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# TYPES OF SENTENCES IN HILIGAYNON, A MEMBER OF THE PHILIPPINE GROUP OF SPEECH SYSTEMS

by
Eliza Uy Grino

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Doctor of Education in
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969

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# A B S T R A C T

## TYPES OF SENTENCES IN HILIGAYNON, A MEMBER OF THE PHILIPPINE GROUP OF SPEECH SYSTEMS

by

Elisa Uy Grino

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Although teachers of foreign languages agree that a necessary preparation for successful teaching is the availability of adequate, systematic descriptions of the language being taught and the native language of the learner, this condition is not satisfactorily met in the West Visayas, Philippines, especially for Hiligaynon which is widely used. This study is an attempt to help fill the need for a systematic description and to stimulate more intensive study of the language.

The immediate use for this study is to help teachers analyze their difficulties in teaching English to Hiligaynon speakers. Accordingly, data were obtained from those who are most involved in the study of language in schools: children and their nearest kin, and teachers. Findings from recordings were supplemented by findings from a study of written sources.

This study is necessarily limited; it deals primarily with types of sentences. The classification of sentences was attempted from four perspectives; from each of them Hiligaynon exhibits features that distinguish sentence types. (1) The sentences were first classified according to the ways in which they realize "topic" and "comment" of deep structure. Two general types were revealed by this analysis: (a) the verbless sentence and (b) the sentence with a verb.

The verbless sentence is usually composed of a subject (the "topic") and a complement (the "comment") which establishes the identity of the subject, or

characterizes it, or gives its location. The sentence with a verb is primarily an expression of a relationship between an action and various entities having to do with that action either as its agent, its goal, its beneficiary, or its instrument. The verb (the "action") is the nucleus of this predication. The nominals representing the aforementioned entities are part of the nuclear construction around the verb. The relationships of the verb to these nominals are of two types. The first type can be called "in-focus," or the emphasized, relationship, expressed by putting the entity involved in a nominative case form, which becomes the subject of the sentence. The verb is also marked by an inflection that is cross reference to the subject of the predication. The second type of relationship between the verb and the nuclear nominals is a "complement" relationship which the verb has with the nominals which are not in focus. If any of them are present, each takes the non-nominative marker appropriate to its relationship with the verb.

Should there be an absolute construct, that construct realizes "topic," and the clause itself then realizes "comment."

(2) On the basis of complexity of structure, Hiligaynon has simple, compound, and complex sentences. These are distinguished by subclasses of connectors. Four sets of coordinators are used to express addition, contrast, alternation, and correlation. Fifteen subordinators introduce minor clauses which may express one of nine different ways of modifying the main predication.

(3) The position of a sentence in discourse may also affect its structuring. The "free" or initiating type of sentence tends to have a full nuclear construction at the least. The sequent sentence tends to be elliptical, any information repeated from some previous utterance being likely to be omitted.

(4) In terms of the responses expected by the speaker, Hiligaynon sentences may be classified into statements, jussive sentences, and questions.

Sentences which are "neutral" in that they simply give objective reports, or ask for active compliance, or expect a reply--without overtones that may suggest other intentions besides--are formally marked by distinctive intonation. Any modification of basic intonation suggests change in attitude toward the predication. Statements and jussive sentences are also contrasted by distinctive inflections of their verbs. The question uses either the jussive or the indicative verb.

## PREFACE

Although it is accepted by teachers of foreign languages that a necessary preparation for the successful teaching of a foreign language is the availability of adequate, systematic descriptions of the foreign language being taught and the native language of the learner, this condition is not satisfactorily met in the West Visayas, Philippines, especially for its native language. Very few native scholars have considered the study of their native language worth their effort. Certainly, this lack of interest is only to be expected since the educational system of the country has not encouraged this kind of study. The writer is concerned about this oversight but hopefully anticipates the time when the study of the native language of a region will be included in teacher-training programs. Before that time comes, more studies than the few already done on Hiligaynon must be conducted in order that those who have responsibility for teacher-training in the West Visayas can confidently say that they are ready to offer courses in the description of Hiligaynon.

