V	<i>sarawáyon</i> 'mischievous'	<i>sawáy</i> '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 bátà** an basket san piras sa bike.
 Gin-karga-Ø **san bátà** 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 kálò san bátà.
 P<in>álid-Ø **san hángin** an kálò san bátà
 <PFV>blow.away-TR FORCE 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 bátà an babáyi na nakabisiklíta.
 N.(p)aka-súgat san bátà an babáyi
 PFV.INTR.MODE-come.across EXP PAT
 na n.(p)aka-bisiklíta
 LKR PFV.INTR.MODE-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
 ‘He gave the three children pears.’
- 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-butang-án 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 (OBL)**.

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 absolutive (ABS) markers *an* or *si*. The A in (16) is marked by ergative (ERG) markers *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
 PFV.INTR.STEM-leave PRT.already DIST.ABS LKR
 n.(p)ang-(k)uha [sin usád na basket]_{OBL}
 PFV.INT.STEM-take 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<IPFV>drive 1SG.ABS OBL motor
 ‘I’m 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.¹² 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. 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).¹³

- (19) Abogado si Jezelle.
 Abogado **si** **Jezelle**
 lawyer ABS.PR Jezelle
 ‘Jezelle is a lawyer.’

- (20) Maáyo magtukdô **an maestra** ko.
 M.(k)a-ayo m.(p)ag-tukdô **an maestra** ko STAT.STEM-
 good NEUT.INTR.STEM-teach ABS teacher 1SG.POSS
 ‘My teacher teaches well.’

In (19), *Maria* is referential as indicated by the determiner *si*. The *maestra*, 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 (20), the *maestra* which is marked by *an*, refers to a concrete person; therefore, it is referential.

3.3.5.1. Case Determiners

As previously discussed in the preceding section, one important function of determiners in Masbatenyo, as in many Philippine languages is to identify grammatical

¹² De Guzman (1988) and Nolasco (2003) proposed that Philippine languages are ergative languages on the basis of S, A, and O alignment

¹³ Referentiality 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).

relations such as S, A, O and oblique. They neutralize a particular function that an entity performs in a clause. Take the following examples.

- (21) 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.’
- (22) Taodtaód, an tuló na bátà, naglabáy.
 Taodtaód, [**an tuló na bátà**]_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 (21); and of *tuló na bátà* as passers-by in (22). These entities are recognized as the S in their respective clauses and marked with *an* or *si* indiscriminately.

- (23) Kinúha **san usád na bátà an usád ka bangkát** san piras.
 K<in>uha-Ø [**san usád na bátà**]_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.’
- (24) Inbulígan **an bátà** san tuló na bátà na laláki.
 In-bulígan [**an bátà**]_O [**san tuló na bátà na laláki**]_A
 PRFV-help-TR ABS child ERG three LKR child LKR man
 ‘The three boys helped the child.’

In (23), *bátà* 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 (24), *tuló na bátà 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 (23), *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 (23-24). 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 *pagkáon* in (25). The monkey is telling the turtle that he will give him something to eat.

- (25) Hulúgan ta ikáw **sin pagkáon**
 Ø-Hulug-an ta ikáw [**sin pagkáon**]_{OBL}
 CONT-fall-TR 1SG.ERG 1SG.ABS OBL food
 ‘I will give you something to eat.’
- (26) 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.’

Sin can also be used as linker in phrases that express time (27) and quality (28). It also found in existential constructions, following the existential predicate *igwa*, as shown in (29).

- (27) isád sin hápon
 isád **sin** hápon
 one LKR afternoon
 ‘one afternoon’
- (28) Nag`eskwela kamí **sin** maáyo
 N.(p)ag`eskwela kamí **sin** maáyo
 PFV.INTR.STEM-go.to.school 1PL.ABS OBL good
 ‘We studied well.’
- (29) Sádto na panahon igwa **sin** guráng na parapangísda
 Sádto na panahon igwa sin guráng
 DIST.OBL LKR time EXIST OBL old
 na para-pangísda
 LKR NOM-DIST-fish
 ‘Long time ago, there was an old fisherman.’

Table 13 shows the inventory of case determiners in Masbatenyo.

Table 13. 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

Aside from determiners, nouns are also preceded by (a) quantifiers (e.g. numeral terms) as in (30) and; (b) modifiers as shown in (31).

(30) **isad** na bata
 one LKR child
 ‘one child’

(31) **maáyo** na aga
 good LKR morning
 ‘good morning’

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:

(32) May kotse si Kyle
 May kotse si Kyle
 EXIST car ABS.PR Kyle
 ‘Kyle has a car.’

(33) an libro ni Jao
 an libro ni Jao
 ABS book GEN/POSS Jao
 ‘Jao’s book’

- (34) an íya laptop
 an íya laptop
 ABS 3SG.POSS laptop
 ‘his/her laptop’

It is noteworthy that the possessive clause in (34) has the same structure as the existential clause, with *may* as the predicate.

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. Further, 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:

- (35) Napangkóg **siya** sa bató.
 N.(k)a-pangkóg **siya** sa bató
 PFV.INTR.STEM-stumble 3SG.ABS OBL stone
 ‘He stumbled on the stone.’

- (36) Nagburúlag **an iyá piras**.
 N.(p)ag-b<urú>lag **an** **íya** **piras**
 PFV.INTR(n-).STEM-V_{1R}-scatter ABS 3SG.POSS pear
 ‘His pears scattered.’

In (35) the verb *napangkóg* affects *siya* more than it affects *bató*. In (36) *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; Gerds, 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:

- (37) 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 (37a-b). In (37c-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 (37e-f) and (37i).

- (38) 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 (38), the conversation turned to the idea of black flies introduced by *there* in (38c). The *black flies* is the subject of the conversation and is repeatedly referred to by *they* in (38f-i). As (37) and (38) 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 absolutes; 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 “**patient 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 14), 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.

Table 14. 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

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).

Take the following examples.

- (39) *Idtó na tuló na bátà na nagbúlig sa iyá pagpamunpón*
 Idtó na tuló na bátà na n.(p)ag-búlig
 DIST.ABS LKR three LKR child LKR INTR.STEM-help
 sa iyá pag-pam-(p)unpón-Ø
 OBL 3SG.OBL STEM-DISTR-pick-TR
 ‘Those three children helped him picked the (pears) up.’
- (40) *Ginbulígan sya pumponón idtón mga piras (san tulo na bata)*
 Gin-bulíg-an sya pumpon-ón idto=n
 PFV-help-TR 3SG.ABS pick.up-PRSP.TR DIST.ABS=LKR
 mga piras (san tulo na bata)
 PL pears ERG three LKR child
 ‘(Those three children) helped him picked those pears up.’

The verb *nagbúlig* in (39) co-indexes *idtó na tuló* as its sole core argument while *ginbulígan* takes *siya* (the most affected entity) and *san tulo na mga bátà* (the source of action). Compared to the verb *nagbúlig* which may merely express a state or condition, *ginbulígan* in (40) denotes some form of activity. Moreover, this helping action in (40) 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* in (39) 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 (39) and (40), the two clauses contain two participants each: *idto na tulo na bátà* (those three children) and *sa íya* (3SG.OBL) in (39); *siya* (3SG.ABS) and *san tulo na bátà* in (40). In (39), the most affected entity is the *idto na tuló na bátà*, 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 (40), *siya* is the most affected entity of the action *ginbulígan* and co-indexed by the affix *gin-*. Meanwhile, *tuló na bátà* 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 corresponding to a 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.

- (41) Naglakát na **an tuló na bátà**.
 N.(p)ag-lakát na [**an tuló na bátà**]_s
 PFV.INTR.STEM-walk PRT ABS three LKR children
 ‘The three children walked (away) already.’
- (42) Kumadtó an bátà sa baybáy.
 K<um>adto [**an bátà**]_s sa baybáy
 <PFV.INTR>walk ABS child OBL shore
 ‘He went to the seashore.’
- (43) Nagsakát an táwo sa ibábaw san káhoj san píras.
 N.(p)ag-sakát [**an táwo**]_s sa ibábaw
 PFV.INTR.STEM-climb ABS man OBL atop
 san káhoj san píras
 OBL tree OBL pear
 ‘He climbed on top of the pear tree.’

The arguments *tuló na bátà*, in (41), *bátà* in (42) and *tawo* in (43) are coindexed by affixes *n-* and *-um-* 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*.

- (44) Inpunasán niya an píras.
 In-punás-an [**niya**]_A [**an píras**]_O
 PFV-wipe-TR 3SG.ERG ABS pear
 ‘He wiped the pear clean.’

- (45) Dìlì **ko** káya abutún **an búnga san saging**.
 Dìlì [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.’
- (46) Ibabálin **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.’

The aspectual affix *gin-* is also used in a transitive construction. The following example illustrates this.

- (47) Gintángkas **niya** an mga tunók
 Gin-tangkas-Ø **niya** an mga tunók
 PFV-remove-TR 3SG.ERG ABS PL thorn
 ‘He removed the thorns.’

In (47), the transitive verb *tangkas* is affixed with *-on*. The affix gets deleted and the transitivity and aspect of the verb is marked by the *gin-* affix. The aspectual affix *-in-/(g)in-* and voice affix *-on* are in complementary distribution (De Guzman, 1994). De Guzman (1994) cited the **principle of minimal distinction** to explain this phenomenon.¹⁴ 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.

3.4.2.3. Antipassive Construction

Antipassive clauses are those that resemble transitive clauses in that they consist of two or more arguments but have formal characteristics of intransitive clauses in that they are inflected for by intransitive affixes (Dixon, 1979; Mithun, 2000; Aldridge, 2012). They are detransitivized versions of basic transitive clauses in which their argument is either suppressed or realized as oblique complement (Polinsky, 2013). The term *antipassive* is coined by Silverstein (1972) to indicate that the construction of is the mirror image of the

¹⁴ **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.

passive: in the passive, the most agentive argument is suppressed or demoted while in antipassive, it is the most patientive argument.

Take the following examples:

- (48) Ginsakát san táwo an ibábaw san káhoy san piras.
 Gin-sakát-Ø [san táwo]_A [an ibábaw
 PFV-climb-TR ERG man OBL atop
 san káhoy san piras]_O
 OBL tree OBL pear
 ‘The man climbed the top of the pear tree.’
- (49) Nagsakát 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 clause in (48) is a basic transitive clause, with *táwo* as the *A* and *ibábaw san káhoy san piras* as the *O*. The clause in (49) is the detransitive version of (48) where the nominal formerly marked as absolutive is demoted as oblique *sa ibabaw san kahoy san piras*. Moreover, there is also a change in the case marking of *táwo*: in (48), it is marked by the ergative *san* while in (49), it is marked by the absolutive *an*.

As already mentioned, antipassive constructions have the same verbal morphology as the intransitive and in Masbatenyo, they are inflected for by the *m-* replative and its variant.

Antipassive constructions are correlated with the ergativity of a language (Silverstein, 1976; Dixon, 1979). Polinsky (2013) concluded that the transitive-antipassive alternation is more visible in an ergative language, which involves the change of case marking from ergative to absolutive.

Table 15 shows the summary of the voice affixes of Masbatenyo.

Table 15. Voice Affixes of Masbatenyo

Intransitive/Antipassive	Transitive
<i>m-/n-</i>	<i>i-</i> (instrument)
	<i>-on</i> (beneficiary)
	<i>-an</i> (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:

- (50a) Bonnie plays the harp.
- (50b) Bonnie played the harp yesterday.

In (50a), 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 (50b), 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:

- (50c) Bonnie is playing the harp now.
- (50d) Bonnie was playing the harp yesterday when we arrived.

In (50c), the verb is in present tense, progressive aspect while in (50d), 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 *tumutugtog* (Tagalog) and *nagatugtog* (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.

- (51a) Tumutugtog si Bonnie ng harp.
- (51b) Nagatugtog si Bonnie san harp.
'Bonnie plays the harp/Bonnie is playing the harp.'
- (51c) Tumutugtog si Bonnie ng harp ngayon.
- (51d) Nagatugtog si Bonnie san harp nyan.
'Bonnie is playing the harp now.'
- (51e) Tumutugtog si Bonnie ng harp kahápon noong nakita namin siya.
- (51f) Nagatugtóg si Bonnie san harp kahápon san nakíta námon siya.
'Bonnie was playing the harp yesterday when we saw her.'
- (51g) Bukas, makikita mo si Bonnie na tumutugtog ng harp.

- (51h) Buwás makikíta mo si Bonnie na nagatugtóg san harp.
‘Tomorrow, you’ll see Bonnie 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 the aspectual forms which Nolasco (2006) claimed to occur in Philippine languages: 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. Further, this paper will take into account the aspectlessness of the stative constructions in Masbatenyo. 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**. This can also be applied to Masbatenyo. 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 *C₁V₁* 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 *C₁V₁*, the action is already done. The following examples illustrate this:

- | | | | |
|-------|------------------|--|-----------------|
| (52a) | ginābakál | -in-/gin- + <a>/C ₁ V ₁ | + begun, - done |
| (52b) | ginbakál/binakál | -in-/gin- + <a>/C ₁ V ₁ | + begun, + done |
| (52c) | babakalón | -in-/gin- + <a>/C ₁ V 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 *C₁V₁* reduplication express that the action is not yet finished.

- | | | | |
|-------|-------------------|--|-----------------|
| (52d) | nagabakál | n- + <a>/C ₁ V ₁ | + begun, - done |
| (52e) | nagbakál | n- + <a>/C ₁ V ₁ | + begun, + done |
| (52f) | magabakál/mabakál | m- + <a>/C ₁ V ₁ | - begun, - done |

In this paper, forms typically considered as statives are considered as the reduced versions of their dynamic counterparts. These forms which undergo subtractive affixation

lose the activity of the action that they express, thus becoming stative. Examples are provided below:

(53a)	nahumán	$n- + \langle a \rangle / C_1 V_1$	+ begun, + done
(53b)	ginhumán	$-in- / gin- + \langle a \rangle / C_1 V_1$	+ begun, + done
(53c)	Ø-humán	Ø	state/property

Table 16. Aspectual forms of transitive and intransitive verbs

Voice	Infinitive	Perfective	Imperfective	Prospective	Recent Perfective	Inceptive Future
<i>m-</i>	<i>m-</i> magbakál	<i>n-</i> nagbakál	$n- + \langle a \rangle$ nagabakál $n- + C_1 V_1$ nagbabakál	$m- + \langle a \rangle$ magabakál mābakál	<i>ka- + C_1 V_1</i> kakabakál	<i>pa-</i> pabakál
<i>-on</i>	Ø Bakálon	<i>-in-</i> binákal <i>(g)in-</i> (g)inbakál	$gin- + \langle a \rangle$ ginabakál $gin- + C_1 V_1$ ginbabakál	$C_1 V_1$ babākálon		
<i>-an</i>	Ø bakalán	<i>-in-</i> binak(a)lán <i>gin-</i> ginbak(a)lán	$gin- + \langle a \rangle$ ginabakál $gin- + C_1 V_1$ ginbabakál	$C_1 V_1$ babākálan		
<i>i-</i>	Ø ibakál	<i>-in-</i> binákal <i>(g)in-</i> ginbakál	$gin- + \langle a \rangle$ ginabakál $gin- + C_1 V_1$ ginbabakál	$C_1 V_1$ ibābakál		

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*.

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.

(54)	Nagkadtó 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 a wrestling match.’

- (55) **Kinúha** 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.’
- (56) **Intawág** niya an bátà.
 In-tawág-Ø niya an bátà
 PFV-call-TR 3SG.ERG ABS child
 ‘He called the child.’
- (57) **Ginkitá** 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 was 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 imperfective 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-*.

- (58) **Nagaísip** man an baó kun pán`o makakabalós.
 N.(p)ag<a>isip man an baó kun pán`o
 INTR.DUR<IPFV>think PRT ABS turtle CONJ how

 m.(p)aka~ka-balós
 INTR.ABL~PRSP-get.back
 ‘The turtle is thinking how to get revenge.’
- (59) **Kun igwá sin itlog, ginabalígyà** man gihapon ninda.
 Kun igwá sin itlog gin<a>balígyà
 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 (C₁V₁) of the verb stem.

- (60) **Namumutáng** iní na lugár sa tuktók san bukíd.
N.(p)ang-bú~butáng ini na lugar
 INTR.DUR-IPFV~situate PROX.ABS LKR place
 sa tuktók san bukíd
 OBL peak OBL mountain
 ‘This place is situated at the peak of the mountain.’
- (61) **Ginbabáhin** ninda an pagkáon sin pareho sa inda tanán.
Gin-ba~báhin ninda an pagkáon
 TR-IPFV~divide 3PL.ERG ABS food
 sin pareho sa inda tanán
 OBL same OBL 3PL.OBL all
 ‘They are 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-* which consists of the replacive *m*- plus the stem-forming affix *ka-* is also used. For transitive constructions, the C₁V₁ reduplication is employed.

- (62) **Magahímò**/**Mahímò** siya san inda maraót na bintána.
M.(p)ag<a>hímò / **M<a>**hímò siya san
 INTR.DUR<PRSP>make INTR.STEM<PRSP>make 3SG.ABS OBL
 inda maraót na bintána
 3PL.OBL ugly LKR window
 ‘He will fix their ugly window.’
- (63) **Māngáyò** siya san inda mga maraót na bintána.
M.(p)ang<a>-(á)yo / **M.(p)ang<a>**ayo siya san
 INTR.DISTR<PRSP>ask.for INTR.DISTR<PRSP>ask.for 3ABS.SG OBL
 inda mga maraót na bintána
 OBL PL ugly LKR window
 ‘He will ask for their ugly windows.’
- (64) **Babakalón** ko iní na karabaw.
Ba~bakal-on ko iní na karabaw
 PRSP~buy-TR 1SG.ERG PROX.ABS. LKR carabao
 ‘I will buy this carabao.’

- (65) Iní na dutà an ihahátag niya sa íya.
 Ini na dutà 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.

- (66) **Kakakáon** lang námon san nag`abót ka.
Ka~ka-káon lang námon
 RPFV.INTR-STEM-eat PRT.only 1PL.ERG
 san n.(p)ag-abót ka
 OBL PFV.INTR.STEM-arrive 2SG.ABS
 ‘We’ve just eaten when you arrived.’

- (67) **Kabubutáng** là san táwo sa basket san piras.
 Ka-bu~butang là san táwo
 STEM-RPFV~put PRT.just ERG man
 sa basket san piras
 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 indicate this aspect.

- (68) **Pa**-Japan yanâ sinda Bern
Pa-Japan yanâ sinda Bern
 INCP.INTR-Legazpi now ABS.PR.PL Bern
 ‘Bern and (her friends) are going to Legazpi now.’

3.4.3.6. Stative Aspect

Stative verbs differ from dynamic verbs because they are static, no duration and no distinguishable endpoint of action; thus, no aspect. However, in some cases, dynamic verbs lose their dynamicity due to grammaticalization. See the following examples:

- (69a) Arám ko kun háin siya.
Arám ko kun háin siya
 STAT 1SG.ERG CONJ where 3SG.ABS

‘I know where she is.’

(69b) Naaraman ko kun háin siya.

N.(k)a-aram-an	ko	kun	háin	siya
PFV.STEM-know-TR	1SG.ERG	CONJ	where	3SG.ABS
‘I know where she is.’				

This paper proposes that unaffixed form of verbs such as in (69a) is the reduced version of dynamic verbs such as in (69b). The reduced form is the result of subtractive affixation, disfixation in particular. A **disfix** is a subtractive morpheme which manifests itself through the subtraction of segments from a root or stem (Manova, 2011).

Without the voice affix, the action denoted by the root becomes not active (*kinesis*) and has no clear endpoint or accomplishment (*telicity*). The reduced form of the dynamic verbs becomes stative and has static properties (e.g. *kinesis*, *telicity*). The stative aspect is proposed to account for this process and indicated by the disfix \emptyset .

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.

(70) Isad na adlaw, naglakát an amô

Isad	na	adlaw,	n.(p)ag- \emptyset -lakát	an	amô
one	LKR	day	PFV.INTR.NEUT-walk	ABS	monkey
‘One day, the monkey went out.’					

(71) Ginpaswítan sya kag lumingî man siya gihapon

Gin- \emptyset -paswít-an	siya			
PFV-NEUT-whistle-TR	3SG.ABS			
kag	l<um>ingî	man	siya	gihapon
CONJ	<PFV.INTR.NEUT>turn.head	PRT	3SG.ABS	PRT
‘He was whistled at and also looked back.’				

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 (72) and (73).

- (72) 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.’
- (73) Tanda**án** mo kag masd**án**, inâ mamāmatáy.
 Tanda-**an** mo kag mas(i)d-**an**
 take.note-IMP.TR 2SG.ERG CONJ watch-IMP.TR
 inâ 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*.

- (74) Himú**a** iní sin tuló na beses.
 Himu-**a** iní
 do-IMP.TR PROX.ABS
 sin tuló na beses
 OBL.NONSPEC three LKR times
 ‘Do it three times.’
- (75) Tanda**í** kag masd**í**, inâ mamamatáy.
 Tanda-**i** kag masd-**i**,
 take.note-IMP.TR CONJ watch-IMP.TR
 inâ 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 (73) and (74) 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 expressions of intransitive constructions have nominalized forms. In these constructions, second person pronouns are also zero-marked.

(76a) **Magkaón** ka na.
M.(p)ag-kaón ka na
 IMP.INTR.STEM-eat 2SG.ABS PRT
 ‘(Please) eat.’

(76b) **Pagkaón** na.
Pag-kaón 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-*.

(77) **Nakaísip** 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.

(78) **Nakisakáy** kamí sa kotsi ni Shaira.
N.(p)aki-sakáy kamí sa kotsi ni Shaira
 INTR.RCP-ride 1PL.ABS OBL car OBL Shaira
 ‘We rode (together) in Shaira’s car.’

(79) Warâ na ako **nakig`** amígo sa íya.
 Warâ 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 (80), aside from the referent encoded by *niya* who caused the action, there is another source of the action that actually did the action.

- (80) Impataás niya an mga bató
 Im-**pa**-taás-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 indicated by the affix *pang-*.