To the few studies about Hiligaynon which have already been reported, the present study adds information about the kinds of sentences that may be formally identified in the language. The immediate and practical aim of this study is to help teachers analyze their difficulties in teaching English to Hiligaynon speakers, but it has also been undertaken for the simple reason that the study in itself is fascinating. It is hoped that those who use this report may catch the same excitement that the writer had when she was beginning to discover patterns in

the language and that they may be stimulated to do more intensive study of it.

There is no doubt that scholarship thrives best with good support. This study has been fortunate in having had such support.

First, the encouragement and sympathy of Professor Warner G. Rice, just retired chairman of the English Department of this university, allowed the writer to hope that she would be able to finish work on it.

Two years ago a Fulbright-Hays grant allowed her to work again with Professor Henry A. Gleason, Jr., the teacher who opened her eyes to the thrill of discovering patterns of structure in a language that was not known to her. Professor Gleason was very generous with his help in sharpening her insight and in the preparation and preliminary analysis of the data used in this study.

In this second opportunity to do intensive work on the project, the American Baptist Foreign Mission Societies and the Barbour Scholarship Foundation have helped the writer financially. Such generosity is acknowledged with gratitude and a sense of stewardship for the privilege which was enjoyed. The writer is also grateful to her doctoral committee for suggesting ways of effective presentation and for demanding quality work.

This project has other friends to whom thanks are due. Dr. Macario B. Ruiz and Dr. Linnea A. Nelson of Central Philippine University have encouraged the research and backed the writer with recommendations. Dr. Rex D. Drilon, president of the same university, won support for her from the school. Teachers in her department and friends on the university staff are seeing to it that her official duties are attended to in her absence. Miss Elizabeth Chambers who willingly supervised preliminary examinations for her has also taken on her teaching responsibili-

ties at this awkward stage of her absence. Behind all the years of striving that prepared the writer for independent work is a spiritual guardian--Miss May.A. Coggins.

She must include Mrs. Marie P. Baker and the lovely girls who lived in the same house with her. It would not have been possible for her to stay long with a problem if she had to do all the big and little things these friends offered to do for her.

Finally, the joy and confidence the writer has in a close-knit family like hers is really the root source of all this wonderful privilege to do rewarding work. She could not have even begun to think of so ambitious a program of traveling and study if she did not have them behind her. The best of them all are her four children who find room for the aspirations of their widowed mother in their own plans for the future-- and her own mother who considers it joy to lose herself in service in order that her children may find themselves.

Eliza U. Grino

Ann Arbor, Michigan

December 31, 1968

To

**My mother**

Mrs. Santiaga Yap de Uy

whose selflessness, brilliance,
resourcefulness, industry, bravery,
and loyal love for her children
have been my mainstay and inspiration

TABLE OF CONTENTS

TITLE PAGE . . . . . i

PREFACE . . . . . ii

DEDICATION . . . . . v

CHAPTER I. INTRODUCTION . . . . . 1

Background for the study--the teaching of English in the Philippines; the Hiligaynon speech system in its setting

The present study in relation to related studies--related studies; the basic problem of language instruction; limitations of the study

Methods of procedure--collection of data; preparation of basic data for analysis; the analysis; exemplification

Organization of the report--the classification of Hiligaynon sentences; description of the sentences; supplementary information

CHAPTER II. CLASSIFICATION BASED ON RELATIONS OF DEEP STRUCTURE TO SURFACE STRUCTURE . . . . . 20

Introduction. The verbless sentence--preliminary statements; the typical features of a verbless sentence; subtypes of verbless sentences

Subtype 1 of the verbless sentence--the subtype exemplified; classes of forms used as subject; expanded forms used as subject; negation of the subject; complements of a Subtype 1 verbless sentence; the significance of word order in Subtype 1

Subtype 2-a of the verbless sentence--Subtypes 1 and 2-a compared; subject forms of Subtype 2-a sentences; the expanded form of the complement

Subtype 2-b of the verbless sentence--Subtypes 2-a and 2-b contrasted; the complement of Subtype 2-b