- (81) Nagapanílhig akó patalíbud
 N.(p)ag<a>**pan**-(s)ílhig akó patalíbud
 INTR.DUR<IPFV>DISTR-sweep 1SG.ABS pa-around.
 ‘I sweep around.’
- (82) May usád na táwo na nangúhà 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 (81), 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 (82) involves climbing up the tree, picking fruits from the tree, climbing down the tree and putting the fruits in the basket.

Table 17 presents the summary of modes and modal affixes in Masbatenyo.

Table 17. Summary of Modes in Masbatenyo

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

3.5. STATIVES

As already mentioned, a stative is one which asserts that one of its arguments has a particular property (possibly in relation to its other arguments). Statives do not have adequate definitive characteristics to be considered as belonging to an actual and discrete word class. In this section, different forms will be explored and morphosyntactic evidences will be provided to prove that they belong to a class referred to as statives.

3.5.1. Stative Verbs

Stative verbs 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.

The first type of stative verbs belongs to a class traditionally called as “pseudo-verbs”. This type includes forms considered as:

- (a) modals such as *kinahanglan* ‘need’, *arám* ‘know’, *gustó* ‘want’, *úyun* ‘like’, *habû* ‘don’t want’,
- (b) existentials *igwá* ‘there is,’ *máy* ‘there is,’ *wará* ‘none’.

Examples are shown below.

- (83) *Kinahanglan an mga maísug na táwo sa gyira.*
Kinahanglán an mga maísug na táwo sa gyira
 STAT.need ABS PL brave LKR man OBL war
 ‘Brave men are needed in the war.’
- (84) *Arám ko kun háin siya.*
Arám ko kun háin siya
 STAT.know 1SG.ERG CONJ where 3SG.ABS
 ‘I know where she is.’
- (85) *Gustó san bátà sin dúlsi.*
Gustó san bátà sin dúlsi
 STAT.want ERG child OBL.NONSPEC candy
 ‘The child wants candy.’
- (86) *Habû akó sa íya.*
Habû akó sa íya
 NEG.want ABS OBL 3SG.OBL
 ‘I do not like/want her.’

- (87) Igwá daw sin bagyo.
Igwá daw sin bagyo
 EXIST PRT OBL.NONSPEC typhoon
 ‘There is a typhoon.’
- (88) May bagyó.
May bagyó
 EXIST typhoon
 ‘There is a typhoon.’
- (89) Wará akón kwarta.
Wará ako=(si)n kwarta
 NEG.EXIST ABS=OBL.NONSPEC money
 ‘I do not have money.’
- This paper suggests that these pseudo-verbs are reduced versions of dynamic verbs. See the following examples.
- (90) Ginkinahanglan an mga maísug na táwo sa gyira.
Gin<a>kinahanglán an mga maísug
 TR.STEM<IPFV>need ABS PL brave
 na táwo sa gyira
 LKR man OBL war
 ‘Brave men are needed in the war.’
- (91) Naaráman ko kun háin siya.
N.(k)a<a>arám-an ko kun háin siya
 STEM<IPFV>know-TR 1SG.ERG CONJ where 3SG.ABS
 ‘I know where she is.’
- (92) Naghabû akó sa íya.
N.(p)ag-habû akó sa íya
 INTR.STEM-do.not.want ABS OBL 3SG.OBL
 ‘I do not like/want her.’
- (93) Nagkaigwá daw sin bagyo.
N.(p)agka-igwá daw sin bagyo
 INTR.STEM-EXIST PRT OBL.NONSPEC typhoon
 ‘There is a typhoon.’

- (94) May bagyó.¹⁵
May bagyó
 EXIST typhoon
 ‘There is a typhoon.’
- (95) Nawar` an akón kwarta.
N.(k)a-war(á)-an ako=(si)n kwarta
 PFV.STEM-none-TR ABS=OBL.NONSPECmoney
 ‘I do not have money.’

As already mentioned previously in the preceding section (see 3.4.3.6 *Stative Aspect*), disfixed forms are considered statives. These forms undergo subtractive affixation, which means their voice affixes get deleted but their argument structure remains intact¹⁶. See the following examples:

- (96a) **Patáy** an sapát.
Patáy an sapát.
 patay-Ø ABS bird
 ‘The bird is dead.’
- (96b) Napatáy an sapát
 N.(k)a-patáy an sapát
 INTR.STEM-dead ABS bird
 ‘The bird is dead.’
- (97a) **Humán** na an trabaho niya
Humán na an trabaho niya
 Ø-finish PRT.already ABS work 3SG.POSS
 ‘His work is finished.’
- (97b) Nahumán na an trabaho niya.
 N.(k)a-humán na an trabaho niya
 INTR.STEM-finish PRT.already ABS work 3SG.POSS
 ‘His work is finished.’

Stative verbs in sentences (96a) and (97a) are reduced forms of their dynamic versions, (96b) and (97b). These forms retain the stress and the argument structure.

¹⁵ Nolasco (pers. Comm, 2016) suggests that *may(roon)* is the reduced or uninflected form of Tagalog *nagkaroon*.

¹⁶ Amerila, Dizon & Pangilinan (2016), in their analysis of the unaffixed forms of Tagalog verbs and Kinaray-a were the first ones to consider subtractive morphology to explain the nature of these forms.

Zorc (1977) describes the following forms in (98-101) as belonging to a type derived by what he calls the “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.

(98a) <i>aram</i> ‘know’	versus	(98b) <i>arám</i> ‘known’
(99a) <i>tápus</i> ‘finish’	versus	(99b) <i>tapús</i> ‘finished’
(100a) <i>báyad</i> ‘pay’	versus	(100b) <i>bayád</i> ‘paid’
(101a) <i>túrog</i> ‘sleep’	versus	(101b) <i>turúg</i> ‘asleep’

However, as can be observed from (102a) and (102b), there is no stress shift that actually takes place in these forms; the stress on the unaffixed forms is retained when affixes get subtracted.

(102a) Bayád na an utang ko.

Bayád	na	an	utang	ko.	
Ø-bayád-Ø	PRT.already	ABS	debt		1SG.POSS
‘My debt is already paid.’					

(102b) Nabayádan na an utang ko.

N.(k)a-bayád-an	na	an	utang	ko.	
PFV-bayád-TR	PRT.already	ABS	debt		1SG.POSS
‘My debt is already paid.’					

3.5.2. Modifiers

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. Nolasco (2011), however, claims that in Philippine languages, “adjectives” and “adverbs” are similar in form. Morphologically, there are no persuasive reasons for separating the modifiers of verbs and non-verbs.

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).

The following sections will ascertain Nolasco’s (2011) claims and show that adjectives and adverbs belong to one word class called statives.

3.5.2.1. Unaffixed Forms

Modifiers can either occur in their bare root forms or they can be inflected by affixes. The first type belongs to a class of unaffixed form of statives. These forms denote that the properties they exhibit 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 *lutô* 'cooked'. Additional data from Hipolito & Santos (2014) are as follows:

- | | |
|----------------------------|----------------------------|
| (103) <i>dáan</i> 'old' | (104) <i>gamáy</i> 'small' |
| (105) <i>bág</i> 'o' 'new' | (106) <i>tubód</i> 'burnt' |
| (107) <i>hinóg</i> 'ripe' | (108) <i>lúmà</i> 'old' |
| (109) <i>sirà</i> 'rotten' | (110) <i>dakô</i> 'big' |

3.5.2.2. Affixed Forms

Affixed forms of the statives are classified according to the affix that attaches to their root forms. They are as follows: (a) *m-* type; (b) *hi-/ha-* type; and (c) those with voice affix.

The first subtype inflected for by the *m-* replacive affix expresses the state or attribute of the referent or entity being described.

- (111) *m-* type
 Maghandá na kitá kay taódtaod **madulóm** na.
 M.(p)ag-handa na kitá
 NEUT.INTR.STEM-prepare PRT 2PL.INCL
 kay taudtaód **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, which is inflected for by the *hi-/ha-*, is used to describe measurements (depth, height, length).

- (112) *hi-/ha-* type
 Guyúdon mo inâ sa **harayó**.
 Guyud-on mo inâ sa **ha-rayó**
 NEUT-lead-TR 2SG.ERG MED.ABS OBL MOD-far
 'You lead that one far away.'

- (113) **Hitaás** man an kahúlog.
Hi-taas 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 as shown in (114) and (115).

- (114) Maáram si Sheila Marie san Minásbate.
 M.(k)a-áram si Sheila Marie san M<in>ásbate
 STAT.STEM-know ABS Sheila Marie OBL <STAT>Masbate
 ‘Sheila Marie knows the Masbatenyo style.’
- (115) Sarawáyon na bátà si Sean
 S<ar>away-**on** na bátà si Sean
 mischief<Vir>-STAT LKR child ABS.PR Sean
 ‘Sean is mischievous child.’

Additional examples are listed in Table 18 below:

Table 18. Voice affixes deriving stative verbs

Affix	Lexical Base	Gloss	Examples	Stem/Root
-an	N, V	personal character	<i>talawán</i> ‘coward’	<i>tálaw</i> ‘cowardice’
	V	person performing action	<i>kawatán</i> ‘thief’	<i>káwat</i> ‘to steal’
<in>	N	manner	<i>Minásbaté</i> ‘Masbatenyo style’	<i>Masbate</i> ‘Masbate’
<i>ma- + -on</i>	V	mental or physical qualities	<i>malangáson</i> ‘joker’	<i>langás</i> ‘joke’
<i>maka-Vir</i>	Stative	making one become	<i>makaarálo</i> ‘embarrassing’	<i>álo</i> ‘shame’
-(a)-n-on	N	state /human modifier	<i>langitnón</i> ‘heavenly’	<i>lángit</i> ‘heaven’
-on	N, V	quality; description of a person	<i>buwáon</i> ‘liar’ <i>tibíhon</i> ‘person suffering from tuberculosis’	<i>búwà</i> ‘lie’ <i>tíbi</i> ‘tuberculosis’
<i>para-</i>	V	fond of habitual action	<i>paralángas</i> ‘joker’	<i>langás</i> ‘to joke’

The reduced form of disfixed stative verbs can also function as modifier as shown in the previous sections.

- (116) **Disfixed form type**
 Patáy an sapat.
 Patáy an sapat.
 patay-Ø ABS bird
 ‘The bird is dead.’

3.5.3. Degrees of Intensification

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

3.5.3.1. Basic/Positive Degree

This degree of intensity is exhibited by the base form of the modifiers.

- (117) **Mabuot** na bata si Chai.
 M.(k)a-búot na bata si Chai
 STAT.(k)a-kind LKR bata ABS Chai.
 ‘Chai is a kind child.’

3.5.3.2. Comparative Degree

The morpheme *mas* is used to express comparative degree.

- (118) **Mas** magandá si Benj.
Mas m.(k)a-ganda si Benj
 COMPR STAT.STEM-beauty ABS.PR Benj
 ‘Benj is more beautiful.’

3.5.3.3. Superlative Degree

The affix *pinaka-* is attached the stem to inflect for superlative degree.

- (119) **Pinaka**madagmít si Iji sa grupo.
Pinaka-m.(k)a-dagmit si Iji sa grupo
 SPRL-STAT.STEM-fast ABS.PR Iji OBL group
 ‘Iji is the fastest in the group.’

3.5.3.4. Intensive Degree

Philippine modifiers 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) as in (120) and affixed forms (121).

- (120) **Kaganda** san boses ni Tinne.
Ka-ganda san boses ni Tinne
 INTSV-beauty ERG voice POSS.PR Tinne
 ‘Tinne’s voice is so beautiful.’

- (121) **Kaharayú** san balay ni Katrina.
Ka-ha-rayú san balay ni Katrina
 INTSV-STAT-far OBL house POSS.PR Katrina
 ‘Katrina’s house is too far.’

Intensive degree may also be expressed by *Curu* reduplication. *ka-* intensification also co-occurs with the *Curu* intensification as shown in (123).

- (122) **Maturutam`ís** iní na biko.
 M.(k)a-**туру**~tam-is iní na biko.
 STAT.STEM-INTSV-sweet PROX.ABS LKR rice cake
 ‘This rice cake is very sweet.’
- (123) **Katurutam`ís** saní na biko
Ka-t<uru>~tam-ís saní na biko
 STEM<INTSV>sweet PROX.ERG LKR rice cake
 ‘This rice cake is very sweet.’

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

- (124) **Grabe láki** an kasadyâ ni Yen
Grabe láki an kasadyâ ni Yen
 INTSV PRT ABS happiness ERG.PR Yen
 ‘Yen is very very happy (lit. Yen’s happiness is too much.)’
- (125) **Grabe ka láki** na bátà
Grabe ka láki na bátà
 INTSV 2SG.ABS PRT LKR child
 ‘You’re such an impossible child.’

As mentioned earlier, the so-called adjective versus adverbs distinction is not always valid in Philippine languages. In Masbatenyo, as in Tagalog and other Philippine languages, adjectives and adverbs have the same forms even when they are used to modify different classes such as nouns as shown in (126) and (128) and verbs in (127) and (129).

- (126) Igwa sin mga **puti** na bao
 Igwa sin mga **puti** na bao
 EXIST OBL PL white LKR turtle
 ‘There were white turtles.’
- (127) Nagsiyak siya sin **tudo**
 N.(p)ag-siyak siya sin **tudo**
 INTR.STEM-shout 3SG.ABS LKR loud
 ‘S/he shouted very loudly.’
- (128) **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.’

(129) **Kagandá** man magsurát ni Jianne.

Ka-ganda	man	m.(p)ag-surát	ni	Jianne
INTS-beauty	PRT	NEUT.INTR.STEM-write	ERG.PR	Jianne

‘Jianne writes very beautifully.’

In (126) *puti* modifies the noun *bao* while in (127) *tudo* modifies the verb *nagsiyak*. These two modifiers is linked to the forms they modify by *na* and *sin*. This also holds true for the intensive forms, as shown in (128) and (129).

Adverbial properties in Masbatenyo are rather expressed by clitic particles such as *na* ‘already’, *pa* ‘still’, *ngáni* ‘really’, *kunó* ‘reportedly’, etc. This will be discussed further later.

3.5.4. Distributional Properties

Statives can either be predicative, as a predicate of a clause (130) or attributive, as modifier of word classes (131) as shown in the examples below:

(130) **Malisód** an exam ni Queenie.

M.(k)a-lisód	an	exam	ni	Queenie
STAT.STEM-difficult	ABS	exam	POSS.PR	Queenie

‘Queenie’s exam is difficult.’

(131) Napangkóg siya sa **daku na bato**.

N.(k)a-pangkóg	siya	sa	daku	na	bato
N.(k)a-stumble	3SG.ABS	OBL	big	LKR	bato

‘She stumbled on a big rock.’

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 batà* ‘to the child’ > *sa iya* ‘to him/her.’ Pronouns 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.

Table 19. Masbatenyo pronominal forms

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

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. Further, they are not allowed to take other positions in a clause, as indicated by the ungrammaticality of (132b), (133b) and (134b).

(132a) Namudô **siya** san prutas

N.(p)aN-pudô =**siya** san prutas
 PFV.STEM-pick 3SG.ABS OBL fruit
 ‘He picked fruits.’

(132b) *Siya namudô san piras

Siya n.(p)aN-pudo san prutas
 3SG.ABS PFV.STEM-pick OBL fruit
 ‘He picked fruits.’

(133a) 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.’

(133b) ***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.’

(134a) kun sa diín **akó** nagatukdó

kun sa diín **akó** n.(p)ag<a>tukdó
 CONJ OBL where 1SG.ABS INTR.STEM<IPFV>teach
 ‘where I teach’

- (134b) ***akó** kun sa diín akó nagatukdó
 akó kun sa diín n.(p)ag<a>tukdó
 1SG.ABS CONJ OBL where INTR.STEM<IPFV>teach
 ‘where I teach’

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, The examples below illustrate this.

- (135a) Gintangkas **niya** an mga tunók
 Gin-tangkas-Ø **niya** an mga tunók
 PFV-remove-TR 3SG.ERG ABS PL thorn
 ‘He removed the thorns.’

- (135b) **Iyá** gintangkás an mga tunók
Iyá gin-tangkas-Ø an mga tunók
 3SG.ERG PFV-remove-TR ABS PL thorn
 ‘He removed the thorns.’

- (136a) an libro **niya**
 an libro niya
 ABS book 3SG.POSS
 ‘his/her book’

- (136b) 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.

- (137) Kinúha niya iní.
 K<in>uha-Ø niya [iní]_o
 take<PFV>TR 3SG.ERG PROX.ABS
 ‘He took it.’

- (138) Bagán may hinátág idtó na bátà na tuló na bayábas.
 Baga=n may h<in>atag-Ø [idtó]
 PRT=OBL EXIST <PFV>give-TR DIST.ABS
 na bátà na tuló na bayabas]REL.CL
 LKR child LKR three LKR guavas
 ‘Seemingly, that child gave three guavas.’

Table 20 presents the demonstrative pronouns in Masbatenyo.

Table 20. Demonstrative pronouns in Masbatenyo

Spatial orientation	Absolutive (S/O)	Ergative (A)		Oblique
		Non-specific	Specific	
near speaker	iní	siní	saní	didí
near hearer	inâ	sinâ	sanâ	didâ
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:

- (139) **sin`ó** ‘who’
Sin`ó 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?’
- (140) **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?’
- (141) **pan`ó** ‘how’
Pan`ó an paglútò san adobo?
Pan`ó an paglútò san adobo?
 QW ABS NOM-cook OBL adobo
 ‘How do you cook adobo?’
- (142) **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?’

- (143) **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?’

- (144) **háin** ‘where’
 Háin an maestro mo?
 Háin an maestra mo?
 QW ABS teacher 2SG.POSS
 ‘Where is your teacher?’

- (145) **diín** ‘where’
 Diín ka halí?
 Diín ka halí?
 QW 2SG.ABS from
 ‘Where are you from?’

Nano kay ‘why’ differs from the rest of interrogative words since it does not replace a noun phrase but an entire clause. It consists of the interrogative pronoun *náno* and the reason particle *kay*.

- (146) Nano kay wara ka kanina?
 Nano kay wara ka kanina?
 QW NEG.EXIST 2SG.ABS earlier
 ‘Why weren’t you here earlier?’

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.

- (147) **Maskí diín** siya magkadtó, kilalá siya sa baryo.
Maski diín 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’

- (148) **Bísan náno** na klase na pagkáon.
Bísan náno na klase na pagkáon
 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.

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

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

- (150) “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. 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.

3.7.1. 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 21. Numeral expressions in Masbatenyo

Numeral	Cardinal	Ordinal	Distributive	Time expression
one	isád/uno	primiro	tig` isád	ala-úna
two	duwá/duhá/dos	ikaduwá	tigduwá	alas-dos
three	tuló/tres	ikatuló	tigtuló	alas-tres
four	upát/kwatro	ikaupát	tig` upát	alas-kwatro
five	lima/singko	ikalimá	tiglimá	alas-singko
six	unóm/sais	ikaunóm	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	pangnapúlò	tignapúlò	alas-dyis
eleven	ónse	pang-ónse	tig` ónse	alas-ónse
twelve	dose	pandóse	tigdóse	alas-dóse
thirteen	trese	pantrese	tigtrese	
twenty	beynte	pambeynte	tigbeynte	
thirty	treynta	pantreynta	tigtreynta	
one-hundred	syin/isád ka gatús		tigsyin	
one thousand	mil/isád ka líbo		tig` isád ka líbo	

Numerals can be classified as:

- (a) **Cardinals**, e.g., *isád* ‘one’, *duwá* ‘two’, *tuló* ‘three’, *napúlò* ‘ten’. The Spanish counting system is also used in this context, especially after *napúlò* ‘ten’, e.g. *uno* ‘one,’ *dos* ‘two,’ *tres* ‘three’ ... *ónse* ‘eleven’;
- (b) **Ordinals**, which consists of the *ika-* or *pang-* series, e.g., *primiro* ‘first’, *ikaduhá* ‘second’ *pangnapúlò* ‘tenth’;
- (c) **Distributives**, which specify how much or how many each. They are affixed by *tig-*. Examples: *tig` isád* ‘one apiece’, *tignapúlò* ‘ten apiece’. The forms can be pluralized by V_{1R} reduplication. Examples: *tigturúlò* ‘three each, *tigrilíma* ‘five each’.
- (d) **Time-expression**, e.g., *ala-úna* ‘one o’clock’, *alas-dyis* ‘ten o’clock’

3.7.2. Plural noun markers

The marker *mga* (pronounced /maŋa/) indicates plurality. It occurs almost always right before the noun as can be seen in (151), although it can be positioned right after the case markers as in (152) and before the modifiers.

- (151) May nakakíta sa íya na tuló na **mga** bátà.
 May n.(p)aka-kíta sa íya na tuló
 EXIST PFV.INTR.STEM-see OBL 3SG.OBL LKR three
 na **mga** bátà
 LKR PL child
 ‘There are three children who saw him.’

- (152) Inbutáng niya an **mga** napudô na piras sa basket.
 In-butáng-Ø niya an **mga**
 PFV-put-TR 3SG.ERG ABS PL
 n.(k)a-pudô na piras sa basket.
 PFV.INTR.STEM-harvest 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.

- (153) **Mga** tuló ka túig na kamí di nagkítà.
mga tuló ka= túig na kamí
 PL three LKR year PRT 1PL.ABS
 di n.(p)ag-kítà
 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 (154-155). Quantifiers such as *damô* ‘many’ and *dyútay* ‘few’ are also used to indicate plurality as in (156). In modifier, the plurality is expressed by the infixation of <*g*> combined with the <V_{IR}> reduplication, as shown in (157).

- (154) **kasagíngan**
ka-saging-an
 COLL-banana-NOM
 ‘banana plantation’
- (155) **kaigmanghúdan**
ka-igmanghúd-an
 COLL-relative-NOM

‘brethren’

- (156) **Damón** pagkáon sa kasál ni Aya.
Damo=(si)n pagkáon
 many=OBL.NONSPEC food
 sa kasál ni Aya
 OBL wedding POSS.PR Aya
 ‘There’s so many food in Aya’s wedding.’

- (157) **Daragkô** na an mga báboy ni Karl.
 D<ar>a<g>ko na an **mga** báboy ni Karl
 big<PL><PL> PRT ABS PL pig POSS Karl
 ‘Karl’s pigs are already big.’

3.7.3. Plural pronominal forms

Pronouns expressed their plurality through their plural forms (see Table 19).

- (158a) Kinúhà niya an basket
 K<in>úha-Ø **niya** an basket
 <PFV>take-TR 3SG.ERG ABS basket
 ‘He took the basket.’

- (158b) Kinúhà ninda an basket
 K<in>úha-Ø **ninda** an basket
 <PFV>take-TR 3PL.ERG ABS basket
 ‘They took the basket.’

3.7.4. Reduplication

V_{IR} reduplication also indicates plurality of arguments (150a-b) and action (151).

- (159a) **Dakô** na an atáman ni Kate.
 Dakô na an atáman ni Kate.
 big PRT ABS pet POSS Kate
 ‘Kate’s pig is big.’

- (159b) **Daragkô** na an **mga** atáman ni Kate.
 D<ar>a<g>ko na an **mga** ataman ni Kate
 big<PL><PL> PRT ABS PL pet POSS Kate
 ‘Kate’s pets are already big.’

(160a) Nagtináwa si Christel.

N.(p)ag-t<in>awa	si	Christel
INTR.STEM<PFV>laugh	ABS.PR	Christel

‘Christel kept on laughing.’

(160b) Nagtinaráwa sinda Christel.

N.(p)ag-t<in><ar>awa	sinda	Christel
INTR.STEM<PFV><PL>laugh	PL.ABS.PR	Christel

‘Christel and company kept on laughing.’

In (159b), the *V_{IR}* reduplication combined with the <g> infixation in *daragko* is in agreement with the plurality of the *baboy* marked by the plural marker *mga*. In (160b), the reduplication agrees with the plural form of the case determiner *si*, i.e. *sinda*.

3.8. 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.

Much recent works on clisis have been devoted to understanding the interplay between the two mutually exclusive dimensions of clitic behavior – phonological and morphosyntactic. 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. In his review of the Philippine and Austronesian clisis, Rosero (2012) has shown that languages of the Philippines tend toward Wackernagel clisis in terms of external ordering. Internal cluster ordering differs from one subgroup to another. Central Philippine subgroup which includes Tagalog, Bikol, Cebuano, and Mansaka, among others exhibit prosodic ordering: if there is a monosyllabic pronoun, it precedes all particles; if there is a disyllabic pronoun, it follows all particles. Central Luzon languages such as Kapampangan and Sambalic languages are governed by case: ergative (or GEN) case strictly precedes absolutive (or NOM) case. Manobo and Atayal languages are influenced by person: third-person clitic pronoun follow first- or second-person clitic pronoun (Billings & Kaufman, 2004).

The clitic particles in Masbatenyo can be classified as pronominal and adverbial particles. 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).

3.8.1. 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 22. Order of clitic particles

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

(160) Díli **ka kuntáni niya** maábtan.

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).

- (161) Warâ **pa man gánì siya** nagahalí.
 Warâ [=pa =man =gánì =siya] n.(p)ag<a>halí
 NEG still even really 3SG.ABS INTR.STEM<IPFV>leave
 ‘He is still not really leaving.’

3.8.2. 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:

- (162) **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 bangkát
 PRT ABS 3SG.POSS basket
 ‘He looked for (it) because there’s a basket missing.’
- (163) Nakakúhà **na** siya sin duwá ka bángkat na piras.
 N.(p)aka-kúhà =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 (162) 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.

- (164) **Adjunct-fronted clauses**
 Didtó **niya** nakuánan na an íya peras...
 Didtó =niya n.(k)a-kuan-an
 DIST.ABS 3SG.ERG PFV.STEM-filler-TR
 na an íya piras
 LKR ABS 3SG.POSS pear
 ‘There he realized that his pears...’

(165) **Negated clauses** (Wolfenden, 2001 in Lee, 2006)Díli **ka** magpáng`onsì sin kaúpod.

Díli	= ka	m.(p)ag-páng`onsì	sin	kaúpod
NEG	2SG.ABS	NEUT.INT.STEM-cheat	OBL	companion

‘Do not cheat your companion.’

(166) Díli **siya** magbúso sa túbig. (Wolfenden, 2001 in Lee, 2006)

Díli	= siya	m.(p)ag-búso	sa	túbig
NEG	3SG.ABS	NEUT.INTR.STEM-dive	OBL	water

‘He must not dive into the water.’

(167) Warâ **man** niya ginhungâ.

Warâ	= man	=niya	gin-hungâ-Ø
NEG.EXIST	PRT	3SG.ERG	PFV-ask-TR

‘He didn’t ask.’

A combination of constructions (Wolfenden, 2001 in Lee, 2006)

(168a) Díli ka ángay magpáng`onsi sin kaupod

Díli	ka	ángay	m.(p)ag-pang`onsi
ought	2SG.ABS	PRT.	NEUT.INTR.DISTR-cheat

sin kaúpod
OBL companion
‘You ought not to cheat your companion.’

(168b) *Ángay díli ka magpáng`onsi sin kaúpod.

*Ángay	díli	=ka	m.(p)ag-páng`onsi	sin	kaúpod.
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 (169a), 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 (169b).

(169a) Díli **ko anay** iatóp 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.’

(169b) Díli =**ko** iatóp anay iní na ímo sim.

[Dili	= ko	i-atóp]	ánay	iní
NEG	1ERG.SG	PRSP.TR-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.’

Table 23 summarizes the clitic placement and distribution in Masbatenyo.

Table 23. 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

3.9. 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 connect the numerical expressions to the entity it modifies.

(170) tuló na bátà
 tulo **na** bátà
 three LKR child
 ‘three children’

(171) isad ka tiklís
 isad **ka** tiklís
 one LKR basket
 ‘one basket’

The non-specific case marker *sin* can also be used as linker in phrases that express measurement, time and quality.

(172) isád sin hápon
 isád **sin** hápon
 one LKR afternoon
 ‘one afternoon’

- (173) Nag` eskwela kamí sin maáyo
 N.(p)ag` eskwela kamí sin maáyo
 PFV.INTR.STEM-go.to.school 1PL.ABS OBL good
 ‘We studied well.’

3.9.1. 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

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.

3.9.1.1. 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 (174). *O* lays down choices or options (175).

- (174) ilóy kag amà
 ilóy kag amà
 mother CONJ father
 ‘mother and father’
- (175) Nagaduhá-dúhá siya kun mādalágan o díli.
 N.(p)ag<a>duhá~duhá 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. It is a Spanish loanword that is already integrated in Masbatenyo’s lexicon.

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

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

3.9.1.2. 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 24. Semantic Classification of Subordinating Conjunctions

TEMPORAL	CO-VARIATIONAL
Co-occurrence	Condition
Posteriority	Concession
Anteriority	Purpose
Terminal boundary	Reason
Initial boundary	Result

3.9.1.2.1. Temporal Relations

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

- (177) **Hábang** nagalakát, nagiisturyáhan sinda.
Hábang n.(p)ag<a>lakát
 CONJ INTR.STEM<IPFV>walk
 n.(p)ag-í~isturyá-han sinda
 INTR.STEM-IPFV~talk-RCP 3PL.ABS
 ‘While they were walking, they were talking.’

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

- (178) Hálos isad ka adláv **bag`o** siya naglabás
 Hálos isad ka adláv **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.’

- (179) **Paghumán** námon kumáon, maháli na kamí.
Paghumán námon k<um>áon,
 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.’

Túnà ‘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 (180)-(181).

- (180) **Túnà** san pagkatransfer ko didí hastá na nagretire akó, amó là inán subjects ko.
Túnà 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 là 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.’

- (181) Idto na tuló na bátà padáyon man sa paglákát-lakátun **hastá** san naabtán ninda idtó na laláki.
 Idto na tuló na bátà padáyon man sa
 DIST.ABS LKR three LKR child continue PRT OBL
 pag-lákát-lakátun **hastá** san
 STEM-DISTR~walk-TR CONJ DIST.OBL
 n.(k)aab(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.’

3.9.1.2.2. *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 clauses 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.

- (182) **Kun** mabalúd an dágat, itlog an ámon surâ
Kun m.(k)a-balúd an dágat, itlog
 CONJ STAT.STEM-wave ABS see egg
 an ámon surâ
 ABS 1SG.POSS viand
 ‘If the sea is violent, our dinner is egg.’
- (183) Pirmí daw po idtó ninda ginahímò **pag** mabót an bangká.
 Pirmí daw po idtó ninda gin<a>hímò
 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.’

Kundî expresses a rather different conditional relation. It denotes that one state of affair is a possible alternative condition of the given state of affair. This form is a combination of *kun* ‘if’ and the negator *di*.

- (184) Warâ siyán mahimúan sa paraiso **kundî** magparapasáway.
 Warâ siya=(si)n
 NEG 3SG.ABS=OBL.NONSPEC
 m.(k)a-himu-an sa paráiso
 NEUT.STEM-do-TR OBL paradise
kundî 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*.

- (185) Damô gayód an mahihímò **ugáling** warán kwarta.
 Damô gayód an m.(k)a-hi~himo
 many really ABS INTR.STEM-PRSP~do
ugáling wará=(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*.

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

- (187) **Máski** 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.

- (188) Nagaparatángis là siya **kay** namimíngaw.
 N.(p)ag<a>para-tángis là 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.*”

Kayâ encodes state of affairs occurring as direct or indirect consequence of the state of affairs of the accompanying clause.

- (189) Warâ pa nag`ulí si Pedro **kayâ** nagparahánap an íya ilóy.
 Warâ pa n.(p)ag-ulí si Pedro **kayâ**
 NEG PRT PFV.INTR.STEM-come.home ABS Pedro therefore

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.’

3.10. 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 STRUCTURE

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) 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 Units²⁰

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 17 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 namudô san | | | |
| | | kay n.(p)am-(p)udô 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.’

²⁰ 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.

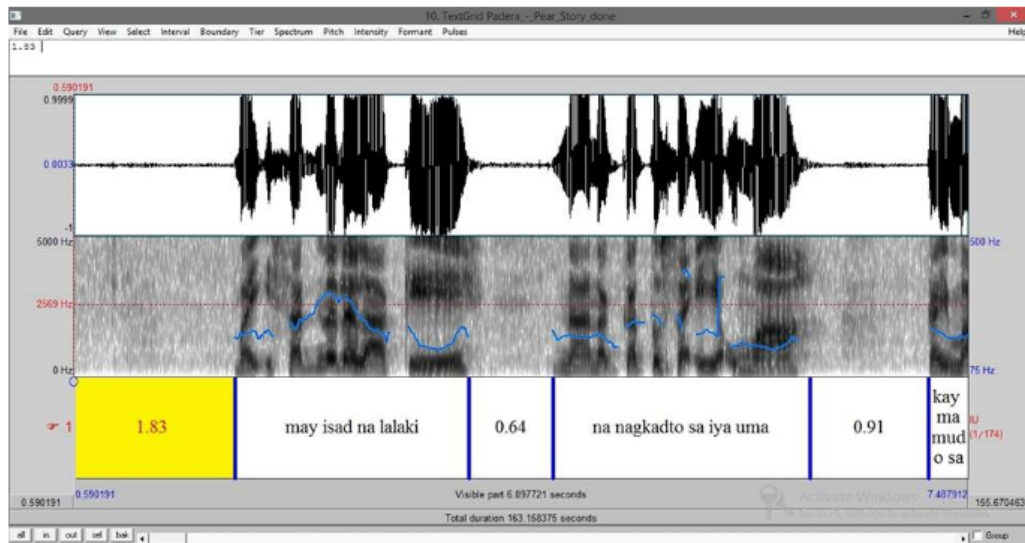


Figure 17. A screenshot of segment (0.00-6.26s) of Padera Pear story text grid annotation in Praat

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 nagpupudô 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.’

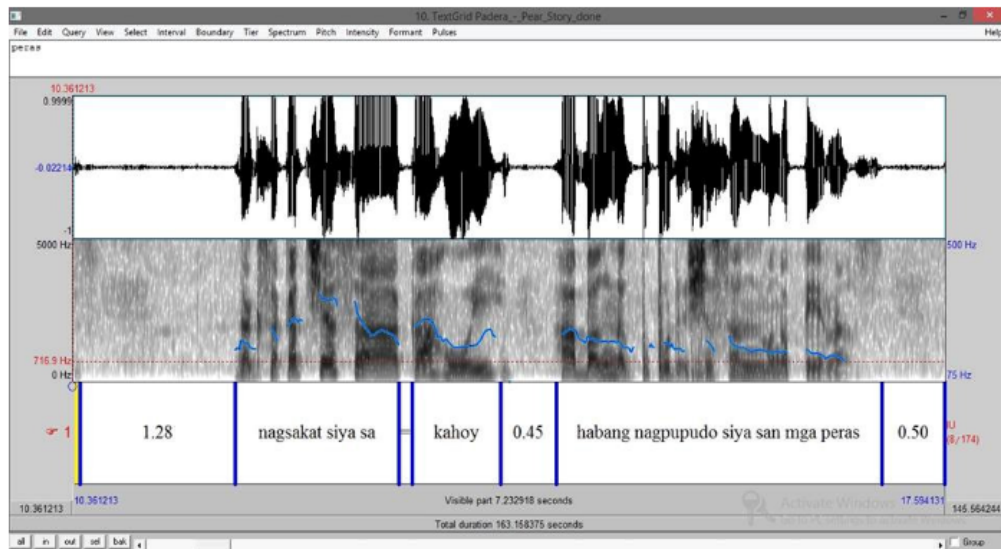


Figure 16. A screenshot of segment (10.42-17.07s) of Padera Pear story

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.'

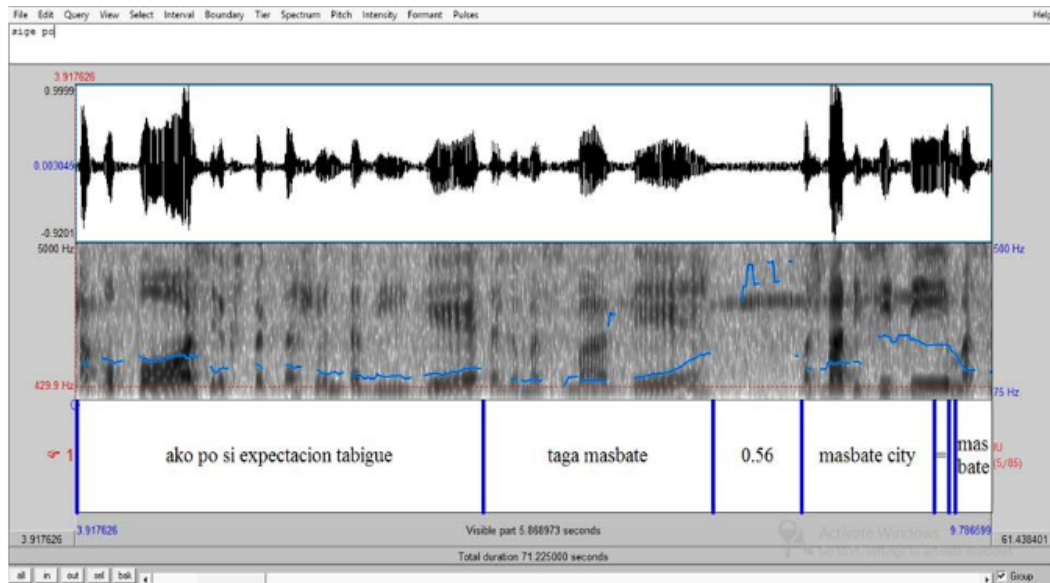


Figure 18. A screenshot of segment (3.93-17.57s) of Tabigue – Self-introduction

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.

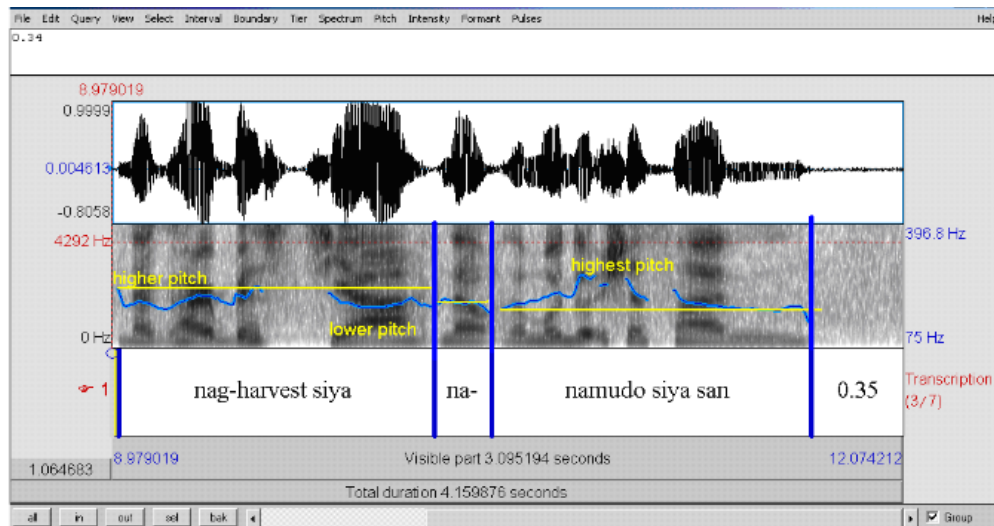


Figure 18. Screenshot of Padera – Pear Story annotation showing changes in pitch

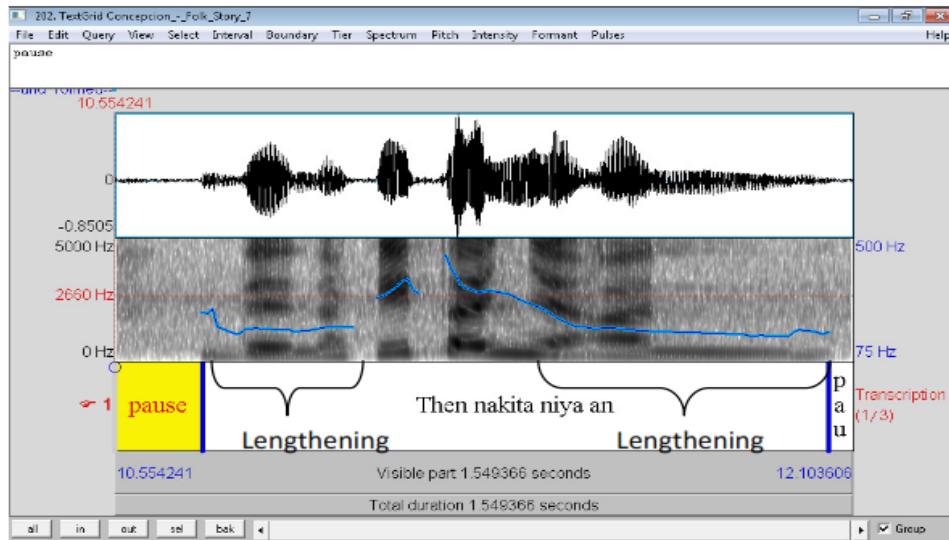


Figure 19. Screenshot of Padera – Pear Story illustrating final element lengthening

4.1.2. Types of Intonation Units

Figure 20 shows the classification of intonation units in Masbatenyo.

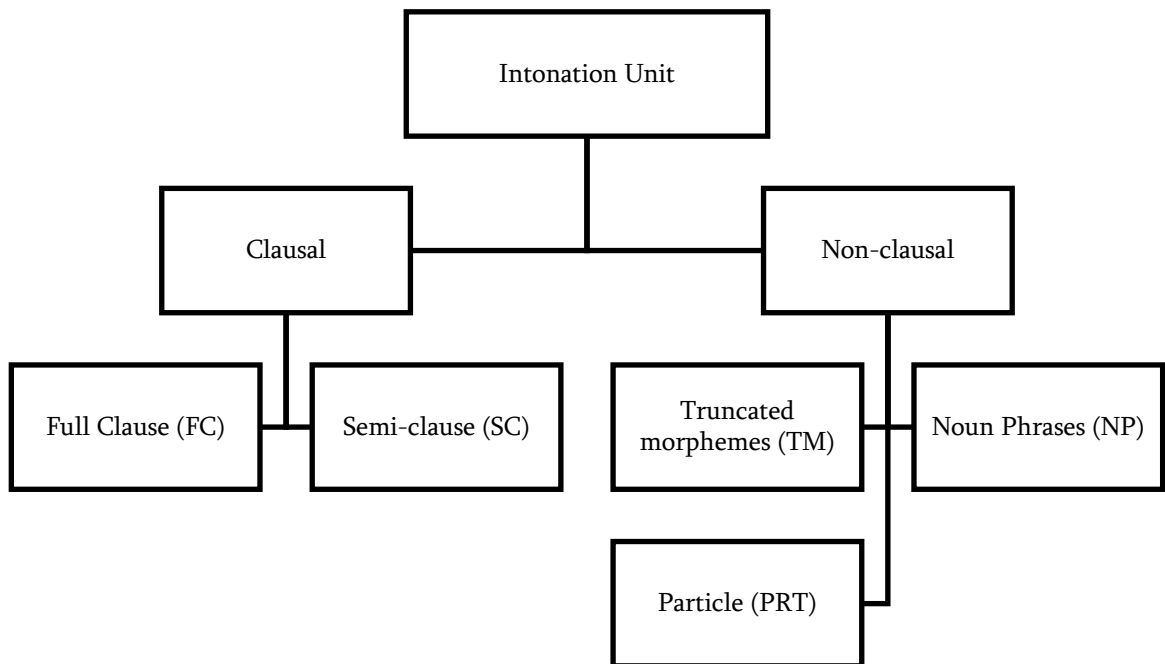


Figure 20. IU types in Masbatenyo

Intonation units can be grouped into clausal and non-clausal types. The presence or absence of a predicate distinguishes one from the other. Table 25 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 25. 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 *nagkataón* 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) **kayâ nagkataón na**
 kayâ n.(p)agkataón 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
 ‘In 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 26 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 27).