Sentences with verbs . . . . . 44

Introduction--the sentence with a verb, defined;

"topic" and "comment" in Type 2; complements in Type 2 sentences; verb form and nature of response expected; the causative verb versus the simple verb

Sentences with simple, indicative verbs--sentences with non-inflective verbs; agent-focus sentences; goal-focus sentences; beneficiary-focus sentences; instrument-focus sentences

Sentences with indicative, causative verbs--the inflection for causative; the causative in Hiligaynon sentences

Sentences with simple, jussive verbs--inflections in the simple, jussive verb; the basic forms of the jussive verb; inflection for focus; "jussive reminiscent" inflection; summary

Sentences with causative, jussive verbs--the effect of the causative on the jussive verb

Other sentence types . . . . . 90

The sentence with an absolute construct as "topic"--the absolute construct as "topic"; the impersonal sentence; absolute constructs in impersonal sentences

On the variableness of the positions of sentence constituents . . . . . 92

CHAPTER III. CLASSIFICATION BASED ON COMPLEXITY OF STRUCTURE . . . . . 94

Introduction; the compound sentence--the compound sentence defined; the coordinators; examples of compound sentences; other positions of coordinators; parataxis

The complex sentence--the complex sentence defined; the subordinators; nga as general subordinator; the elliptical complex sentence; embedding in clauses

CHAPTER IV. CLASSIFICATION BASED ON ORDER OF OCCURRENCE IN DISCOURSE . . . . . 102

The "free" sentence--the "free" sentence, a review

The sequent sentence--the sequent sentence defined; the form of the sequent sentence; ellipsis in compound and complex sentences

CHAPTER V. CLASSIFICATION BASED ON EXPECTED RESPONSE . . . . . 105

Introduction--the expected response; distinguishing

features for classification

The statement--the statement defined; the simple, free statement; modifications in the intonation of a simple statement

The jussive sentences--features of a jussive sentence; intonation in a jussive sentence; the request; verbless jussive sentences; long utterances with jussive ideas; the inflection of the jussive verb

The questions-- distinguishing features of the question; intonation in questions; interrogative expressions as signals; the syntax of the specific question; question-reiterating particles; the question with alternatives; the verb in the question; the "indirect" question

CHAPTER VI. CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS . . . . . 124

Conclusions--the nature of the language; syntactic structures in Hiligaynon

Some implications of the study for teaching--difficulties with intonation; influence of Hiligaynon word order; the influence of other grammatical features;

Recommendations for further research

APPENDIX . . . . . 139

BIBLIOGRAPHY . . . . . 162

LIST OF TABLES


| Table | | Page |
|---|---|---|
| 1. | A Guide to Symbols Used in Analysis of Examples . . . . | 16 |
| 2. | Voice Patterns in Hiligaynon Verbs . . . . . | 83 |
| 3. | Nominals and Their Functions . . . . . | 87 |
| 4. | The Distribution of Frequencies for the Correlated Factors: S,V Arrangement of Beginning Sentences and Type of Discourse . . . . . | 159 |
| 5. | Frequency Counts for Two Sentence Arrangements at Different Positions in Discourses . . . . . | 161 |

## LIST OF ILLUSTRATIONS


| Figure | | Page |
|---|---|---|
| 1. | The Map of the Philippines Showing the Location of the West Visayas . . . . . | 4 |
| 2. | The Distribution of Speech Systems in the Major Islands of the West Visayas . . . . . | 5 |

# CHAPTER I

# INTRODUCTION

## A

## Background for the Study

1.0 The Teaching of English in the Philippines.--The problem of what language to use as medium of instruction in the Philippines has been a long-standing one. When popular education was started shortly after the American occupation of the islands at the turn of the century, all teaching was done in English. In 1940, although instruction was still in English, it was thought necessary that an indigenous language be taught as a national language, and the teaching of Tagalog was initiated. Later, the Philippine National Language Institute recommended the use of the so-called "national language" which has Tagalog as its base and incorporates items from other Philippine languages. The teaching of this "national language," first introduced at the college level, has steadily increased its scope until presently it is taught from the first grade up to the last year in high school.