Table 26. Frequency of non-clausal IUs in Masbatenyo

NP			PRT				Truncated Morphemes
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 *kayâ*, *tapos*, *pero* that link words phrases and clauses. Clitic particles are adverbial particles such as *na*, *yanâ* negator words such as *dî*. 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 Ginóo
 an ákon pagsirbí sa Ginóo
 ABS 1SG.POSS service OBL Lord

(30) (0.84) na kun díin
 na kun díin
 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 katúig sigúro
 mga trenta i síngko ka=túig sigúro
 PL thirty CONJ five LKR=year perhaps
 ‘... my service to the Lord after thirty years, perhaps.’

4.2. INTONATION UNITS AND MASBATENYO CLAUSE STRUCTURE

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 27 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 27. 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 27 (repeated below) 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.

Table 27. 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

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,
 EXIST.DIST.OBL PRT PRT ABS lying in
 an anákan
 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. They are generally introductory in nature; they introduce new entities to the discourse. Mithun (1994) coined the term *presentative* to describe this function.

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** nakakítà sa iyá na tuló na táwo
may n.(p)aka-kítà 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) nakítà sádto na nagapudô
 n.(k)a-kítà sádto
 PFV.INTR.STEM-see DIST.ERG
 na n.(p)ag<a>pudô
 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 ginakaún sinda**
 o **may gin<a>kaún 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 the nonspecific oblique case marker (54) or a second-position (2P) clitic pronoun (55). It can exist alone as in (56).

- (54) **Igwá** sin bág`o na bádò si Marielle.
Igwá sin bág`o na bádò 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 súkà? **Igwá**.
Igwá kamo=(si)n súkà? **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.²¹ Obliques convey ideas of location, time and possession which existential constructions also assert.

In a recent study, Cano & Uy (2016) concluded that existential clauses in Tagalog follow the structure: *May* + X (S). This structure is similar to the possessive clauses where there the predicate *may* is followed by *roon* or a lexical item (which may or may not be morphologically realized) and a relativized clause. The schema presented above proposed that *may* needs a possessor and the presence or absence of it differentiates the possessive from existential constructions. See the following examples:

- (57a) *May báhay si Chichi.*
 May báhay si Chichi.
 EXIST house ABS Chichi
 ‘Chichi has a house.’
- (57b) *Mayroong (báhay na) binili si Chichi*
 May roon=g (báhay na)
 EXIST DIST.OBL=LKR house LKR
 b<in>ili si Chichi
 <PFV>buy-TR ABS Chichi
 ‘There is a house that Chichi has bought.’

Sentence (57a) is an example of a possessive clause, where *Chichi* is realized as the possessor of *bahay* ‘house’ and is marked as S. Sentence (57b) is an existential clause where the nominal phrase modified by the relative clause is null. The occurrence of the relativized clause is further proof that there is a nominal after the existential predicate because only an NP can head the relative clause.

In Masbatenyo, the following examples illustrate this.

- (58a) *May baláy si Chichi*
 May baláy si Chichi.
 EXIST house ABS ABS Chichi
 ‘Chichi has a house.’

²¹ Pama & Ponio (2013) forwarded this claim in their investigation of existentials which include presentative, locative and possessive constructions.

- (58a) May (baláy na) ginbakál si Chichi
 May (baláy) na ginbakál-Ø si Chichi.
 EXIST house LKR <PFV>buy-TR ABS Chichi
 ‘There is a house that Chichi has bought.’

Unlike Tagalog, however, Masbatenyo also uses *igwa* to express existence as shown in sentences (59a-b).

- (59a) Igwa sin baláy si Chichi
 Igwa sin baláy si Chichi
 EXIST OBL baláy ABS Chichi
 ‘Chichi has a house.’
- (59b) Igwa sin (baláy na) ginbakal si Chichi
 Igwa sin (baláy na) gin-bakál-Ø si Chichi
 EXIST OBL baláy LKR PFV-buy-TR ABS Chichi
 ‘There is a house that Chichi has bought.’

Previous analysis of Tagalog existentials described *ng* that follows the existential predicate as a linker. Sabbagh (2009) claimed that this linker is the same that is found with NPs that co-occur with a modifier. However he also remarked that there is no obvious modifier of the existential predicate’s internal argument. Further, the nominal phrase that follows the existential predicate is uninflected for case. Cano & Uy (2016), in their analysis of Tagalog and Kapampangan existentials, proposed that *ng* is a case marker that inflects the X or the lexical item following the predicate of the existential clause for oblique case. Masbatenyo exhibits this more clearly. As shown in (59a-b), the non-specific oblique marker *sin* follows the existential predicate *igwa*. It marks *baláy* as oblique.

Another operation involved in the existential clauses is the raising of an argument when a sentence or clause is merged with the existential predicate. When a sentence or a clause is attached to the existential predicate, the A (ergative) argument is raised into the S (absolutive) position. Take the following examples.

- (60a) Ginbakal ni Chichi an baláy.
 Gin-bakal-Ø ni Chichi an baláy.
 PFV-buy-TR ERG Chichi ABS house
 ‘Chichi bought the house.’
- (60b) May balay na ginbakal si Chichi
 May balay na gin-bakal-Ø si Chichi
 EXIST house LKR PFV-bakal-TR ABS Chichi
 ‘There is a house that Chichi has bought.’

As shown in (60a-b), the case marking of *Chichi* changes from ergative (60a) to absolutive (60b) when sentence (60a) is attached to the existential predicate.

4.3.6. Possessive clauses

Possessive clauses are those whose predicate asserts the possession of one thing 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 (61). These arguments, although they are in 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.

- (61) **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 (62) and (63).

- (62) **Kan Lolo Windolo** *inâ* na *sundáng*.
Kan **Lolo Windolo** *inâ* na *sundáng*
 OBL.PR Lolo Windolo MED.ABS LKR bolo
 ‘That bolo is Lolo Windolo’s.’
- (63) **Sa kandá** Kapitan an *baláy* na *inâ*.
Sa **kandá** Kapitan an *baláy* na *inâ*
 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 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.

- (64) Kadaragkô man sinâ na okra!
 Ka-d<ar>a<g>kô man sinâ 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 (64-65); (b) alternative questions (66); (c) confirmation questions (67-68); (d) information questions, also called question word questions (69-70) and (e) echo questions (71-72).

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.

- (64) Máuli ka?
 M.(k)a-ulì ka?
 PRSP.INTR.STEM-come.home 2SG.ABS
 ‘Are you coming home?’
- (65) Máuli ba kamó sa Abril?
 M.(k)a-ulì 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.

- (66) Mákaon ba kamo o **dilì**?
 M.(k)a-kaon ba kamó o **dilì**?
 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*, *dilì ba* (*or di bayâ*), etc in confirmation questions. *Dilì ba* always takes a rising intonation pattern.

- (67) Máuli kamó sa Abril **dilì ba**?
 M.(k)a-ulì kamó sa Abril, **dilì ba**?
 PRSP.INTR.STEM-come.home 2PL.ABS OBL April NEG PRT
 ‘You’re coming home this April, right?’

- (68) Mauli 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).

- (69) **Sin`o** ka?
Sin`o ka?
 who 2SG.ABS
 ‘Who are you?’

- (70) **Náno** inà?
Náno inà?
 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.

- (71) Tatay mo **sin`o?**
 Tatay mo **sin`o?**
 father 2SG.ABS who
 ‘Your father is who?’

- (72) Mākádto ka **diín?**
 M.(p)a-kadto ka **diín?**
 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 (72-73); and b) a nominalization (IUs 74-75). The clause (72) *na nangúha sin usád na-* modifies *idtó* and restricts its meaning to ‘the one who picked one basket of pears’. In (73), *na nagapudô* modifies *sadtó*, restricting

its meaning to ‘that someone who is picking pears’. Meanwhile, the word *bitbít* (75) and *ginakaún* (76) are relativized nominalized verbs that modify the anaphoric argument of the existential construction in IU (76). They restrict the meaning of the said argument to ‘the ones who are carrying something’ and ‘the ones who are eating something’.

- (73) (0.49) Naghalí na idtó **na nangúhà 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.’
- (74) (0.08) nakíta sádto **na nagapudô**
 n.(k)a-kita sádto
 PFV.INTR.STEM-see DIST.ERG
 [na **n.(p)ag<a>pudô**]_{REL}
 LKR INTR.STEM<IPFV>pick
- (75) (0.14) na may **bitbít**
 na may [bitbít]_{REL}
 LKR EXIST thing.to.be.lifted
- (76) (0.03) o may **ginakaún sínda**
 o may [gin<a>kaún sínda]_{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 (73) and (74) but it can be also ‘headless’, as shown in (75) and (76) repeated as (77) and (78) below.

- (77) (0.14) na may (piras na) **bitbít**
 na may [bitbít]_{REL}
 LKR EXIST thing.to.be.lifted
- (78) (0.03) o may (piras na) **ginakaún sínda**
 o may [gin<a>kaun sínda]_{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 (77)-(78) 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 world) 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 *kadtuón*) and the S or A is in the second person form (*ka* and *mo*), as shown in (79) and (80).

- (79) 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.’

- (80) Tanda**án** mo kag masd**án**, inâ mamamatáy.
 Tanda-**an** mo kag mas(i)d-**an**
 take.note-IMP.TR 2SG.ERG CONJ watch-IMP.TR
 inâ 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*.

- (81) 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.’

- (82) Tanda**i** kag masd**i**, inâ mamamatáy.
 Tanda-**i** kag masd-**i**,
 take.note-IMP.TR CONJ watch-IMP.TR
 inâ m.(k)a-ma~-matáy
 MED.ABS INTR.STEM.PRSP~die
 ‘Take note and watch, that (thing) will die.’

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

- (83a) **Magkaón** ka na.
 M.(p)ag-kaón ka na
 IMP.INTR.STEM-eat 2SG.ABS PRT
 ‘(Please) eat.’

- (83b) **Pagkaón** na.
Pag-kaón 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.

- (84) **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 *tábì* ‘please’ and/or stem-forming polite affix *paki-*.

- (85) Makiabót tábì san bag ko.
 M.(p)aki-abót **tábì** san bag ko
 NEUT.INTR.STEM-get please OBL bag 1SG.POSS
 ‘Please get my bag.’

- (86) Makiági **tábì**.
 M.(p)aki-agi **tábì**
 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 (87), the clause *mābalík ka pa* functions like an oblique of the complement taking intransitive verb *nagláom*. In (88), the clause *matíbay ka magbasketball* functions as the O of the complement taking transitive verb *sinábi*.

- (87) Nagláom siya **na mābalík ka pa**.
 N.(p)ag-laom 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.’

- (88) 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), and contrastive focus constructions (85); and question (85); (b) oblique/adjunct fronting; and (c) pronominal preposing.

The following discussion enumerates the types of preposed constructions in Masbatenyo. In the examples below, the first bracketed portion in each sentence is the focused element. The second bracketed portion describes, identifies or assigns a value to it.

Cleft constructions are defined by Lambrecht (2001) as “the expression of a single proposition via bi-clausal syntax”. They are derived from simple declarative clauses where the nominal marked by absolutive case is fronted.

- (89) Cleft Construction
 (0.51) **Akó** po an úna-una nagsulód
 [**Akó**]_{CLEFT} po an úna ~úna
 1SG.ABS PRT ABS INTSV~first
 n.(p)ag-sulód
 PFV.INTR.STEM-go.inside
 ‘I was the very first to go inside.’

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.

- (90) Contrastive 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.’

Question clauses such as in (90) are also a type of preposed constructions; the question word being the preposed element and the second NP a determiner-headed relative construction.

(91) Question

Sin`o an maguráng sa iyó na magmaránghod?

[**Sin`ó**]_{QW} an maguráng sa iyó na
QW ABS old OBL 3SG.OBL LKR

m.(p)ag-m<ar>anghod?

STAT.STEM<PL>sibling

‘Who is older among your siblings?’

Oblique clauses are also fronted to introduce new information or to set the time or place in a discourse narrative as seen in (92).

(92) 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 elder

‘Once upon a time, the elders say ...’

The movement of clitics also re-structures the basic word order, as evidenced by the preposing of pronominal in (93) and the movement of clitic particles in (94).

(93) 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.’

(94) Clitic Movement

(0.7) Dì ko po idtó makalimútan na pangyayári

Dì 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.’

An argument can occur in a pre-predicate slot under certain pragmatic conditions, namely: a) clitic position and movement in a clause (93-94); b) setting the scene or theme in a discourse narrative (i.e. introduction of new themes, change in scene or theme) as shown in (95); c) listing of information (i.e. new information usually appears at the beginning of the clause) as in (96); d) signaling exclusivity or contrast as shown in (97).

(95) 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
twentyPRT	1PL..ABS	LKR	PFV.INTTR.DIST-give.birth	

‘That date, January 21, 1997, there were 20 of us who gave birth.’

(96) 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 là niya

an	isád	gina-butáng-an	pa	là	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.’

(97) 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*, *dili*, *ayáw*, *habú* are used as negators. They are positioned before the negated predicate or noun phrase.

- (98) **Wará** po sadtó didí san mga public – ay private clinic.
Wará po sadtó didí
 NEG PRT DIST.OBL PROX.OBL
 san mga public
 OBL PL public
- (1.17) ay private clinic
 FILL private clinic
 ‘There were no public – private clinics then.’
- (99) (0.16) na sayáw **dfli** lang sa Masbate ginásayáw
 na sayáw **dfli** lang sa Masbate
 LKR dance NEG PRT OBL Masbate
 gin<a>sayáw
 TR<IPFV>dance
 ‘dance that not being only danced in Masbate.’

Existential clauses, locative constructions and imperatives have special negative forms. Existential and locative constructions use the particle ‘*wará*’ in place of *may*, *igwá* and *áda/adtó/ádi*.

- (100a) May táwo sa baláy.
 May táwo sa baláy
 EXIST man OBL house
 ‘There’s someone inside the house.’
- (100b) **Wará** sin táwo sa baláy.
Wará sin táwo sa baláy
 NEG OBL man OBL house
 ‘There’s no one inside the house.’
- (101a) Igwá siya sin kanáman.
 Igwá siya sin kanáman
 EXIST 3ABS OBL toy
 ‘He has a toy.’
- (101b) **Wará** siyan kanáman.
Wará siya=(si)n kanáman
 NEG 3SG.ABS=OBL.NONSPEC toy
 ‘He doesn’t have a toy.’

(102a) **Adtó** sa íya an libro ko.

Adtó	sa	íya	an	libro	ko
LOC	OBL	3SG.POSS	ABS	book	2SG.POSS

‘She has my book.’

(102b) **Warâ** sa íya an libro ko.

Warâ	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*’.

(103a) **Kaóna** inâ.

Kaon-a	inâ
eat-IMP.TR	DIST.ABS

‘Eat that.’

(103b) **Ayáw** inâ pagkaóna.

Ayáw	inâ	pagkaón-a
NEG	MED.ABS	STEM-eat-IMP.TR

‘Don’t eat that.’

Habû is used as negator of the stative verb *gustó*.

(104a) **Gustó** ko an Mountain Dew.

Gustó	ko	an	Mountain Dew
STAT	1SG.ERG	ABS	Mountain Dew

‘I want Mountain Dew.’

(104b) **Habû** na ako san Mountain Dew.

Habû	na	ako	san	Mountain Dew
NEG	PRT	ABS	OBL	Mountain Dew

‘I don’t want Mountain Dew anymore.’

4.5. SUMMARY

This research appeals to the 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 as 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, the following objectives have been set: (1) to describe the language based on the actual spoken language; and (2) to depart from the traditional analyses done in the previous studies by providing alternative analyses on the issues found in Philippine languages.

This paper is the first to make a detailed description of the Masbatenyo grammar after Wolfenden's (2001) 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; Cena, 1977; De Guzman, 1988) 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.

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APPENDIX A
TRANSLATION OF CONSTANTINO's 500 Wordlist

	English	Filipino	Masbatenyo
001	adze	daras piko	[ˈpɪ.kə]
002	alive	buhay	[bʊ.ˈhɑj]
003	all	lahat	[ta.ˈnan]
004	and	at	[kag]
005	anger	galit	[ʔʊ.ˈrɪt]
006	animal	hayop	[ˈha.jəp]
007	ankle	bukung-bukong sakong	[tɪ.ˈkɔd]
008	ant	langgam	[hʊr.ˈmɪ.gas]
009	arm	bisig	[bʊt.ˈk ʊn]
010	armpit	kili-kili	[kɪ.lɪ.kɪ.lɪ]
011	arrow	palaso pana	[ˈpa.naʔ]
012	ashes	abo	[a.ˈb ʊ]
013	at	Sa	[sa]
014	awake	gising	[ma.ˈta]
015	back	likod	[lɪ.ˈkɔd]
016	bad	masama	[ma.ˈla.ʔɪn]
017	bald	kalbo	[kal.bə]
018	bamboo	kawayan buho	[ka.ˈwa.jan]
019	bark (tree)	balat ng kahoy	[ba.ˈrɔk]
020	bear, suffer	tiis	[ˈtɪ.ʔʊs]
021	beard	balbas	[bar.ˈbas]
022	beautiful	maganda	[ma.gan.ˈda]
023	belly	tiyan	[tɪ.ˈjan]
024	big	malaki	[da.ˈkuʔ]
025	bile	apdu	[ʔap.dʊʔ]
026	bird	ibon	[sa.ˈpat]
027	bitter	mapait	[ma.pa.ʔɪt]
028	black	itim, maitim	[ʔɪ.ˈtʊm], [ma.ʔɪ.ˈtʊm]

029	blade/ sharpness	talim	[ta.'rom]
030	blind	bulag	[bu.'ta]
031	blood	dugo	[du.'goʔ]
032	body	katawan	[ˈla.was]
033	bone	buto (also, seed)	[pi.'sug]
034	boy (young m., not son)	batang lalaki	[la.la.kɪ]
035	brain	utak	[ˈʔu.tak], [ˈʔu.tuk]
036	branch	sanga	[sa.' . ' a]
037	breast	suso	[ˈdu.du]
038	bright	maliwanag	[ma.'pa.waʔ]
039	brother-in-law	bayaw	[ba.'jaw]
040	bundle, belt	bigkis	[big.'kis], [bu.'tuk]
041	butterfly	paruparo	[ʔa.lɪ.'ba.' . 'ba.' . ']
042	buttocks	puwit, puwitan	[bu.'bət]
043	catch, apprehend	dakip	[da.'kup]
044	charcoal	uling	[ˈʔu.rɪ.' . ']
045	cheek	pisngi	[pis.' . ' rʔ]
046	chest	dibdib	[dʊg.'han]
047	chick	sisiw	[pi.'suʔ]
048	chicken	manok	[ma.'nək]
049	chief	pinuno puno (also, tree)	[ˈda.tə], [ha.'rɪ.gɪ], [ˈhɪ.pɪ]
050	child (young)	anak	[ʔa.'nak], [ˈba.taʔ]
051	chin	baba	[ˈba.baʔ], [su.la.' . '], [ˈsu.laj]
052	clean	malinis	[ma.'lɪ.nɪs], [ˈlɪm.pjɔ]
053	cloud	ulap	[dam.'pɔg]
054	cockroach	ipis	[kʊ.'ra.tsa.]
055	coconut	niyog	[lu.'bɪ]
056	coconut grater	kudkuran	[ka.'gʊ.dan]
057	coconut milk	gata	[ga.'taʔ]
058	cold (objects)	malamig	[ma.'tʊg.naw]
059	cold (weather)	maginaw malamig	[ma.'hag.kət]
060	corpse	bangkay	[ˈpa.taj]
061	cousin	pinsan	[par.'tɪ.dɔs], [pɪr.mə]

062	crocodile	buwaya	[bu.'wa.ja]
063	crow	uwak	[ʔu.wak]
064	curly hair	kulot	[ku.ru.'ɔ]
065	dark, dim	madilim	[ma.du.'lum]
066	day (12 or 24 hrs)	araw (also, sun)	[ad.'law]
067	daytime (not night time)	umaga	[ʔa.ga]
068	deaf	bingi	[bu.'.'ɔl]
069	debt	utang	[ʔu.'ta.'ɔ]
070	deep	malalim	[ma.da.'lum]
071	deer	usa	[ʔu.sa]
072	demolish	giba	[ru.'baʔ], [rug.'mɔk]
073	dew	hamog	[tun.'ʔɔg]
074	dirty	marumi	[ma.ʔa.'tɪʔ]
075	dog	aso	[ʔi.duʔ], [ʔa.jam]
076	door	pinto	[pwer.'ta], [si.'ra]
077	downward	pababa	[pa.ʔu.bɔs]
078	dream	panaginip	[dam.gu]
079	dry (substance)	tuyo	[ma.raʔ]
080	dull (knife)	mapurol	[.'.'a.'ɔl]
081	dumb (mute)	pipi	[ʔa.'paʔ]
082	dust	alikalok alabok	[ʔal.'pɔg]
083	ear	tainga	[ta.'li.'.'a]
084	earth (soil)	lupa	[.'du.taʔ]
085	earwax	tutuli	[tu.'li]
086	edible, climbing plant from fleshy root stock	ube	[ʔu.bi]
087	eel	igat (freshwater) palos (saltwater)	[pa.'lɔs]
088	egg	itlog	[ʔit.'lɔg]
089	eggplant	talong	[ta.'r u.'ɔ]
090	eight	walo	[.'wa.lu]
091	elbow	siko	[.'si.kɔ]
092	ember, hot coal	baga	[.'ba.ga]
093	erection	latug	[ʔu.tug]