After the completion of a study involving the use of the vernacular of a region as a medium of instruction, as compared to the use of English, it was recommended that instruction be in the vernacular in the first two grades, while both English and the national language be taught as subjects. This measure has been effected. In the third grade, the emphasis is changed. In this "transition period" English begins to be used as the medium of instruction. The national language

is still taught as a subject, and the use of the vernacular in formal instruction is discontinued. Although there has been talk about using the national language as the medium of instruction, this change has never materialized. In the immediate future, therefore, proficiency in the use of English will still be a requisite to adequate learning for the Filipino student.

At present, the teaching of English in the schools is handicapped in several ways. First, very many old teachers are difficult to retrain. If they have acceptable speech habits already, they seem unwilling to give up wrong ideas about language and its teaching. If they have faulty language habits, they compound the problem by teaching others faultily. Second, since most pupils are badly taught at the outset, remedial teaching falls to the lot of teachers at the more advanced levels. Third, present teaching materials, aside from being expensive and insufficient in quantity, may not even be valid for the specific purposes for which they are to be used. Fourth, the need for solution to all these problems is pressing; educational progress must be accelerated.

Experienced teachers of foreign languages have recommended tested procedures which should make English-language teaching not the frustrating task that it has become to both teachers and students. In the last few years, a better appreciation of the philosophy behind a new approach, a more diligent application of its suggested methodology, the production of some pertinent study materials, and closer attention to the preparation of teachers have resulted in a few generations of students who are readier of speech, more pleasant to listen to, and better able to understand the printed page.

2.0 The Hiligaynon Speech System in Its Setting.--Attention to classroom instruction is not quite complete if it is not recognized that part of the difficulty in instruction lies in the fact that one other language has been learned before the pupil receives instruction in the new one. In the West Visayas, this "first" language is Hiligaynon.

Some appreciation of the position of this speech system in the national picture will point up the importance of an extensive study of it for education.

The writer is hesitant to commit herself to an opinion about the status of Hiligaynon among the numerous recognizable varieties of speech reportedly to be found in the Philippines. Undisputed so far is its classification among the Malayo-Polynesian family of languages, and of the Malayan division.

The accompanying map, adapted from one proposed by Macario B. Ruiz,[1] shows the major islands of the group identified as the West Visayas, and the spread of Hiligaynon in that area in relation to two other speech systems in the area, and infection from another language(?) of the East Visayas group. The central island, called Panay, was the site of the original Malayan settlement. It is to be noted that Hiligaynon speakers occupy the coastal towns of the provinces of Iloilo and Capiz (hence, the name "Hiligaynon" from higad 'side; along the boundary'). The people of the mountainous interior of Iloilo and Capiz, and the west coast (the province of Antique) speak Kinaray-a, and the people of the northern tip of the island, in the province of Aklan,