094	evening	gabi	[gab.ʔɪ]
095	excrement	dumi tae	[ʔu.ʔduʔ]
096	eye	mata	[ma.ʔta]
097	eyebrow	kilay	[ʔki.raj]
098	face	mukha	[baj.ʔhɔn]
099	far	malayo	[ha.ra.ʔj uʔ]
100	fast	mabilis	[ma.dag.ʔmɪt]
101	fat (substance)	taba	[ta.ʔbaʔ], [ma.ta.ʔbaʔ]
102	father	ama	[a.ʔmaʔ]
103	father/mother-in-law	biyenan	[ʔu.ʔga..ʔan]
104	feather (large)	balahibo (fur, fine hair)	[ba.ra.h i.bu]
105	fence	bakod	[ku.ʔdal]
106	few	kaunti iilan	[dju.ʔtaj]
107	fin	palaypay palikpik	[pa.ʔrik.pɪk]
108	finger	daliri	[tud.ʔl uʔ]
109	finger nail	kuko	[ku.ʔkɔ]
110	fire	apoy	[ka.ʔla.ju]
111	first	una	[ʔu.na], [pri.ʔme.rɔ]
112	firstborn	panganay	[pa.ʔ.ʔa.naj]
113	fish	isda	[ʔɪs.ʔdaʔ]
114	five	lima	[li.ʔma]
115	flatulence	utot	[ʔu.ʔtɔt]
116	flood	baha	[ba.ʔhaʔ]
117	flower	bulaklak	[ʔbu.rak]
118	fly (the insect)	langaw (small) bangaw (big)	[ʔla..ʔaw]
119	foam	bula	[bu.ʔraʔ]
120	fog	ulop abuabo	[ʔa.lu.ʔp u.ʔɔp]
121	foot	paa	[ti.ʔɪl]
122	forehead	noo	[ʔag.ʔta.ʔ]

123	foul-smelling	mabaho	[ma.'ba.huʔ]
124	four	apat	[ʔu.'pat]
125	fragrant	mabango	[ma.'h u.mət]
126	frog	palaka	[pa.'kaʔ]
127	full (after eating)	busog	[bu.'sɔg]
128	full (not empty)	puno	[pu.'n uʔ]
129	fur	balahibo	[ba.ra.'hi.bu]
130	garden	halamanan	[har.'dɪn]
131	gills	hasang	[ˈha.sa.ˈ]
132	ginger	luya	[ˈlu.ja]
133	girl	batang babae	[ba.'ba.jɪ]
134	god	bathala	[dʒus]
135	gold	ginto	[ˈʔɔ.rɔ]
136	good	mabuti	[ma.'b u.ʔət], [ma.'ʔa.ju]
137	goodbye	paalam	[ˈba.baj]
138	grass	damo	[di.ˈ.'hət]
139	gray hair	uban	[ˈʔu.ban]
140	guts	laman-loob	
141	hair	buhok	[bu.'hək]
	cowlick	puyo	
142	hand	kamay	[ka.'mut]
143	hard	matigas	[ma.tu.'gas], [ma.'tig.ʔa]
144	he	siya (he, she)	[si.'ja]
145	head	ulo	[ˈʔu.lɔ]
146	healthy	malusog	[ma.'pa.waʔ]
147	heart	puso	[pu.'sɔʔ]
148	heavy	mabigat	[ma.bug.'ʔat]
149	here	dito	[di.'dɪ]
150	high tide	taog	[ˈta.ʔub]
151	hole (esp. in ground)	butas hukay	[lu.'h uʔ], [lu.sat], [lus.'bət]
152	hot	mainit	[ma.'ʔi.nit]
153	house	bahay	[ba.'laj]
154	how	paano	[pan.'ʔu]
155	how many?	ilan	[pi.'ra]

156	how much?	magkano	[pi.'ra]
157	hungry	gutom	[gu.'tɔm]
158	husband	asawa (spouse) tao	[ʔa.'sa.wa]
159	I	ako	[ʔa.ku]
160	image	larawan	[bul.'tɔ], [ʔi.'ma.hm]
161	intestines	bituka	[ti.'na.ʔi]
162	island	pulo	[pu.'lɔʔ], [pu.'rɔʔ]
163	itch	kati	[ka.'tɔl]
164	jaw	panga	[pa.'.'a]
165	kiss	halik	[ha.'r uk]
166	knee	tuhod	[.'tu.hɔd]
167	lake	lawa	
168	last	huli	[ʔur.'hi]
169	lastborn	bunso	[pu.'t u]
170	later	mamaya	[ta.ʔud.ta.ʔud], [tad.'ta.ʔud]
171	leaf	dahon	[.'da.hɔn]
172	leak, drip, rain	tulu	[tu.'rɔʔ]
173	left (hand)	kaliwa	[wa.'la]
174	leg	binti	[ba.'ti.ʔis]
175	lie (falsehood)	kasinungalingan	[.'bu.waʔ], [ka.bu.'wa.ʔan]
176	light	magaan(g)	[ma.ga.'ʔan]
177	lightning	kidlat	[kid.'lat], [ki.'lat]
178	lip	labi bibig (mouth)	[.'a.'wit]
179	liver	atay	[ʔa.'taj]
180	long	mahaba	[ha.la.'baʔ]
181	loose	maluwang maluwag	[.'law.law]
182	louse	kuto	[.'ku.tɔ]
183	love charm	gayuma	[ga.'ju.ma]
184	lungs	baga	[.'ba.gaʔ]
185	man (male)	lalaki	[la.'la.ki]
186	many	marami	[da.'muʔ]
187	mat (for floor)	banig	[ba.'nig]
188	meat (flesh)	karne	[.'kar.ne],

		laman (also, contents)	
189	medicine	gamut	[bu.'l u.']
190	melt	tunaw	[tu.'naw]
191	middle	gitna	[tu.'.'aʔ]
192	milk	gatas	['ga.tas]
193	moon	buwan (also, month)	['bu.lan]
194	mosquito	lamok	[la.'muk]
195	moss	lumot	['lu.mot]
196	mother	ina, nanay	[ʔi.'ləj]
197	mountain	bundok	['bu.kid]
198	mouth	bibig	[bi.'big]
199	mud	putik	['la.puk]
200	nail (finger or toe)	kuko	[ku.'kɔ]
201	name	pangalan	[pa.'.'a.ran], ['.'a.ran]
202	nape	batok	[lu.'ʔɔ.']
203	narrow	makitid makipot	[ma.'ki.put]
204	navel	pusod	['pu.sod]
205	near	malapit	[ha.la.'pit]
206	neck	leeg	['li.ʔug]
207	necklace	kuwintas	[ku.'lm.tas]
208	needle	karayom	['da.gom]
209	nest (as bird's)	pugad	[ʔit'.lu.gan]
210	net (fishing)	lambat	[lam.'bat]
211	new	bago	['bag.ʔu]
212	night	gabi	[gab.'ʔi]
213	nine	siyam	[sjam]
214	none	wala	[wa.'ra]
215	northeast wind	amihan	[ʔa.'mi.han]
216	nose	ilong	[ʔi.'ru.']
217	not	hindi	['di.li]
218	now	ngayon	[su.'gad], [ja.'naʔ]
219	octopus	pugita	[pu.'gi.ta]
220	often	madalas	['pir.mi]

		malimit	
221	old	luma	[ˈlu.maʔ]
222	once	minsán	[ˈmin.san]
223	one	Isa	[ʔi.ˈsad]
224	one hundred	isang daan	[ʔu.sad ka ga.tus]
225	one thousand	isang libo	[ʔu.sad ka li.bu]
226	orphan	ulila	[ʔi.ˈloʔ]
227	other, different	iba	[ʔi.ˈba]
228	outrigger canoe	bangka	[ba.ˈru.tə]
229	outrigger float	katig	[ˈka.tig]
230	over there (far)	doon	[ˈdi.d.tu]
231	paddle (canoe)	sagwan	[bug.ˈsaj]
232	pain	sakit (also, sickness)	[sa.ˈkit]
233	palm (hand)	palad	[ˈpa.lad]
234	penis	ari ng lalaki utin titi buto	[ˈbu.tuʔ]
235	person	tao (also human)	[ˈta.wu]
236	pig	baboy	[ˈba.buj]
237	pillow	unan	ʔu.ˈlu.nan]
238	plant	halaman tanim	[ta.ˈnum]
239	pound, well ground	dikdik	[bal.ˈbag]
240	press with hand or weight	diin	[dʊ.ˈʔɔn]
241	prick, pierce	tusok	[ˈtʊd.lək]
242	pus	nana	[ˈna.naʔ]
243	rat	daga	[ʔi.ra.ˈga], [ja.ˈtət]
244	red	pula	[pu.ˈla]
245	rib	tadyang	[ˈgu.sək]
246	right (correct)	tama	[ˈta.maʔ]
247	right (hand)	kanan	[tu.ˈʔɔ]
248	rinse	banlaw	[ban.ˈlaw]
249	river	ilog	[su.ˈbaʔ]
250	road	daan	[ˈda.lan]
251	rock (or boulder)	bato	[ba.ˈtə]

252	roof	bubong	[bu.'bo.·']
253	root	ugat	[ʔu.'gat]
254	rope	lubid	[pi.'sɪʔ]
255	rotten (as fruit)	sira	[si.'raʔ]
256	rotten (log)	bulok	[lub.'ʔɔk]
257	rough	magaspang	[sap.'sap]
258	salt	asin	[ʔa.'sɪn]
259	salty	maalat	[ma.'ʔa.rat]
260	same	tulad katulad	[pa.'re.hɔ], [ʔɪ'.rɔg]
261	sand	buhangin	[baj.'baj]
262	scratch, carving	kamot ukit	[gas.gas], [kam.'bras], [ˈka.rɔt]
263	sea (ocean)	dagat	[ˈda.gat]
264	second	ikalawa pangalawa	[ʔɪ.ka.'du.wa]
265	seed	buto (also, bone)	[pi.'sug]
266	servant	katulong alila	[ka.'bu.lɪg], [su.ru.gu.'ʔɔn]
267	seven	pito	[pi.'tɔ]
268	shadow	anino	[ʔa.'ni.nu], [ʔa.'giw.ʔɪw]
269	shallow	mababaw	[ha.'ma.baw]
270	shark	pating	[pa.'ti.·']
271	sharp (knife)	matalim matalas	[ma.ta.'rum]
272	shore	tabing-dagat dalampasigan katihan	[baj.'baj]
273	short	maliit maikli maigsi pandak	[dʒu.'taj], [pu.'tɔt]
274	shoulder	balikat	[ʔa.'ba.ga]
275	shrimp	hipon	[pa.'sa.jan]
276	sibling (m/f)	kapatid	[ma.·.'hud]
277	sibling's child (m/f)	pamangkin	[pa.'ma.·'.kin]

278	singe	paso	[ˈpa.səʔ]
279	sister-in-law	hipag	[ˈhi.pag]
280	six	anim	[ʔu.ˈnəm]
281	skin (person)	balat	[ˈpa.nit]
282	skull	bungo	[bu.ˈ.ˈʔ], [ʔa.lim.pa.ta.kan]
283	sky	himpapawid langit (also, heaven)	[ˈla.ˈ.ˈit]
284	slave	alipin	[ʔu.ˈri.pən]
285	sleepy	inaantok	[gi.ˈna.pi.raw]
286	slow	mabagal	[ma.ˈhi.naj]
287	small	maliit	[dju.ˈtaj]
288	smoke	usok	[ʔa.ˈsu]
289	smooth	makinis	[ma.ˈju.mək]
290	snake	ahas	[sa.ˈwa]
291	sneeze	bahing	[hat.ˈsi.ˈ], [su.ˈ.ˈ a]
292	soft	malambot	[ma.ˈju.mək]
293	sole	talampakan	[da.pa.da.pa], [ta.ma.kan]
294	some	ilan	[pi.ˈra]
295	soul	kaluluwa	[ka.ˈlag]
296	sour	maasim	[ma.ʔas.ˈləm]
297	southwest wind	habagat	[ha.ˈba.gat]
298	spear	sibat	[ba.ˈ.ˈkaw]
299	species of bats	paniki	[ku.la.lap.nit]
300	spider	gagamba	[ˈla.waʔ]
301	spittle(saliva)	laway dura	[ˈla.waj]
302	squid	posit	[pu.sit]
303	stairs	hagdan	[hag.ˈda.nan]
304	stand up, stature	tindig	[tɪn.ˈdɔg]
305	star	bituin tala	[bi.ˈtu.ʔən]
306	stick (of wood)	patpat	
307	stomach	tiyan	[ti.ˈjan]
308	stone	bato	[ba.ˈtə]

309	storehouse (food)	kamalig	[ka.'ma.lɪg], [bu.'ta..'an]
310	straight	tuwid, matuwid	[ˈta.du.ˈˈ]
311	stretch	unat	[ʔu.'nat]
312	strong	malakas	[ma.'ku.səg]
313	suck	sipsip	[sup.'sup], [su.'jəp]
314	sugarcane	tubo	[tu.'bɔ]
315	sun	araw (also, day)	[ad.'law]
316	sweet	matamis	[ma.tam.'ʔɪs]
317	swollen	maga	[hu.'bag]
318	tail	buntot	[ˈʔɪ.kɔg]
319	tall	matangkad	[ha.ta.'ʔas]
320	tear (from crying)	luha	[ˈlu.ha]
321	ten	sampu	[na.'pɔ.luʔ]
322	termites	anay	[ˈʔa.naj]
323	testicle	bayag	[ba.'jag]
324	thank you	salamat	[sa.'la.mat]
325	that (far)	iyon	[ʔɪd.'tɔ]
326	that (near)	iyon	[ʔɪ.'naʔ]
327	there (near)	diyan	[di.'daʔ]
328	they	Sila	[ˈsm.da]
329	thick	makapal	[dak.'mɔl]
330	thigh	hita	[ˈhi.taʔ]
331	thin	manipis	[ma.nɪ.'pɪs]
332	thin (human)	payat	[ma.'nɪ.wa.ˈˈ]
333	third	ikatlo pangatlo	[ʔɪ.ka.'tu.lɔ]
334	thirsty	uhaw	[ʔu.'haw]
335	this	ito	[ʔɪ.'nɪ]
336	thorn	tinik (also, fishbone)	[tu.'nɔk], [bu.'kɔg]
337	thou/you	ikaw	[ʔɪ.'kaw]
338	three	tatlo	[tu.'lɔ]
339	throat	lalamunan	[tu.tun.'lan]
340	thunder	kulog	[da.'lug.dɔg]
341	tight	masikip	[gɔ.'tɔk]
342	to ask	tanong	[hu.'.'aʔ]

343	to awake	gising	[ma.'ta]
344	to be angry	galit	[ʔu.'rit]
345	to bear (child)	anak silang	[ʔa.'nak]
346	to beat (strike)	palo	[ʔpa.lɔʔ]
347	to belch	dighay	
348	to bite	kagat	[ka.'gat]
349	to blow (wind)	hip	[hu.'jup]
350	to boil (intrans.)	kulo	[ka.'lad.kad]
351	to break (as stick)	bali	[ʔba.lɪʔ]
352	to breathe	hinga	[gm.'ha.wa]
353	to bring	dala	[da.'ra]
354	to burn (by itself)	sunog	[ʔsu.nɔg]
355	to bury	baon	[ʔba.lɔn]
356	to bury (the dead)	libing	[lu.'bu.']
357	to buy	bili	[ba.'kal]
358	to call	tawag	[ʔta.wag]
359	to carry	dala buhat	[bit.'bit], [da.'ra]
360	to choose	pili	[ʔpi.lɪʔ]
361	to clean	linis	[ʔli.nɪs]
362	to come	dating	[ʔa.'bɔt]
363	to copulate (human)	talik	[ʔʔɪ.tɔt]
364	to cough	ubo	[ʔu.'bɔ]
365	to count	bilang	[bi.'la.']
366	to cut	putol	
367	to dance	sayaw	[sa.'jaw]
368	to defecate	dumi bawas tae	[ʔu.dɔʔ]
369	to desire	nais nasa	[gus.'tɔ]
370	to die	patay	[pa.'taj]
371	to dig	hukay	[ʔkut.kɔt]
372	to do	gawa	[ʔhi.mɔʔ]
373	to drag	kaladkad	[ba.tak]

374	to drink	inom	[ˈʔi.nəm]
375	to drown	lunod	[ˈlʊ.nud]
376	to eat	kain	[ˈka.ʔən]
377	to fall (drop)	hulog laglag	[ˈhʊ.lɔg]
378	to fear	takot	[had.ˈlʊk]
379	to fight	laban	[ˈʔa.tʊ]
380	to find	hanap	[ˈha.nap]
381	to float	lutang	[lu.ˈta.ˈ]
382	to flow	agos	[ˈʔa.gaj]
383	to fly	lipad	[lu.ˈpad]
384	to forget	limot	[ˈli.mət]
385	to give	bigay	[ˈha.tag]
386	to go	punta	[ˈkad.tɔ]
387	to go down	baba	[ˈlʊ.sad]
388	to go in	pasok	[su.ˈlud]
389	to go out	labas	[la.ˈbas]
390	to go up	akyat	[sa.ˈkaʔ]
391	to hang on, hook something	sabit	[sab.ˈʔit]
392	to hear	kinig	[pa.ˈma.tɪʔ]
393	to hit	tama	[ˈta.maʔ]
394	to hold (in hand)	hawak	[ˈhʊ.jʊt]
395	to hunt (game)	aso	[ˈʔa.jam]
396	to jump (esp. up)	talon	[luk.ˈsu]
397	to kill	patay	[pa.ˈtaj]
398	to know (facts)	alam	[ʔa.ˈram]
399	to laugh	tawa	[ˈta.wa]
400	to lie (on side)	higa	[ˈhɪg.da]
401	to live	buhay	[bʊ.haj]
402	to look	tingin tanaw	[ki.ˈta]
403	to love	ibig mahal	[pa.ˈla.ˈ.gaʔ]
404	to moan	ungol	[dʊ.ˈgɔʔ]
405	to open	bukas	[ab.ˈrɪʔ]
406	to play	laro	[ˈka.nam]

407	to pound	bayo pukpok	[ba.'ju]
408	to pull	hila	['bu.tu.']
409	to push	tulak	['du.su?]
410	to put	lagay	[bu.'ta.']
411	to quarrel	away	['ʔa.waj]
412	to rain	ulan	[ʔu.'ran]
413	to return	balik	[ba.'lik]
414	to rub	kuskos	['kus.kəs]
415	to run	takbo	[da.'la.gan]
416	to say	sabi	[sur.'ma.tən]
417	to scratch (itch)	kamot	[kar.'mət]
418	to see	kita	['ki.ta?]
419	to sell	bili	[ba.'lig.ja?]
420	to sew	tahi	[ta.'hi?]
421	to shout	sigaw	['si.jak]
422	to show	pakita	[pa.'ki.ta]
423	to shower	ambon	
424	to sing	awit kanta	[kan.'ta]
425	to sink (intrans.)	lubog	[lu.'bɔg]
426	to sit	upo	[ʔi.'kɔd]
427	to sleep	tulog	['tu.rɔg]
428	to smell	amoy	[hu.'mɔt]
429	to speak	salita	[is.'tɔr.ja], [sur.'ma.tən]
430	to spit	dura	[lu.'da?]
431	to split	hati	['tu..'a?]
432	to squeeze	piga	['pu.ga?]
433	to stab (or stick)	saksak	[sak.'sak]
434	to stand	tayo	[tin.'dɔg]
435	to steal	nakaw	['ka.wat]
436	to string (as leis)	tuhog	['tu.hɔg]
437	to suck	sipsip	['sup.sup]
438	to swallow	lunok	[tu.'lɔn]
439	to sweat	pawis	[bal.'has]

440	to swell	maga	[hʊ.ˈbag]
441	to swim	langoy	[la.ˈ.ˈɔj]
442	to think	isip	[ˈʔi.sip]
443	to throw	tapon hagis	[pi.ˈlak]
444	to tie	tali	[hi.ˈgət]
445	to vomit	suka	[ˈsʊ.ka]
446	to walk	lakad	[la.ˈkat]
447	to wash	hugas	[ˈhʊ.gas]
448	to weave	habi	[ˈha.bəl]
449	to wipe	pahid punas	[ˈpa.hɪd]
450	to wrap up	ballot	[pu.ˈtəs]
451	today	ngayong araw	[su.ˈgad], [njan]
452	toe	daliri sa paa	[ˈtʊd.lɔʔ]
453	tomorrow the following day	bukas kinabukasan	[bu.ˈwas]
454	tooth (front)	ngipin (all teeth)	[ˈ.ˈ.ˈpən]
455	torch, light	sulo	[si.rɪl.ja]
456	tree	punong-kahoy	[ˈpu.nɔʔ]
457	trunk (of tree)	puno katawan	[ˈla.was san pu.nɔʔ]
458	turtle	pagong	[pa.ˈgɔ.ˈ]
459	twins	kambal	[kam.ˈbal]
460	two	dalawa	[du.ˈwa]
461	ugly	pangit	[ma.ra.ˈʔɔt]
462	upper garment	baro	[ˈba.dʊʔ]
463	upside down, stooping with the head forward	tuwad	[ˈtʊ.wad]
464	upward	pataas paakyat	[pa.ˈta.ʔas]
465	urine	Ihi	[ˈʔi.hɪʔ]
466	vagina	pekpek puki	[pu.ˈtaj]
467	vegetables	gulay	[ˈgu.laj]
468	voice	tinig	[ˈbɔ.ses]

469	war	digma digmaan	[ˈgje.ra]
470	warm (weather) warm and humid	mainit maalinsangan	[ma.ˈʔɪ.nɪt]
471	water	tubig	[ˈtu.bi]
472	water buffalo	kalabaw	[ka.ra.ˈbaw]
473	wave (as surf)	alon	[ba.ˈlud]
474	we (1 st person, pl.)	kami	[ka.ˈmɪ]
475	we (dual, pl.)	tayo	[ki.ˈta]
476	weak	mahina	[ma.ˈlu.ja]
477	wet	basa	[ba.ˈsaʔ]
478	what	ano	[ˈna.nə]
479	wheel	gulong	[gɔ.ma]
480	when	kalian	[ˈsan.ʔɔ]
481	where	saan nasaan	[di.ˈʔɪn], [ˈha.ʔɪn]
482	white	puti	[pu.ˈtɪʔ]
483	who	sino	[ˈsm.ʔɔ]
484	why	bakit	[kaj ˈna.nə]
485	wide	malawak	[ha.ˈla.pad]
486	wife	asawa maybahay	[ʔa.ˈsa.wa]
487	wind (breeze)	hangin	[ˈha..ˈɪn]
488	wine	alak	[ˈʔa.rak]
489	wing	pakpak	[pak.ˈpak]
490	wink	kindat	[km.ˈdat]
491	woman (female)	babae	[ba.ˈba.jɪ]
492	woods (forest)	gubat kagubatan kakahuyan	[ka.ka.ˈhu.jan]
493	woody tendril-bearing vine	gugo	[ˈgu.gɔʔ]
494	worm	uod bulate	[ˈʔu.lɔd], [wa.ˈtɪʔ]
495	wrong	mali	[ma.ˈliʔ]
496	yawn	hikab	[huj.ˈʔab]

497	ye	kayo	[ka.'mʊ]
498	year	taon	[ˈtʊ.ʔɪg]
499	yesterday	kahapon	[ka.'ga.ha.pən]
500	welcome	walang anuman	

APPENDIX B
MASBATENYO MINIMAL PAIRS

1.1. VOWEL LENGTH AND STRESS

1. [bɔ.'hɑj] 'alive'
[bɔ.hɑj] 'life'
2. [sɑ.'pat] 'bird'
[sɑ.pat] 'insect'
3. [pɑ.'kɔʔ] 'wing'
[pɑ.kɔʔ] 'nail'
4. [sɪ.'rɑʔ] 'damaged'
[sɪ.rɑʔ] 'hopefully'
5. [tɔ.'rɔʔ] 'leak (n)'
[tɔ.rɔʔ] 'leak (v)'
6. [pɔ.'nɔʔ] 'full'
[pɔ.nɔʔ] 'tree'

1.2. CONSONANTS

1. [lɪɪ.'kɔd] 'back'
[tɪɪ.'kɔd] 'ankle'
2. [hɑ.jɔp] 'animal'
[hɔ.jɔp] 'to blow'
3. [bɑ.'rɔk] 'not fluent'
[hɑ.'rɔk] 'to kiss'
4. [dɑ.'kɔʔ] 'big'
[dɑ.'mɔʔ] 'many'
5. [tɑ.'rɔm] 'sharpness'
[tɑ.'ru.ɪ] 'eggplant'
6. [lɑ.was] 'body'
[lɑ.waʔ] 'spiderweb'

7. [da.'kop] 'capture'
[da.'koʔ] 'big'
8. ['ba.ka] 'cow'
['ba.la] 'bullet'
['ba.sa] 'to read'
['ba.ga] 'amber'
9. [pa.'jaʔ] 'coconut shell'
[pa.waʔ] 'bright'
10. [ʔi.'doʔ] 'dog'
[ʔo.'doʔ] 'feces'
11. [si.'raʔ] 'damaged'
[so.'raʔ] 'viand'
12. [ma.'ra] 'dry'
[ba.'ra] 'obstruction'
13. ['sa.baʔ] 'to stop crying'
['sa.laʔ] 'sin'
14. [sa.'waʔ] 'sick'
[sa.'kaʔ] 'to climb up'
15. [ba.'haʔ] 'flood'
[pa.'haʔ] 'thirsty'
16. ['si.'hot] 'sniff'
['di.'hot] 'grass'
17. [pa.'a] 'jaw'
[sa.'a] 'branch'
18. ['la.waʔ] 'spiderweb'
['la.waj] 'saliva'
19. ['li.nog] 'earthquake'
['li.ʔog] 'neck'

20. [‘hʊ.naʔ] ‘presumption’
[‘tʊ.naʔ] ‘beginning’

21. [tʊ.ʔ.ʔ.aʔ] ‘half’
[hʊ.ʔ.ʔ.aʔ] ‘to ask’

1.3. VOWELS

22. [‘sap.sap] ‘slipmouth fish’
[‘sʊp.sʊp] ‘to suck’

23. [hʊ.ʔbag] ‘to swell’
[hʊ.ʔbʊg] ‘drunk’

24. [bʊ.ʔtʊ.ʔ] ‘young coconut’
[bʊ.ʔta.ʔ] ‘to put’

25. [bu.ʔwas] ‘tomorrow’
[ba.ʔwas] ‘lessened’

26. [‘di.liʔ] ‘no/not’
[‘di.laʔ] ‘tongue’

27. [‘tʊ.biʔ] ‘water’
[‘tʊ.bi] ‘tuberculosis’

APPENDIX C
ACOUSTIC CORRELATES OF STRESS (MEASUREMENTS)

A. Duration, Pitch, Intensity Measurements of Stressed and Unstressed Syllables

Syllables in bold-faced are stressed

Male	Duration	Intensity	Peak	Pitch	Female	Duration	Intensity	Peak	Pitch
PA	0.239	82	80	129	PA	0.181	76	74	238
Ku	0.306	74	68	103	ku	0.3	68	63	223
Pa	0.097	76	73	110	pa	0.097	77	73	265
KU	0.304	78	73	122	KU	0.402	76	70	270
SA	0.284	83	79	142	SA	0.17	80	77	269
pat	0.291	82	76	119	pat	0.277	72	68	240
Sa	0.121	82	78	124	sa	0.08	76	74	239
PAT	0.294	83	79	135	PAT	0.421	75	71	231
BU	0.311	77	73	132	BU	0.243	72	70	268
Hay	0.451	83	78	122	hay	0.422	76	72	255
Bu	0.144	73	69	108	bu	0.169	73	70	257
HAY	0.396	84	79	121	HAY	0.539	74	73	254
PU	0.244	75	74	130	PU	0.187	72	70	284
No	0.285	74	70	115	no	0.278	68	65	233
Pu	0.109	75	73	120	pu	0.129	74	72	293
NO	0.264	76	73	116	NO	0.415	72	69	261
TU	0.28	75	73	122	TU	0.199	78	73	290
Ro	0.246	74	71	121	ro	0.357	76	71	230
Tu	0.127	74	72	118	tu	0.11	75	72	267
RO	0.261	78	75	121	RO	0.248	74	72	250

B. Observations

	Female	Duration	Intensity	Peak	Pitch	Observation
Stressed	PA	0.181	76	74	238	stressed PA is longer than unstressed pa
Unstressed	Pa	0.097	77	73	265	pa has high intensity and pitch than PA
Stressed	KU	0.402	76	70	270	KU is longer than ku
Unstressed	Ku	0.3	68	63	223	KU is higher in intensity and pitch
Stressed	SA	0.17	80	77	269	SA is longer than sa
Unstressed	Sa	0.08	76	74	239	SA has higher intensity and pitch
Stressed	PAT	0.421	75	71	231	PAT is longer and louder than pa
Unstressed	Pat	0.277	72	68	240	PA has higher pitch than pat
Stressed	BU	0.243	72	70	268	BU is longer and has higher pitch than bu

Unstressed	Bu	0.169	73	70	257	There is no significant difference in intensity between stressed and unstressed
Stressed	HAY	0.539	74	73	254	HAY is longer than hay
Unstressed	Hay	0.422	76	72	255	hay has higher intensity and pitch than HAY
Stressed	PU	0.187	72	70	284	PU is longer than pu
Unstressed	Pu	0.129	74	72	293	PU has higher intensity and pitch
Stressed	NO	0.415	72	69	261	NO is longer than no
Unstressed	No	0.278	68	65	233	NO has higher intensity and pitch than no
Stressed	TU	0.199	78	73	290	TU is longer and has higher pitch than tu
Unstressed	Tu	0.11	75	72	267	TU has higher intensity and pitch than no
Stressed	RO	0.248	74	72	250	RO is longer than ro
Unstressed	Ro	0.357	76	71	230	RO has higher intensity and pitch than ro
Stressed	PA	0.239	82	80	129	stressed PA is longer than unstressed pa
Unstressed	Pa	0.097	76	73	110	PA has high intensity and pitch
Stressed	KU	0.304	78	73	122	There is no significant difference in duration between stressed and unstressed
Unstressed	Ku	0.306	74	68	103	KU is higher in intensity and pitch
Stressed	SA	0.284	83	79	142	SA is longer than sa
Unstressed	Sa	0.121	82	78	124	SA has higher intensity and pitch
Stressed	PAT	0.294	83	79	135	PAT is longer than pa
Unstressed	pat	0.291	82	76	119	PA has higher intensity and pitch than pat
Stressed	BU	0.311	77	73	132	BU is longer than bu
Unstressed	bu	0.144	73	69	108	BU has higher intensity and pitch
Stressed	HAY	0.396	84	79	121	hay is longer and has higher pitch than HAY
Unstressed	hay	0.451	83	78	122	There is no significant difference in intensity between stressed and unstressed
Stressed	PU	0.244	75	74	130	PU is longer than pu and has higher pitch
Unstressed	pu	0.109	75	73	120	There is no significant difference in intensity between stressed and unstressed

Stressed	NO	0.264	76	73	116	<i>no</i> is longer than NO
Unstressed	no	0.285	74	70	115	NO has higher intensity and pitch than <i>no</i>
Stressed	TU	0.28	75	73	122	TU is longer and has higher pitch than <i>tu</i>
Unstressed	tu	0.127	74	72	118	There is no significant difference in intensity between stressed and unstressed
Stressed	RO	0.261	78	75	121	RO is longer than <i>ro</i>
Unstressed	ro	0.246	74	71	121	RO has higher intensity and pitch than <i>ro</i>

APPENDIX D
ACOUSTIC ANALYSIS OF MASBATENYO VOWELS

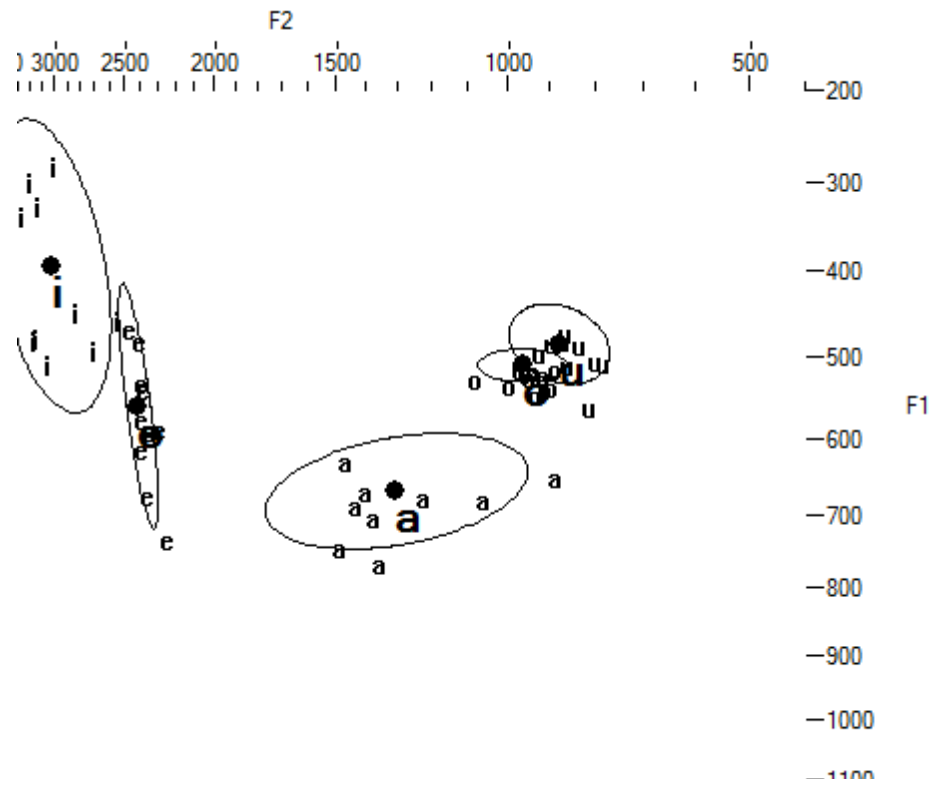
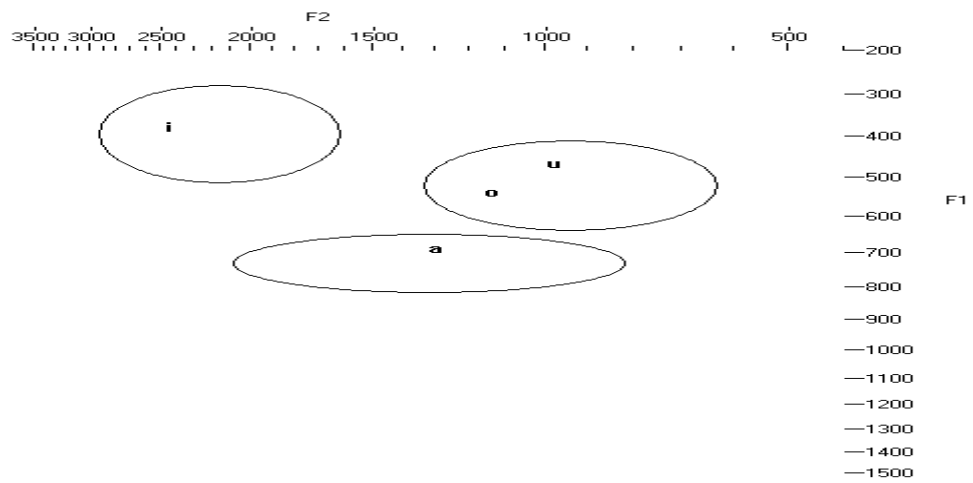


Figure 11.0
Plotted
values of

vowels /a/, /ɨ/, /ɪ/, /ɔ/, and /ʊ/



Plotted average values of vowels /a/, /ɨ/, /ɪ/, and /ʊ/

APPENDIX E
MASBATENYO PEAR STORIES (TRANSCRIPTION AND PARSING)

INFORMANT NO. 1

NAME: Rowena I. Rosero

AGE: 40

OCCUPATION: Plain Housewife

Code: MasTin_F_40

1. [An tawo]_S – [nagkuha]_{PRED} – [nagpanakbat]_{PRED}
ABS N V V
2. [san iya bayabas]_{OBL} [sa puno]_{OBL}
OBL 3OBL N OBL N
3. [Sige] [iya]_S [kapanguha]_{PRED},
CONJ 3ABS V
4. [may]_{PRED} [isad na bata]_S na naglabay]_{MAIN CL} [na
nakabike]_{REL CL}
EXIST NUM LKR N LKR V LKR V
5. [Ginkita]_{PRED} [niya]_A [an tawo]_O [na nagapanguha]_{REL CL}
V 3ERG ABS N LKR V
6. [wara]_{PRED} man [nagakita]_{PRED} [Ø]_{S(an tawo)}
EXIST PRT V ABS
7. [Tapos]_{SUB CL}, [nagbalik]_{PRED} [siya]_S_{IND CL} [kay [makuha]_{PRED} [siya]_S [sin
isad]_{OBL}]_{SUB CL},
CONJ.AFTER V 3ABS CONJ V 3ABS OBL
NUM
[kay kun isad la [an [iya]_{OBL} [kuhaon]_{PRED}
CONJ CONJ NUM PRT OBL OBL V
baga=n [alanganin]_{PRED}]_{SUB CL}
PRT=LKR V
[[kinuha]_{PRED} [niya]_A [an isad ka tiklis]_O]_{MAIN CL}
V 3ERG ABS NUM LKR N
8. [Ginkarga]_{PRED} [niya]_A [Ø]_{O=(isad ka tiklis)} [sa iya bike]_{OBL}
V 3ERG OBL 3OBL N

9. Sige=n [iya]_S [padalagan]_{PRED}]_{IND CL}, [pag-abot]_{PRED} [sa unhan]_{OBL}
 [Ø]_{S=(niya)},
 V=LKR 3ABS V V OBL N
10. [nakasugata]_{PRED} [siya]_S [san bata]_{OBL}]_{IND CL} [na [nagabike]_{PRED}
 otro]_{REL CL}
 V 3ABS OBL N LKR V PRT
11. [San [kakita]_{PRED} [niya]_{SUB CL}, [[napanggkog]_{PRED} [siya]_S [sa
 bato]_{OBL}]_{IND CL},
 OBL V 3ABS V 3ABS OBL N
12. [an [iya bike]_{OBL} [nakabunggo]_{PRED}]_{DPCTV CL}
 ABS 3OBL N V
13. [Natumba]_{PRED} [siya]_S]_{IND CL},
 V 3ABS
14. [nagkaurula]_{PRED} [an [iya]_{OBL} bayabas]_S]_{IND CL} [nga isad ka
 tiklis]_{REL CL}
 V ABS 3OBL N LKR NUM LKR N
15. [May]_{PRED} [nagalarakat]_{PRED} man [na tulo na kabataan]_S]_{REL CL},
 EXIST V PRT LKR NUM LKR N
16. [nakita]_{PRED} [siya]_S, [inburuligan]_{PRED} [siya]_O [Ø]_{A=(san tulo na kabataan)}
 V 3ABS V 3ABS
17. [Inparapamumpon]_{PRED} [Ø]_{A=(san 3 na kabataan)} [an [iya]_{OBL} bayabas]_O]_{IND CL} [na
 nakuha]_{PRED}]_{REL CL}
 V ABS 3OBL N LKR V
18. [sinulod]_{PRED} [Ø]_{A=(ninda)} [Ø]_{O=(piras)} [sa tiklis]_{OBL}]_{IND CL}
 V OBL N
19. [kag [binutang]_{PRED} [Ø]_{A=(ninda)} [Ø]_{O=(piras)} giyapon [sa bike]_{OBL}]_{IND CL}
 CONJ V PRT OBL N
20. [Naglakat]_{PRED} na [an tulo na bata]_S]_{IND CL}
 V PRT ABS NUM LKR N
 [naglakat]_{PRED} man [an bata]_S [na nakabike]_{REL CL}
 V PRT ABS N LKR V

21. [Pag-abot]_{PRED}[Ø]_{S=(siya)} [sa unhan]_{OBL}
V OBL N
22. [nakita]_{PRED} [an kalo]_s [sadto]= [n bata]_{REL CL}
V ABS N DIST.OBL LKR N
23. [binalik]_{PRED} [sadto] man na [bata na isad]_s,
V DIST.ABS PRT LKR N LKR NUM
24. [Sinauli]_{PRED} [Ø]_{A=(bata)} [Ø]_{O=(kalo)}_{IND CL},
V
25. [tapos]_{SUB CL} [tinagaan]_{PRED} [Ø]_{A=(batang nakabisiklita)} [Ø]_{O=(bata na nagbalik san kalo)}_{IND CL}
CONJ V
26. Baga=n [may]_{PRED} [hinatag]_{PRED} [idto]
PRT=LKR EXIST V DIST.ABS
27. [na bata na tulo na bayabas]_{REL CL}_{MAIN CL}
LKR N LKR NUM LKR N
28. [Gintag-irisadan]_{PRED} [ninda]_A [Ø]_{O=(an bayabas)}
V 3ERG.PL
29. [Tapos]_{SUB CL} [nagalakat]_{PRED} na [an tulo na bata]_s
CONJ V PRT ABS NUM LKR N
[pag-abot]_{PRED} [sa unhan]_{OBL} [san sidto]=
V OBL N ABS DIST.AB
30. [n tawo na nagapamudo]_{REL CL}
LKR N LKR V
31. [Naglusad]_{PRED} [an tawo]_s_{IND CL}
V ABS N
32. [Pagkita]_{PRED} [niya]_A [san iya]_{OBL} [ginapanguha]_{PRED} na [bunga]_O_{SUB CL}
V 3ERG ABS OBL V LKR N
33. [Inbilang]_{PRED} [niya]_A [Ø]_{O=(tiklis)}, [kulang na [san isad ka
tiklis]_s_{IND CL}
V 3ERG N PRT ABS NUM LKR N

34. [[Nagtinindog]_{PRED} [siya]_S]_{IND CL}
V 3ABS
35. [nag-inisip]_{PRED} [siya]_S [kun [sino]_S an [nagkuha]_{PRED}]_{COMP CL}
V 3ABS CONJ Q ABS V
36. [may]_{PRED} [tulo na bata]_{S/O} [siya]_A]_{IND CL}
EXIST NUM LKR N 3ABS
37. na [nakita]_{PRED} [na naglabay]_{PRED}]_{REL CL}
LKR V LKR V
38. [Inparasud-ong]_{PRED} man la [idto]_O [niya]_A
V PRT PRT DIST.ABS 3ERG
39. [Wara]_{PRED} man [niya]_A [ginhunga]_{PRED}]_{IND CL}
EXIST PRT 3ERG PRED
40. [kun [sin-o]_S an [nagkuha]_{PRED}
CONJ N ABS V
41. [san iya isad ka tiklis na bayabas]_{OBL}]_{COMP CL}.
OBL 3OBL NUM LKR N LKR N

INFORMANT NO. 2

NAME: Charito R. Blancaver

AGE: 50

OCCUPATION: Elementary School Teacher, Narangasan Elementary School

Code: MasNar_F_50

TRANSCRIPTION

1. [May^{PRED} [usad na tawo]^{OBL}
EXIST NUM LKR N

[na nanguha^{PRED} [Ø]_{S=(usad na tawo)} [sin piras]^{OBL}]^{REL CL}]^{IND CL}.
LKR V.INT ABS OBL N
2. [Nakakuha^{PRED} na [siya]_S [sin duwa ka bangkat na piras]-
OBL]^{IND CL}.
V PRT 3ABS OBL NUM LKR N LKR N
3. [Tapos]_{SUB CL}, [nagsakat^{PRED} [siya]_S [sa ibabaw san kahoy san
piras]^{OBL}]^{MAIN CL}.
CONJ.AFTER V 3ABS OBL N OBL N GEN N
4. [May^{PRED} [umabot^{PRED} [na [usad na bata]^{OBL/S}]^{REL CL}
EXIST V LKR NUM LKR ABS

[na nakabisiklita [Ø]_{S=(usad na bata)}]^{REL CL}]^{IND CL}.
LKR V ABS
5. [Kinuha^{PRED} [Ø]_{A=(san usad na bata)} [an usad ka bangkat]_O -
V 3ERG ABS NUM LKR N

na bangkat - [san piras]^{OBL}]^{MAIN CL}
LKR N OBL N
6. [[habang nasa taas san puno]^{OBL}
CONJ.SIMUL PREP N OBL N