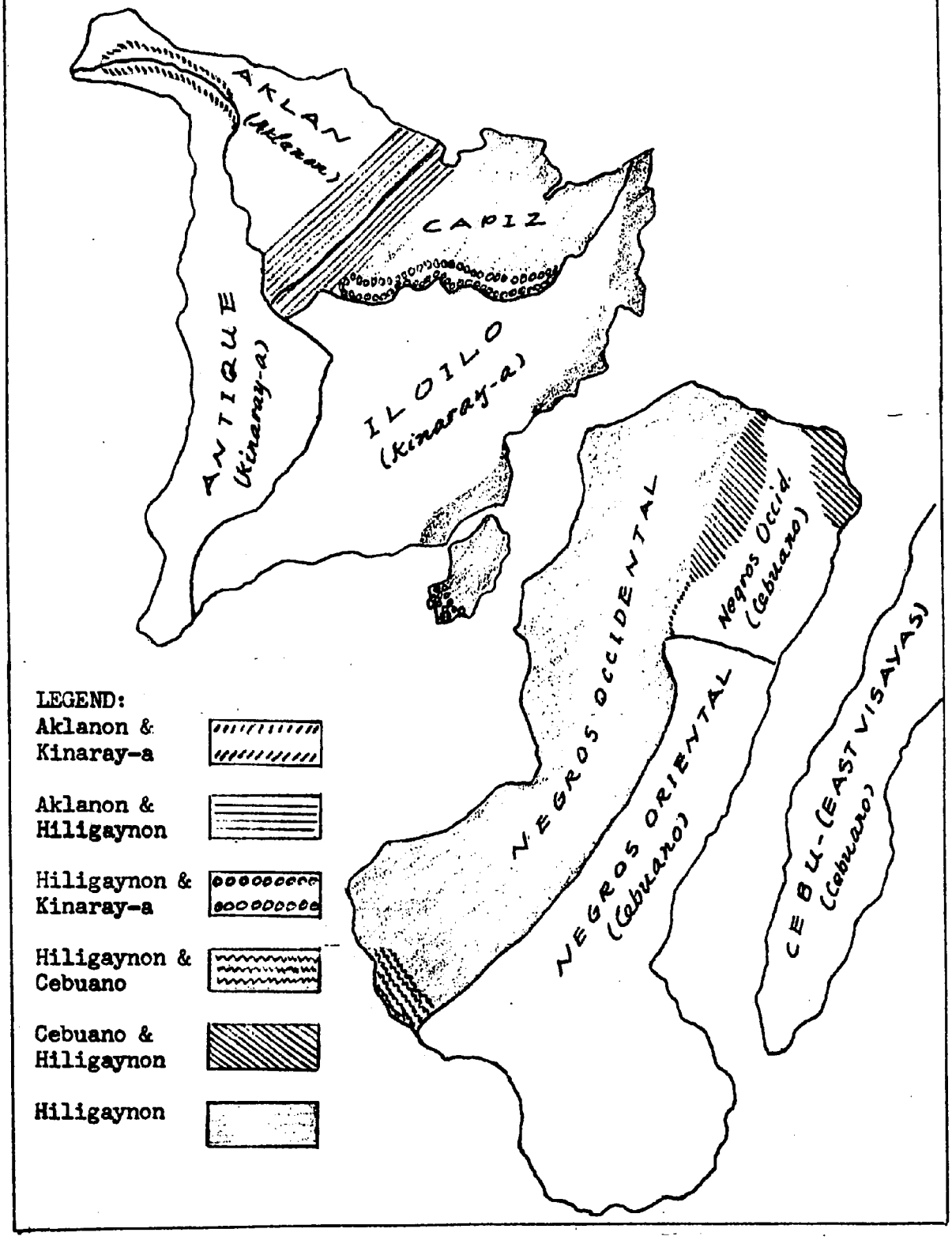
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[1] Macario B. Ruiz, A Contrastive Analysis of English and Hiligaynon Verbs (Iloilo City, Philippines: By the Author, 1960), p.3a.



Fig. 1.--The map of the Philippines showing the location of the West Visayas (shaded areas)

Fig. 2.--The distribution of speech systems in the major islands of the West Visayas



speak Aklan(on). The next big island, to the south, has been developed by migrants from Panay and from an island of the East Visayas called Cebu. The political division that runs along its "backbone" follows a mountain range that in the old days of poor communication neatly divided the island into Hiligaynon territory on the western side and Cebuano territory on the eastern side. It is to be noted that infections of each other's territory are at the tips where the mountains give way to the coastal plains.

In the West Visayas Hiligaynon can be considered the prestige speech because, although indigenous Hiligaynon speakers hardly bother to learn a "mountain" speech--and would even treat the native speaker of any other speech with condescension--the speaker of a Kinaray-a dialect tries to learn to speak Hiligaynon. The original reason for the bias is classic: the coastal towns include an important center, what used to be called "The Queen City of the South," Iloilo City. All the coastal towns also tend to be more progressive.

The last national census (1960) showed that speakers of Hiligaynon are found, in varying numbers, in all the provinces of the Philippines, except the northernmost. Hiligaynon speakers constituted ten and one half per cent of the total population in 1960.