[an tawo]_S [nagapamudo^{PRED}]^{REL CL}]^{SUB CL}
ABS N V
7. - Kag [dinarap^{PRED} [Ø]_{A=(san bata)} [Ø]_{O=(bangkat san prutas)}. [Dinarap^{PRED} [Ø]_A [Ø]_O -
CONJ V V

8. [Kinuha^{PRED} [niya]^A [ini]^O]^{IND CL}
V 3ERG ABS
9. [ginkarga^{PRED} [Ø]^{A=(niya)} [Ø]^{O=(bangkat san prutas)} [sa iya^{OBL} bisiklita]^{OBL}]^{IND CL}.
V 3ERG ABS OBL 3OBL N
10. [Wara=^{NPRED} kalibutan [an tawo]^{OBL} [na [iya]^A
EXIST=LKR N ABS N LKR 3ERG
na ginkarga^{PRED} [Ø]^{O=(ang bangkat san piras)}]^{REL CL}]^{IND CL}
PRT V ABS
11. [Pagkataodtaod]^{SUB CL}, [may^{PRED} kasugat^{PRED} [siya]^{OBL/S}
CONJ.AFTER EXIST V 3ABS

[na [bata na babayi]^s
LKR N LKR N

nakabisiklita^{PRED} man]^{REL CL}]^{MAIN CL}
V PRT
12. [Naganilingi]^{IPRED} [siya]^s [sa bata na babayi]^{OBL}]^{IND CL}
V 3ABS OBL N LKR N
13. [nakabangga]^{RED} [siya]^s [sa usad na bato]^{OBL}]^{MAIN CL}
V 3ABS OBL NUM LKR N
14. [Nagburulag]^{PRED} [an] [iya]^{OBL} piras]^s]^{MAIN CL}
V ABS 3GEN N

[an [iya]^A darap^{PRED} na piras]^o.
ABS 3ERG V LKR N
15. [May^{PRED} nakakita^{PRED} [sa iya]^{OBL} na [tulo na mga
bata]^{OBL/S}]^{IND CL}
EXIST V OBL 3OBL LKR NUM LKR PL N

[na nagakaranam[Ø]^{S=(tulo na bata)}]^{REL CL}
LKR V
16. [Inbuligan]^{PRED} [siya]^o [Ø]^{A=(san tulo na bata)}]^{IND CL}
V 3ABS ERG

[pagpamurot]^{PRED} [san mga piras]^s]^{OBL}]^{IND CL}.
V 3ABS ERG

17. [Inbuligan^{PRED} [Ø]_{O=(siya)} [Ø]_{A(san 3 bata)} [pagkarga^{PRED}]_{COMP CL}]_{MAIN CL}
 V 3ABS ERG V
- [kag naglargada]^{PRED} naman [siya]_S]_{COMP CL}
 CONJ V PRT 3ABS
18. [Nabilin^{PRED} [an iya_{OBL} kalo]_S]_{IND CL},
 V ABS 3OBL N
19. [nakita^{PRED} [san usad na bata]_S]_{IND CL}.
 V ERG NUM LKR N
20. [intawag^{PRED} [niya]_A [an bata]_O]_{MAIN CL}
 V 3ERG ABS N
- [na may^{PRED} [karga^{PRED} na piras_{OBL} [Ø]_{OBL/S=(bata)}]_{REL CL}
 LKR EXIST V LKR N N
21. [Inbalik^{PRED} [Ø]_{A=(san usad na bata)} [an kalo]_O]_{IND CL}
 V ERG ABS N
22. [Sa [paghatag]^{PRED} [san iya kalo]_{OBL}]_{SUB CL}
 OBL V OBL 3OBL N
- [ginhatagan^{PRED} [Ø]_{A(niya=bata na nakabisiklita)} [siya]_(bata na nagbalik san kalo) O [san
 piras]_{MAIN CL}
 V 3ERG 3ABS OBL N
23. [Tig-irisad] [sinda]_S [na tulo]_{REL}
 N 3ABS.PL LKR NUM
24. [Diretso na idto]=[n [bata]_S
 N PRT DIST.ABS=LKR N
 na nakabisiklita^{PRED}]_{REL CL} [pauli]^{PRED}]_{DPCTV CL}
 LKR V
25. [An tulo]_S pakadto^{PRED} didto pabalik^{PRED} sa – [baliktad
 man]_{DPCTV CL –}
 ABS NUM V DIST.ABS V OBL N PRT
 [sa [Ø]_{S=(tawo)} nagapamudo^{PRED} [san piras]_{OBL}
 OBL ABS V OBL N

26. [Paglusad^{PRED} [san tawo]_S namudo^{PRED} [san piras]_{OBL}]_{REL CL}]_{SUB CL}
 V ABS N V OBL N
 [nakita^{PRED} [niya]_A [na wara^{PRED} na]_{REL CL} [an usad
 V 3ERG LKR EXIST PRT ABS NUM
 na bangkat san piras]_O]_{MAIN CL}
 LKR N OBL N
27. [Inhanap^{PRED} [niya]_A [kay kulang na]_{COMP CL} [an
 iya]_{OBL} bangkat]_O]_{MAIN CL}
 V 3ERG CONJ N PRT ABS 3OBL N
28. [Imbes na tulo]_{OBL}, [duwa na lang]_{MAIN CL}
 CONJ LKR NUM NUM PRT PRT
29. [Taodtaod]_{SUB CL}, [idto na tulo na bata]_S naglabay^{PRED}
 CONJ.AFTER DIST.ABS LKR NUM LKR N
 [nagakaon^{PRED} [san piras]_{OBL}]_{DPCTV CL}
 V OBL N
30. [Didto]_{OBL} [niya]_S nakuanan^{PRED} [na [an iya piras]_{OBL}
 DIST.ABS 3ERG V LKR ABS 3OBL N
 amo idto [na [mga bata]_S an nakakuwa^{PRED}]_{REL CL}
 PRT DIST.ABS LKR PL N ABS V

INFORMANT NO. 3

NAME: Bernadita Rosero

AGE: 60

OCCUPATION: Brgy. Health Worker, Narangasan Health Center

Code: MarNar_F_60

1. [An tawo]_S [namudo]_{PRED} [san piras]_{OBL}]_{IND CL}
ABS N V OBL N
2. [Tapos]_{SUB CL} [may]_{PRED} [tawo]_A man
CONJ EXIST N PRT

[na [nagguyod]_{PRED} [san kanding]_{OBL}]_{REL CL}]_{IND CL}
LKR V OBL N
3. [Tapos]_{SUB CL} [[ginsulod]_{PRED} [sa bangkat]_{OBL} [Ø]_{A=(san tawo} [Ø]_{O=(an piras)}]_{MAIN CL}
CONJ V OBL N ERG ABS
4. [[Ginkuha]_{PRED} [san bata]_A. [Ø]_{O=(an piras)}]_{IND CL}
V ERG N ABS
5. [[Ginsakay]_{PRED} [sa bisiklita]_{OBL} [Ø]_{A=(san tawo} [Ø]_{O=(an piras)}]_{IND CL}
V OBL N ERG ABS
6. [Tapos]_{SUB CL} [[nakabangga]_{PRED} [siya]_{ABS} [sa bato]_{OBL}]_{MAIN CL}
CONJ V 3ABS OBL N
7. [Tapos]_{SUB CL} [[nawasak]_{PRED} [an [iya]_{OBL} piras]_{ABS}]_{MAIN CL}.
CONJ V ABS 3OBL N
8. [Ginpamurot]_{PRED} [san tulo ka tawo]_{OBL}.
V ERG NUM LKR N
9. [Tapos]_{SUB CL} [ginkarga]_{PRED} na, [tapos]_{SUB CL} [amo [naglakat]_{PRED}]_{IND CL}
CONJ V PRT CONJ PRT V
10. [Nabilin]_{PRED} [ikaw kalo]_S [binalik]_{PRED} [san tulo ka tawo]_A – aw –
PRED 2ABS N V ERG NUM LKR N
[usad na tawo]_A [sa iya]_{OBL}
NUM LKR N OBL 3OBL

11. [Tapos]^{PRED} [naglakat]^{PRED} na gayud [an tawo]^s.
 CONJ V PRT PRT ABS N
12. [Naglusad]^{PRED} naman [an tawo]^s [sa puno]^{OBL} [san
 piras]^{OBL}
 V PRT ABS N OBL N OBL N
13. [Tapos]^{SUB CL} [may]^{PRED} [tawo]^A [na [nagalakat]^{PRED} nga [tulo]^s]^{REL CL}]^{MAIN CL}
 CONJ EXIST N LKR V LKR NUM

INFORMANT NO. 4

NAME: Ma. Charisse R. Blancaver

AGE: 19

OCCUPATION: Student, Polytechnic University of the Philippines

Code: MasTin_F_19

1. Usad na adlaw, may usad na lalaki na nagapudo san piras sa puno.
2. Habang gapudo sya, may nahulog na usad na piras.
3. Naglusad an lalaki kag inbutang an mga napudo nya na piras sa basket.
4. Nakapuno na sya san duwa na basket.
5. An nakahigot na panyo sa iya liog inkuha nya kag inpunasan an nahulog na piras,
6. tapos idton nahulog na piras na inpunasan nya binutang nya man sa basket kaupod san mga dili nahulog.
7. Pagkatapos, inbalik nya sa liog nya an panyo kag nagsaka utro sya sa hagdan para magpudo.
8. Habang nagapudo an lalaki, may nag agi na lalaki na may guyod na kanding,
9. san wara na an lalaki na may guyod na kanding, may nag-agi na naman na bata na lalaki na nakasakay sa bike
10. Pag-agi san bata sa mga basket san piras naglusad sya kag inkuha an usad na basket na puno san piras.
11. Naghali an bata kag may nakasugatan na babae na nakasakay man sa bike. tapos inlupad an iya kalo kag dahil dili nakakita sa gina-agihanan an bata na lalaki nabunggo sa bato.
12. Natumba kag nagkalat sa dlan an mga piras, inbuligan sya san tulo na bata na lalaki.
13. San pahali na an bata na nagkuha san mga piras intawag sya san usad sa mga nagbulig sa iya kay naktaan iya kalo inhatag an kalo nya,
14. Intagaan nya man san tulo na piras, tas nagburulag na sinda.
15. Nagtag-urusada antulo sa piras.
16. Balik sa lalaki na nagapudo, naglusad na sya sa hagdan tas nakita nya na nawawara an usad nabasket,
17. Tapos an tulo na nagbulig sa bata na nagkuha san piras nag agi didto sa nagapudo san piras, nakita san nagapudo kag inparakita an tulo nagalakat palayo.

APPENDIX F
MASBATENYO LITERATURE AND WRITTEN TEXTS

The following are sentences obtained from Wolfenden's Masbatenyo-English dictionary.

MASBATENYO SENTENCES (FROM WOLFENDEN, 2001)

1. Maayo an pakapraktis san tanan.
2. Mas maayo na dili pagtahuban an napasos.
3. An tubig an pinakamaayo na bulong sa kadamuan san mga sakit.
4. Damo sinda sin trabaho sa uma.
5. Nakakuha sinda sin gatas san inda karabaw.
6. Gurang man o bata kinahanglan gayod na maaram kun nano an hihimuon.
7. Mga sakop ini san akong trabaho.
8. Kada isad sa inda nauli pagkakuha san bahin ninda.
9. Mapakain ka, Migo?
10. Niyang mga kaigmanghudan, igwa sin bag-o na layi.
11. Sarawayon gayod ini si Anghelito.
12. Pagsabi ko sani, nagtararawa sinda Itay.
13. Damo na an mgatawo na adto sa may plasa.
14. Didi ka la sa sirong san saging kay ako an sa ibabaw.
15. Ibon an Maya
16. Mga ibon an nagkaraon san palay.
17. Ini si Ricardo adto permi sa lungsod.
18. Nano kay himuon ta ina?
19. Wara pa ako makaabot sana na Legaspi.
20. Namahaw na ba kamo?
21. Si Juan isad-isad na bata niTia Maria.
22. Nag-uli kami sa balay ninda Edwin.
23. May dyutay na sadiri na nabilin sa iya ama.
24. Ano ini an rason san usad san mga katarakin.
25. Nakabaton si Tia Maria sin surat hali kan Juan.
26. Damo man gayod kami sin mga bata.
27. Lumain an buot san may sakit san matilawan an lugaw.
28. Magtuna sadto si Anghelito na an nagin pinakamabuot na anghel sa Paraiso.
29. San sigi na an orani sadton mga tawo...
30. Niyang Banoy, nano an aton himuon sani na mga maabot na adlaw.
31. Kun igwa sin itlog ginabaligya man gihapon ninda.
32. An tiya ko an akon maninay.
33. Dammo kami na urupod kaya kasurusadya namon.
34. An sura adto harani lang kanda Edwin.
35. Makarigo lang kami sa suba.
36. Nagpasalamat kami sa mga ginikanan ni Edwin.
37. Nagbatyag sinda sin pagkaluoy sa kan Amparing.

38. Ginsabi ninda sa kan Presidente Marcos an mga importante na problema.
39. Pakahaman sini, nagpadayon ako pag-eskwela didi sa Masbate.
40. Dido sa Uson igwa sin duhs ns parapangisda.
41. Maraot sa akon an luto kay ako ginakalintura.
42. Wara sin nakasumat sa iya kun hain si Pinang.
43. Kinahanglan gayod niya, maskin usad na lang sa amon, na magduaw sa iya.
44. Basi sarala an akon masabi.
45. An bisita na magkadto sa kada balay inda pakapakaunon.
46. Nag-arkila an tawo sin traysikul hali sa balay ninda pakadto sa merkado.
47. Pito an kamanghod na babayi kag wara sin lalaki.
48. Ginbiyaan ko na man la gihapon an karabaw.
49. Usung-usong gihapon diya ni Itay.
50. Inpalit gihapon ninda an bata sa Ovilla.
51. Inpalista gihapon siya ninda sa Ovilla.
52. Maaram sinda mag-arado san duta.
53. Nagapadayon ako sa pagtrabaho sa Manila.
54. Dili sinda maaram mag-arado san duta.
55. Adi ako nagapadayon sa pagtrabaho sa Manila.
56. Amo ini an pamatyag kun makadto k asa usad na lugar na wara mo pa makakadto.
57. Amo ini an oamatyag kun ikaw makadto sa usad...
58. Kanina, ikaw la an nagkaon sadto na damo-damo na saging.
59. Dyutay ka na tawo.
60. Ikaw dyutay na tawo.
61. San-o mo nawara?
62. Nano an kolor sadto?
63. Pira na pako an sa usad ka kilo?
64. Pan-uhon naton an paggamit?
65. Pan-o an pagkita sin naubusan sin tubig sa lawas?
66. Kamo an magkita-kita kun sin-o an dapat naton upudan.
67. Dili kita sigurado kun pan-o anpagtabang sn nasamadan.
68. Inhunga siya kun nano kay masyado siya sarawayon.
69. Adi an lapis mo.
70. Ada siya permi sa balkon namon.
71. Adto permi sa lungsod si Ricardo.
72. Kadi kamo sa akon.
73. 'Kadto, abrihi,' an sabi ni Roman.
74. Siguro makadi man gihapon idto sa iyo.
75. Nagkada ako sa akon katakin na balay.
76. Kumadto siya sa pampang.
77. Nagbalhin an pamilya namon pakadi sa Masbate.
78. Ipaagay daw ini na tubipakada sa kanal.
79. Nag-upod an duha pakadto sa higad san baybay.
80. Dili magtugot bisan sin-o man na magkarigo.

81. Malipay sinda bisan sugad la an inda kamutangan.
82. Maski diin magkadro kilala siya kaayo.
83. Bisn nano na klase na pagkaon an makuha san kada grupo indi ginbabahin sin pareho sa inda tanan.
84. An aluhipan amo an magmasid kun adlaw.
85. An primero na inkadto namon amo an usad sa pinakadako na tyindahan sa Manila.
86. Ginasamukan niya an mga Propeta, amo man an mga Parakanta.
87. Taudtaod, inataki naman, kag amo adto an iya ikinamatay.
88. Sani na pag-eskwela ko sa Manila amo man nagtuna an mga estudiante sa mga demonstrasyon.
89. Sani na pag-eskwela k osa Manila amo man nagtuna an mga estudiante sa mga demonstrasyon.
90. Nasakit sa puso ni Tia Maria a magbulag sinda na duha pero iya gintiusan kay amo an bilin san iya asawa.
91. 'Tama na na mag-eskwela siya,' an sabi san prinsipal.
92. 'Amo gani, Pare,' an sabi ni Itay.
93. An nahulog na na gurang amo ini ginsabi, 'Anak ko, ako an imo iloy.'
94. Igwa ina sin duha na sangay.
95. Ginkita ko an tubi igwa na sin mga puti na bao.
96. Maghanda na kita kay taudtauod madulom na.
97. Ini si Ramon, amo an mahigos sa tanan na lalaki sa baryo san Lucia.
98. Guyudan mo in asa harayo.
99. Hataas na palinas an nakita mo.
100. Hitaas an kahulog.
101. Dili na niya dadakop an alibangbang bag-o himubo la an lupad.
102. An kapakulan na iya binggaan turumba talbinagyo.
103. Mga malangason na bata sinda.
104. Ginasamukan niya an mga langitnon na parakanta.
105. Sarawayon gayod ini si Anghelito.
106. Tumangis sinda kadigyutayan na kabataan.
107. Maghawan ka san dinghot san atad kay hagtaas na.
108. Damo an nakita namon na taga-Masbate didto sa Baleno.
109. Wara sin tawo na dili malipay sina na kaorason.
110. Medyo maluya pa an tuhod.
111. May ipa na mas grabi an problema kaysa imo.
112. Mas damo an amon mga boluntir.
113. Palangga masyado ni Tia Rosa an anak niya na si Pinang.
114. Dili na siya magapasaway.
115. Wara man ako masala.
116. Nagsiyak siya sin tudo, 'Hali dida.'
117. Gin-estemar kami sin mayo san mga ginikanan ni Edwin.
118. Nagkaon kami san amon panigab-i sin temprano pa.
119. Wara man ako masala. (Neutral Aspect/non-event)

120. Dugay na kami wara makakadto.
121. Wara na la ipilak sa kalayo an bao.
122. Ginaisip ko na magsagka sa amon uma sa San Ramon. (A-verb complement)
123. Naila gayod magparatamod sa ubos.
124. Nag-agi kami agod amon siya ipalista.
125. PagkaSabado, nagkadto naman kami sa eskwelahan para magkita san risling.
126. Ihatag mo ini kan papa mo, ha. (NA-Imperative)
127. Pakataposs niyo pagtilaw magsabi kamo kun puede makaon o kun dili.
128. Kaya himuon kogihaponan ilustrasyon kag aton estudyaran.
129. Kun nano man an imo ampuan na may pagtuod matuman gayod.
130. Magahimo siya san inda mga maraot na bintana. (Contemplated)
131. Mangayo siya san inda mga maraot na bintana.
132. Kuhaon ko na ini na karabaw.
133. Ipasukol ina na duta.
134. Tanan na mga tawo nag-urawa. (Completed)
135. Nakaisip an bao na amiguhon niy an amo.
136. Nabutang gayod ako san sako sa hagdan.
137. Nano kay ginhimo mo ina?
138. Ginbutang ni Pinang an bugas sa kuron.
139. Tinuman san ama an hingyo ni Anghelito.
140. Indara an karabaw.
141. Ginasamukan niya an mga propeta nga nagapangadyi. (Progressive)
142. Ginapadara ninda an trak na nagalabad.
143. Namumutang ini na lugar sa tuktok san bukid.
144. Nakakawat an duta.
145. Inaabot pa ako sin hadlok kun akon nadudumduman.
146. Ginbabahin ninda an pagkaon sin pareho sa inda tanan.
147. Himua ini sin 3 na beses sa 1 ka adlaw.(Obligatory)
148. Maayo pa na wara ko sinda paghimua.
149. Tandai kag masdi, ina namamatay.
150. Saruki man kami sin tulo ka lata.

APPENDIX G
MASBATENYO SONGS AND POEMS (Almario, 1995)

A. Songs

Despite their happy-go-lucky façade, the songs of Masbatenyos brim with sentimentality reflective of their maudlin nature. Observe the lyrics of his songs:

“Ako baga an sapat na diotay
Nagalupad-lupad sa higad san baybay
Dinakop mo ako, kag imo hinigtan
Dili mo man lang ako gin-ataman.”

Pulong mo ugaling amo imo palangga
Dili ka makaturog di mo ako makita...
Ay Neneng, kapait kairo, sinin kamotangan
Kay imo ginlimtan

“Kay an kasakit kag kagool
Kalipat san akon dughan
Sinalongan, bukiran kong mabugnaw
Yamong ada sa kadahonan
Sa pagsirak san adlaw.

“Inday magbolag na lang kita magbolag
Magbolag sin dayon
Antuson ko na lang an mga kamingaw
Kag dili na lang ako, kag dili na lang ako
Sa imo maglantaw

“Kon malarga ka na palinaw-linawa
Lantawa an lawod pangalagkalaga
Makita mo ngani mapula an langit
Ako ina Neneng sa imo nagahad-it

Pulong Ko Yadto

Pulong ko yadto mato-od kag tunay
An imo sa akon tuga na pagmahal
Nano an nangyari kay imo guin bayaan
Mga pangako mo san nag-agi na adlaw
Mili kay sugad an akon kamotangan
Imo guin bayaan, imo guin bayaan
Nagtios sin labi na kasakitan

Kay gusto mo ada na ako mamatay
Kon dili pa lamang an akon paglaom
Sa imo binilin na mga surmaton
Di kunta nagios inin tagipusu-on
Di kunta nasayang inin lawas nakon.

B. Poems

Here is a Masbateno poetry which survived the passage of time. In the days of old, it was customary for lovers to engage in poetical joust as a prelude to marriage:

Lalaki

Ikaw man an burak na bag-on bukadkad
Kag ako an pispis na may pagkaruyag
Malooy man lugod na ikaw mapurak
Kay sasaludon ta san duha kon palad.