## B

## The Present Study in Relation To Related Studies

1.0 Related Studies.

1.1 Early studies. The early studies in Hiligaynon grammar were done by missionaries. One by John Kaufmann, Principles of Visayan

Grammar,[1] prepared to serve as a manual for in-coming missionary priests, attempts to describe the sounds as well as the structure of Visayan (Hiligaynon) in traditional, even popular, terms. It incorporates in the description features of the particular dialect (Kinaray-a) of the parish which the author served.

Alton E. Bigelow, another missionary, prepared a pamphlet for the same purpose as Kaufmann's, but for another audience. In its preface it declares that "no special claim is made for the method of presentation, the sole idea being to so present the technical side of the study of Visayan as to make it simple and natural . . . ."[2] The pamphlet explains the use of the Roman alphabet in the writing of Hiligaynon, and some morphophonemic features. The pamphlet also includes a few lessons.

Both missionaries compiled dictionaries with bilingual entries, in Hiligaynon and English, to serve as companion volumes of their respective manuals.

Joseph T. Howard, in A Functional Approach to Hiligaynon Grammar, brings the layman's description of the language up to date.[3] Shortly after this work came out in mimeograph form, Macario B. Ruiz prepared a manual for teaching Hiligaynon to native speakers of English, but admitted that it was based on an "incomplete though intensive contrastive analysis of English and Hiligaynon."[4] Francisco Flores cites an

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[1]John Kaufmann, Principles of Visayan Grammar (Manila: The Catholic Trade School Press, 1916).

[2]Alton E. Bigelow, Outline for the Study of Panayan Visayan (Iloilo, Philippines: The American Baptist Foreign Mission Society, 1914.

[3]Joseph T. Howard, A Functional Approach to Hiligaynon Grammar (Iloilo City: The American Baptist Foreign Mission Societies, 1957).

[4]Macario B. Ruiz, An Intensive Course in Hiligaynon (Iloilo City: The American Baptist Foreign Mission Societies, 1960).

an unpublished work, in a collection, on the grammar of the "Bisayan language."[1] Since the source is in a part of the Philippines peopled by migrants from all over the Visayan archipelago, it is difficult to say at this point how much this study includes Hiligaynon.

1.2 Later studies. Although many foreign linguists have come to the Philippines in the past few years, not one of them has attempted work in Hiligaynon. The tendency has been to study Tagalog (probably because it is the national language) or the dialects or languages of minor groups, especially the so-called non-Christian tribes. Work on Hiligaynon, the native speech of ten and one half per cent of the population of the Philippines, has been done by teacher-scholars, especially teachers of English who have been concerned enough about their students' poor achievement to want to find out the nature and extent of their problem.

A study in phonology has been done by Purita A. Arandilla.[2] Macario B. Ruiz has done a series of studies in morphology, especially one on verbs[3] and its pedagogical implications.[4] Another of his

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[1] J. D. Bengh, v.d., "Analysis of the Syntax and the System of Affixes in the Bisayan Language," (Surigao, Philippines: Sacred Heart Missionaries, private collection, n.d.), quoted in Francisco Gubaton Flores, "A Contrastive Analysis of Selected Clause Types in Cebuano and English" (unpublished Ed.D. dissertation, The University of Michigan, 1962).

[2] Purita A. Arandilla, "The Phonemes of Hiligaynon." Unpublished manuscript, a report at The University of California at Los Angeles, 1961).

[3] Macario B. Ruiz, Contrastive Analysis of English and Hiligaynon Verbs (Iloilo City, Philippines: By the Author, 1960).

[4] _____, "Sequencing and Weighting Tense Categories for Hiligaynon Speakers Learning English" (unpublished Ed. D. dissertation, The University of California at Los Angeles, 1963).

studies is on nouns and adjectives.[1] Lily V. Kapili has done a study of what she considers common Hiligaynon patterns from recorded conversations.[2] Esperanza Catedral has attempted to isolate the basic Hiligaynon statement patterns.[3]

Loreto G. Juntado did a comparative study on number between English and Hiligaynon[4] in an attempt to discover the difficulties which a teacher may anticipate in the learning of this feature in English, by Hiligaynon-speaking students. Incidentally, the study describes salient features of Hiligaynon grammar as background for the main study. Two investigations have been reported on difficulties found in the learning of English because of the influence of the native speech of Hiligaynon students: Lucila Sobrepena reported on spelling difficulties,[5] and Blanca Sobrejuanite, on errors in the construction of the modification structure of the English noun.[6] In preparation in the summer of 1968 was the report of Adorada Z. Dichupa on trans-

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[1]Macario B. Ruiz, "Morphology of Hiligaynon Nouns and Adjectives," research sponsored by the Committee on International Exchange of Persons, Washington D. C., 1961.

[2]Lily V. Kapili, "A Study of Common Hiligaynon Patterns as an Approach to English" (unpublished Master's thesis, Central Philippine University, 1960).

[3]Esperanza M. Catedral, "A Comparative Study of English and Hiligaynon Sentence Structure Patterns for the Development of Materials for Teaching English as a Second Language" (unpublished Master's thesis, Central Philippine University, 1964).

[4]Loreto Grajo Juntado, "Number Concord in English and Hiligaynon" (unpublished Ph. D. dissertation, The University of Michigan, 1961).

[5]Lucila P. Sobrepena, "A Study of the Spelling Difficulties of High School Students in Iloilo City" (unpublished Master's thesis, Central Philippine University, Iloilo City, Philippines, 1963).

[6]Blanca Sobrejuanite, "Certain Common Sentence Structure Errors in English as Influenced by Hiligaynon" (unpublished Master's thesis, Central Philippine University, Iloilo City, Philippines, 1965).

fers of Hiligaynon structures into English compositions of samplings of college students in Iloilo City, Philippines.

The impression one gets from the sum of these studies is that:

(1) The study of Hiligaynon has been geared to some usefulness it may play in the study of English, and the study is usually approached from the side of English;

(2) The isolation of distinctive markers has been gross; hence, the minimal distinctive features that underlie surface forms are not clearly revealed, and their tactics not laid out to indicate the competence of the native speaker;

(3) When some "favorite" sentence pattern has been determined, it is considered the only expression of some basic meaning: e.g., a question has one distinguishing form of intonation, a command another, etc.;

(4) Patterns or processes which are pervasive in the structuring of the language are not detected nor their significance adequately understood.

2.0 The Basic Problem of Language Instruction.

2.1 The larger problem. All sound language instruction must be based on a good understanding of the language to be learned and of the language which the pupil commands before instruction in the new language begins. Experience in teaching foreign languages of various kinds brings out the fact that both teacher and student have to contend with a previous set of speech habits and a previously set way of ordering the report of experience.

To the preparation of instructors for the teaching of a foreign language, therefore, there needs to be added the study of the habits of speech and thinking of the pupil to the end that at least the teacher

should be apprised of the possible difficulties in the way of the learner. So much more purposeful teaching can be effected when the teachers understand where, specifically, a student's difficulty is, and what the most probable cause may be. The sad fact about the teaching of English in the West Visayas, the part of the Philippines where Hiligaynon is spoken, is that there has been no attempt to teach teachers-in-training how to describe their own speech.

Although some recent studies have already been done in Hiligaynon (and these will be reported elsewhere), the attempt to describe large patterns in Hiligaynon has been passed over for some more "practical" limited studies, like a comparison of this English feature with that Hiligaynon feature. The writer has participated in and guided some such studies. Tendency of such limited studies, without larger perspective, to simplistic explanations that understate the working of the language became apparent when this study was underway.

The grave implications of such errors are obvious. Far more than the distorting of fact is the ensuing danger that wrong conclusions may be drawn from the investigation, the wrong perspective taken, the wrong teaching methods brought to apply, the wrong teaching materials prepared, more ineffectual learning demanded, more remedial effort expended--the ills and losses can be extended beyond this list. This is not to say that knowledge of the whole system of Hiligaynon on the part of the teacher of English in the West Visayas will solve all his teaching problems. It is only suggested that such knowledge may prevent many of the errors, and the ills that they bring, from cropping up.