Ayaw man Neneng sin kababaribad
Kay naga dinagdag an akon karuyag
Mala pa man nggani an akon paghulat
Anyo an umagi, bulan an lumigad

Ayaw man Neneng pagtaas sin pulong
Kay dili ka kahoy, kahoy Jamorawon
Maayo pa Nenenng sa gugma pasirong
Si Adan, si Eva aton na sunodon

Babaye

Ako inin burak nagtungtong sa sanga
Ikaw man an pispis na may paghigugma
Kon turok-torokan san duha kon mata
Daw di ta pa suerte kag magin portuna

An gugma mo Nonoy guinpaanod ko na
Didto sadton sapa didto mo susiha
Didto sadton bato dito alikbaha
Kay adto an swerte didto pangita-a

Kon gusto ka Nonoy sa akon mangasawa
Magbalay ka anay sin piton ka bara
Matapos mo ngani sin pito ka sema
Hamos na sa padi magpakasal kita

APPENDIX H
MASBATENYO STORIES (Summer Institute of Linguistics)

The following are Masbatenyo stories collected and compiled by the Summer Institute of Linguistics.

AN GINHALLIAN SA ISLA SAN PILIPINAS

Ang Pinagmulan ng Isla ng Pilipinas

As told by Nely Gordola

San an mondo bata pa an isla san Pilipinas dili pa parti san kalibotan.

Nang ang mundo ay bata pa, ang isla ng Pilipinas ay hindi pa parte ng sansinukob.

Sadto na panahon igwa sin higanti na nag-istar sa tonga san kadagatan.

Noong panahon na iyon, meron isang higante na nakatira sa gitna ng karagatan.

May tolo siya na bata na daraga, Minda, Luz, kag Bisaya.

May tatlo siyang anak na dalaga, Mida, Luz at Bisaya.

Isad sin adlaw an higanti ginbilin an tolo na bata kay naghanap sin pagkaon.

Isang araw, iniwan ng higante ang tatlong anak para maghanap ng pagkain.

Antis nahali an higanti iya gintogon an tolo na dili maghali sa kowiba hasta siya magbalik.

Bago umalis ang higante, binilinan niya ang tatlo na huwag umalis sa kuweba hanggang siya'y makabalik.

Paanhon la kay si Minda talagan soutil na pagkabata.

Ngunit si Minda ay sadyang pasaway na bata.

Pakahali san ama lomowas man siya sa kowiba nadagka siya san mga balod kag san mga

matahom na kiritaon. *Pagkaalis ng ama, lumabas siya sa kuweba at namangha siya sa mga malalaking alon at magandang tanawin.*

Wara siya makamangno adto na siya sa hidalom, nagasiyak siya sin bolig sa iya doha na manghod.

Hindi niya namalayan na nasa malalim na siya, sumigaw (humingi) ng tulong sa dalawa niyang kapatid.

Piro sa inda na tole wara sin maaram maglangoy nagkarolonod sinda wara sin nakaagap.

Ngunit wala sa kanilang tatlo ang marunong lumangoy kaya nalunod sila dahil walang nakaagap.

Paghalik san higanti sakat losad siya dili na hahanapan an tolo na daraga.

Pagbalik ng higante, nag-akyat-panaog siya nang hindi niya nahanap an tatlong dalaga.

Nahadlok siya kay syirto na nalonod an tolo na daraga kay may nalantaw siya na nagalotaw na mga bistida sa dagat.

Natakot siya dahil tiyak niyang nalunod ang tatlong dalaga dahil may nakita siyang lumulutang na mga bestida sa dagat.

Ginboso niya para makoha an nga lawas piro dogay siya sin kakahanap wara siya sin makita hasta na nakatorog siya sin maayo sa baybayon.

Sinisid niya para makuha ang mga katawan ngunit matagal na siyang naghanap, wala siyang makita hanggang sa nakatulog siya sa magandang buhanginan.

An mainit na adlaw an nakapamata sa iya sa sonod na aga, pagbohata niya nakakita siya sin tolo na isla na wara man didto sadto na logar.

Ang mainit na araw ang gumising sa kanya ng sumunod na umaga. Pagbangon niya, nakakita siya ng tatlong isla na wala naman doon sa lugar na iyon.

Ginisip niya na idto na tolo na isla amo an tolo niya na nawara na bata.

Inisip niya na ang tatlong islang iyon ang tatlo niyang nawawalang anak.

Kon sogad sani ini na mga isla amo an Luzon, Visayas, Mindanao.

Sa ngayon, ang mga islang ito na ang Luzon, Visayas, Mindanao.

May bis nakabatyag kita sin linog ginsabi na an higanti nagbisita sa iya tolo na daraga.

Minsan, nakakaramdam tayo ng lindol, sinsabi na ang higante ay bumibisita sa kanyang tatlong dalaga.

AN PAGBALOS*Ang Pagganti*

As told by Victor Gordola

Sa amon logar igwa sin bata na nagpasorogoon kay siya ilo na.
Sa aming lugar, may isang bata na nagpakatulong dahil sa ulila na siya.

Wara na siya sin ginikanan na dodolokan.
Wala na siyang magulang na tutuluyan.

Isad sin hapon naglakat siya kay naghanap na sin tawo na maistaran.
Isang hapon, naglakad siya upang maghanap ng taong matitirhan.

Dili nagdogay nakakita dayon sin magaswildo sa iya.
Hindi nagtagal, nakakita agad siya ng magpapasuweldo sa kanya.

Nakaisip siya sin pasalamat sa mahal na Diyos kay makaagi na siya sin maiistaran.
Nakaisip siya ng pasalamat sa Mahal na Diyos dahil meron na siyang matutuluyan.

San primero niya na adlaw didto sadto na balay nagaparatangis la siya, kay namimingaw kay nakadomdom siya na kon bohay an iya iloy kag ama dili siya magapasorogoon.
Sa unang araw niya sa bahay na iyon, nag-iiyak lang siya dahil nangungulila dahil naaalala niya na kung buhay pa ang kanyang ina at ama, hindi siya magpakatulong.

Maayo kay an iya amo maboot kag nalooy man sa iya.
Mabuti na lang at mabait ang kanyang amo at naawa sa kanya.

Ginhonga siya san iya amo kon nano kay girisi na an iya bado.
Tinanong siya ng kanyang amo kung bakit punit-punit na ang kanyang damit.

An sabat niya kay donot na kag wars sin iba na ikaliwan.
Ang sagot niya ay dahil durog na at wala na siyang pamalit.

Ginhagan siya sin damo na yamit, kag sabi san asawa san iya amo pagliwan san imo bado kay matahom na ikaw pagkitaon.
Binigyan siya ng kanyang amo ng maraming damit at sabi ng asawa ng kanyang amo, 'Magbihis ka ng iyong damit dahil maganda tingnan.'

Idto na bata ginpaiskwila sadto na mag-asawa hasta na nakahoman sin karira.. *Ang batang iyon ay pinag-aral ng mag-asawang iyon hanggang nakatapos siya ng pag-aaral.*

Nagbalos man sin mayo idto na bata nagbolig siya sa pangabohay san mag-asawa
Gumanti naman ang batang iyon at tumulong siya sa kabuhayan ng mag-asawa.

AN GINHALLIAN SAN TALABONG*Ang Pinagmulan ng Tagak*

as told by Nely Gordola

An talabong sapat nahirilagba an bitiis kag hilaba an liog.
Ang tagak ay isang ibon na mahahabaang binti at mahaba ang leeg.

Nagaistar ini sa pangpang san soba.
Tumitira ito sa pampang ng ilog.

Niyan maaraman naton kon nano kay nagkaigwa sin talabong.
Ngayon malalaman na natin kung bakit nagkaroon ng tagak.

Sadto na panahon igwa sin gorang na parapangisda.
Noong unang panahon, may isang matandang mangingisda.

Ini na gorang dili nakadto sa pangisdaan kon dili homan mag-oran sin todotodo.
Ang matandang ito ay hindi pumupunta sa pangisdaan kung hindi pa tapos umulan ng malakas.

Kon malakat siya pakadto sa pagpangisda ginadara niya an iya kapoti an gamit pagpangisda kag san baskit.
Pag maglalakad siya papunta sa pangisdaan, dinadala niya ang kanyang gamit na kapoteng pangpangisda at ang baskit.

Sa dalan pakadto sa pagpangisda nagsormaton siya sa iya sadiri, kon nano kay dili siya ginhatagan sin bitiis na hilagba kay makaabot siya dayon sa pangisdaan kag malaksi an iya pagpitad?

Sa daan papuntang pangisdaan, nagsasalita siya sa kanyang sarili kung bakit hindi siya binigyan ng mahahabang binti para makarating agad siya sa pangisdaan at maiiksi ang kanyang hakbang?

Taodtaod nakaabot siya sa pangpang san soba.
Mayamaya, nakarating na siya pampang ng ilog.

Nagtona na siya pagpangisda.
Nagsimula na siyang mangisda.

Basta nakakoha siya sin diyotay na isda inapilak na niya babalik sa dagat.
Pag nakakuha siya ng maliit na isda, inihahagis na niya pabalik sa dagat.

Tapos masabi siya sa iya sadiri, "Nano ba an Diyos kay dili ginhimo an isda na daragko kag hilagba?"

Tapos sasabihin niya sa kanyang sarili, “Bakit hindi lumikha ng malalaki at mahahabang isda ang Diyos?”

San mapono an iya basket sin isda nagpahoway siya sa sirong san kahoy na malampoy kag iya ginlainlain an nadakop na isda.

Nang mapuno ang kanyang basket ng isda, nagpahinga siya sa silong ng malilim na puno at pinaghiwalay niya ang nahuling isda.

San ginlainlain niya an nadakop niya may gomolpi paglokso sa iya kilid.

Sa paghihiwa-hiwalay niya ang nahuli niya, may biglang lumukso sa gilid niya.

Ginlingi niya kag nakita niya igwa sin tawo na diyotay sa iya kilidan.

Nilingon niya at nakitang may maliit na tao sa kanyang gilid.

Sinabihan niya, "Nano kay adi ka? Nag-ano ka didi? Ikaw na diyotay na tawo.

Sinabihan niya, “Bakit andito ka? Anong ginagawa mo dito? Ikaw na maliit na tao.

Nano an Diyos kay ginhimo ka na diyotay dili hitaas?"

“Bakit ang Diyos ay ginawa kang maliit, hindi mataas?”

Ginsabat siya san tawo sin hinayhinay kag ginsod-ong sin mayoot kag ginsabihan an gorang,

Sinagot siya ng tao ng marahan at tiningnan ng masama at sinabihan ang matanda,

"Nano dili ka kontinto san mga bagay na ginhatag sa imo?"

“Bakit hindi na nakukuntento sa mga bagay na ibinibigay sa iyo?”

Ginsabat namansiya san parapangisda, "Nano kay a ka didi?"

Sinagot naman siya ng matanda, “Bakit ka kaya andito?”

Kon ako an Diyos hihimoon ko an tanan na bagay didi sa mondo daragko kag hirilagba."

Kung ako ang Diyos, gagawin ko ang lahat ng bagay dito sa mundo na malalaki at mahahaba.”

Piro baga siya an nangongorit.

Pero para siyang nagpapagalit.

Pakasabi niya sani na sormaton naosa siya kay bag an nag-iba an iya Tawas.

Pagkasabi niya nito, nagulat siya dahil parang nag-iba na ang kanyang katawan.

An iya do na botkon nahimo na doha na pako ka nagdaragko an iya barahibo.

Ang kanyang mga braso ay naging dalawang pakpak at humaba ang kanyang balahibo.

Pagkit niya san iya bitiis hirilagba na.

Pagtingin niya sa kanyang mga binti, mahahaba na.

Nahimo na siya na talabong.

Naging isa na siyang tagak.

Yana makikita naton na an talabong na sa pangpang san soba, sa mga kabas-anan.

Ngayon, makikita natin na ang tagak adto sa pampang san soba, sa mga kabas-anan.

Nangingita siya sin pagkaon paka, diyoting na sapat, isda.

Naghahanap siya ng pagkain, palaka, maliliit na insekto at isda.

NANO KAY AN ALOHIPAN NAGKAIGWA SIN DAMO NA TIIL*Bakit ang Alupihan ay Nagkaroon ng Madaming Paa*

as told by Nely Gordola

Damo, damo na toig an nagligad may isad na gorang na ma kagamhanan nag-istar sa bokid na kwiba.

Maraming taon na ang nakalilipas, may isang matanda na may kapangyarihan ang nakatira sa bundok na kweba.

Sa obos sani na kwiba tobi na nagaagay half sa ibabaw na aram san tanan na makaoosa. *Sa baba ng kwebang ito, tubig na umaagos mula sa ibabaw na aram ng lahat na [...].*

Ini na logar nahimo na libangan, kag diskansohan san gorang. *Ang lugar na ito ang ginawang libangan at pahingahan ng matanda.*

Isad sin adlaw gintawag an tolo niya na insakopan, an alohipan, sawa, kag an garong. *Isang araw, tinawag niya ang tatlo niyang nasasakupa, ang alupihan, ahas at ang garong.*

Sabi niya, "Wara ako didi sa solod sin isad kasimana. Myintras wara ako, gusto ko atamanon niyo an tobi sa obos san kwiba. *Sabi niya, "Wala ako dito sa loob ng isang linggo. Habang wala ako, gusto ko alagaan nyo ang tubig sa ibaba ng kweba.*

Dili magtogot bisan sin-o man na magkarigo o magkoha sin tobi hali dida sa obos san kwiba. *Huwag ninyong papayagan ang kahit sinuman na maligo o magkuha ng tubig mula diyan sa ibaba ng kweba.*

Kon habo sinda, gokdan sinda, kag isipon niyo kon nano an mayo na himoon para sa inda." *Kung ayaw nila, habulin niya siya at isipin kung ano ang magandang gawin para sa kanila."*

Adlaw gab-inagmamas d an tolo na insakopan didto sa obos san kwiba. *Araw-gabi minamasdan ng tatlong nasasakupan doon sa ibaba ng kweba.*

Gindiridiran san tolo na insakopan na an alohipan amo an magmasid kon adlaw kay maloya maghiwag, an doha sa gab-i. *Napapagpasyahan ng tatlo na ang alupihanang magbabantay pag umaga dahil mabagal itong kumilos at ang dalawa sa gabi.*

San pagbalik san gorang, pakahoman sin isad ka simana na pagbiyahi, nagbisita siya insigida sa tobig na nagaagay.

Nang bumalik ang matanda pagkatapos ng isang linggong paglalakay, agad siyang bumisita sa umaagos na tubig.

Didto nakita niya an tawo na nagasolod sin tobig sa botilya.
Doon niya nakita ang tao na naglalagay ng tubig sa bote.

Nagsiyak siya sin todo, "Hali dida antis igwa sin grabi na mangyari sa imo!"
Sumigaw siya ng malakas. "Umalis ka diyan bago may mangyaring masama sa iyo!"

An nagakatorog na alohipan nakamata.
Ang natutulog na alupihan ay nagising.

Nahadlok an alohipan.
Natakot ang alupihan.

Ginagokdan niya an tawo piro wara madakop.
Hinabol niya ang tao pero hindi nahuli.

San makita an alohipan san gorang na babayi, ginmaldisyon niya an alohipan, ginwigtikan niya sin tobig kag ginsabihan,
Nang makita ang alupihan ng matandang babae, minaldisyon niya an alupihan, winisikan ng tubig at sinabihan, "
"Gusto ko magkaigwa ka sin ginatosgatos na tiil."
Gusto ko magkaroon ka ng daan-daang paa."

Nagmatood an iya sormaton, an opat na tiil sani na sapat nahimo na damo-damo dili na naton mabilangbilang.
Naging totoo ang kanyang salita, ang apat na paa ng insektong itoay dumami at hindi na natin mabilang.

NANO KAY SIM LA AN KAHIG SAN MANOK*Bakit Kahig ng Kahig ang Manok*

as told by Nely Gordola

Sadto na mga adlaw mag-amigo pa an banog kag san manok.
Noong unang panahon, magkaibigan pa ang lawin at ang manok.

Pariho man san tawo igwa sinda sin handomanan.
Katulad din ng tao, mayroon silang sumpaang.

Ginhatagan san banog an manok sin singsing.
Binigyan ng lawin ang manok ng singsing.

Isad sin adlaw nagpasyar an manok.
Isang araw, namasyal ang manok.

Nawara an singsing na ginhatag san banog.
Nawala ang singsing na ibinigay ng lawin.

Pagbisita san banog ginhonga kon hain an singsing, sabi san manok, "Nawara."
Pagbisita ng lawin, tinanong niya kung nasaan ang singsing. Ang sabi ng manok, "Nawala."

Naorit an banog na bagan nagadoda na igwa sin iba na ginhatagan na katrato.
Nagalit ang lawin na tila nagdududa na may ibang pinagbigyan na kasintahan.

Ginpadaan san banog an manok na kon dili makita an singsing an siwo san manok amo an iya kokohaon.
Pinaalalahan ng lawin ang manok na kung hindi niya makita ang singsing, ang sisiw ng manok ang kanyang kukunin.

Kaya sigi la an kahig san manok,
Kaya laging kahig ng kahig ang manok.

Naodong la kon gab-i.
Natitigil lang kung gabi.

Nagpabolig nasiya paghanap sa iya kaoropdanan piro wara gayod ninda mahanapi.
Nagpatulong na siya sa paghahanap sa kanyang mga kasamahan pero hindi talaga nila mahanap.

Nagbisita gihapon an banog piro wara pa maagihi san manok an singsing.
Bumisita ulit ang lawin pero hindi pa nadadaan ng manok ang singsing.

Damo na sin siwo an manok.

Maraming sisiw ang manok,

Sabi san banog, "Iisad-isadon ko ina pagdagit na imo mga siwo!"

Sabi ng lawin, "Tisa-isahin ko iyang pagdagit sa iyong mga sisiw"

Hasta yana sigi la an kahig san manok kay nagaparahanap san inda handomanan.

Hanggang ngayon, kahig pa rin ng kahig ang manok sa kakahanap sa kanilang sumpaang.

TICAONON LITERATURE

SA PAGLAYOG SAN TABON

ni Jerome Maximo D. Asaula

Casadto san ini na isla san TICAO cag san upat na municipio dili pa napapangaranan, igwa na sin mga naga iristar didi cag segun san historia san panahon ini na aton lugar guinatawag na TABONAN tungod cay damô na mga sapat na guinatawag na TABON an naga iristar cag nangingiritlog sa baybayon san TABONAN magbatog sa higadun san baybayon san PUNTA LAGANG cag SABANG pacadto sa BOROBARANGAY, ini na sapat na TABON (*megapodius cumingii*) usad sa mga klase san sapat sadton panahon na bihira na niyan makit-an na tinatawag na *megapode* hale sa griego na surmaton na *mega* na an gusto sabihon dacô cag *podos* na an gusto sabihon ti-il o dacô na ti-il. Ini na sapat na TABON nagahimô san inda salag sa baybayon, guinacayas an duta cag nagabuhô sa bay-bay gamit an inda mga daragcô na ti-il, nagahanap sin mga tacdag na mga dahon, sanga san cahoy cag mga diorugtay na carurong san tuway na panghapin sa inda salag cag didto sinda naga pangitlog cag ini inda guinatahoban san baybay.



An paghimsâ san mga itlog san TABON naga depende sa init san naga lopâ na mga dahon, diorugtay na sanga san cahoy na inda guinhapin sa salag, cag init san adlaw na nagapa init san bay-bay na inda guintahob. Cadamu-an na beses makikita an pagbisita san inda salag con aga pa na nagasirac palang an adlaw, con bisan usad pero cadamu-an duha na padis san TABON an naga bisita san inda salag, naga huni sin matin-is cag malumanay na boses cag nagalacat-lacat patalibod sana na atab pa na ca-orason san adlaw. Ini na sapat sensitibo cag aram con may mga hayop o cayâ tawo na naglabot san inda mga salag dahilan san inda macusog na pangbahô (*sense of smell*) cag usad ini na mailá na sapat, con mabulabog nalupad tulos. Sa pag-cahapon pagmatunod na an adlaw ini sinda nagahuron sa sanga san mga haggmubô na cahoy.

An itlog san TABON nagatimbang sin 100 hasta na 100.04 gramo cag bagan malamus-aw na pula an kolor. An pagahimsa san inda itlog nagatuna sa panahon san tag-init, tuna na Marso hasta sa bulan san Abril. An pagposâ san mga siwô san bacayan cag carurong san inda itlog dili gamit an inda tukâ kundi an inda ti-il cag sa sulod sin 70 dias makikita na nagabutwâ sa baybayon an mga siwô san TABON completo na an barahibo, mga mabascog, naga ralacat cag nangingina-on sin sadiri.

Sa paglipas san panahon ini na sapat nagcawararâ, an posible na dahilan amo an pagdamô san tawo, na guinacuha an mga itlog. Nabulabog an inda estaran tungod sa mga

mailá ini na klaseng sapat nag ibá sin istaran. Usad pa na dahilan an mga tinatawag na “*predators*” pareho san haló cag ibid, mabcal cag bisan mga baboy-ramo cag iba pa na hayop na naga pang ka-on san itlog cag siwô pati na mga dacô na sapat na TABON.

An baybayon sani na aton lungsod na guinsalagan sadton panahon sani na mga sapat na TABON usad na masasabi naton na igwa sin dacô na historia san mga tawo na aton mga guinhalinan, con pan-o an inda pag-istar, an inda pangabuhay cag cultura, cag con pan-o mabuhay sa pagdalagan san panahon. An aton lungsod na guinatawag sadto na TABONAN may maipapakita na an mga nag iristar didi sa aton na mga TABOANONS may sadiri na cultura na maigapakita o may guinatawag na “*Cultural Identity*” na bisan sa paglayog san sapat na TABON cag pagcawarâ sani may nabilin na inspirasyon sa kada usad sa aton cag sa aton lugar.