2.2 The problem for this study. In anticipation, therefore, of

the time when national officials in charge of education in the Philippines will come to realize the necessity of including the study of regional speech systems in the program of training for language teachers, the writer would like to contribute to the studies on the language of her region. The views of respected linguists have persuaded her to consider that some attempt at a total description of a larger aspect of the grammar of Hiligaynon is the most essential project in studies in this language at the present time. Chomsky says:

> The grammar of a language is a complex system with many and varied interconnections between its parts. In order to develop one part of grammar thoroughly, it is often useful, or even necessary, to have some picture of the character of a completed system.[1]

Nida, upon taking on a project in linguistic description with a broad scope, said:

> But rather than take one small section and develop it to completeness, the writer has chosen to indicate the adaptability of the techniques to the broad patterns of English syntax and to set forth the framework by a method which can be fitted in by continuing research, thus avoiding specialization which in many ways has hampered the development of a general methodology for syntax.[2]

In the same spirit, the writer has undertaken the present project. The study is mainly concerned with the discovery and the description of the features which are significant in sentence-making in Hiligaynon, especially of such patterns as are found in the speech of the Filipino schoolchild and of the people in his immediate environment. It is also one of the objectives of the investigation to base the description on the most spontaneous utterances of the informants because such utterances are believed to be the most likely to give evidence of speech

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[1]Noam Chomsky, Syntactic Structures ('S-Gravenhage: Mouton & Co., 1966), p. 60.

[2]Eugene A. Nida, Synopsis of English Syntax (The Hague, Mouton and Co., 1966), p. 49.

habits that hardly rise to conscious attention yet have the most telling influence on the learning of another language.

The investigation will attempt, at the least, to reveal the general outlines of different kinds of sentences--some "framework" to be filled in by more intensive, specialized later studies.

Finally, it is also the objective of this work to present the findings in a way that will make it readily understandable and useful to teachers-in-training in the West Visayas, considering their anticipated lack of training in linguistics.

3.0 Limitations of the Study.--The attempted description will concern itself basically with that register of the language which Hiligaynon native speakers tend to use in carrying on the daily routines of the community whether in speech or in writing, in which a schoolchild may participate. Since it is the syntax of such speech which is to be laid out, morphology wil be of secondary importance here; hence, much of the information about it will be put in the appendices. Such sentence types as "social formulas" and exclamations will be excluded.

The study of words as lexical items will be only incidental to the exemplification of grammatical features. Furthermore, since the study of the phonemic system, as such, is not part of the main problem either, the illustrative sentences will be given in ordinary orthography. The relation between phoneme and grapheme is shown in Appendix A.

## D

## Methods of Procedure

1.0 Collection of Data.--Since one of the ultimate objectives of this investigation is to provide source material for further investi-

gation into the learning of languages by the Filipino schoolchild, one of the prime considerations in the collection of the data was to ensure the representativeness of the material. By representativeness is meant that the data should have samplings of schoolchild speech and the speech of adults who directly influence the development of the speech habits of children--like parents and other near kin, household help, and teachers. It was therefore decided to record the conversation of four well-knit groups that met this criterion and that were on such familiar footing with the writer that naturalness of conversation was ensured.

For supplement, a transcription of old recordings of conversations, amounting to about 350 pages of text, was kept on hand. For reference and possible reinterpretation, Ruiz's compilation of verbs was also kept on hand, along with an old translation of the Bible into Hiligaynon. Finally, a collection was made of the two beginning paragraphs of all new stories (i.e., not continuations) and all news and articles from a sampling of issues of two newsmagazines in Hiligaynon.

2.0 Preparation of Basic Data for Analysis.--In the transcription of the recordings, careful note was taken of the pitch levels, the evident breaks, and change of speakers.

The transcription was subsequently transferred to three-by-four slips, each of which was reproduced twenty-five times. The goal was to account for every grammatical sign that could be found in every slip and to file under a proper heading every occurrence of each feature. Every conceivable signalling device or combination of devices that the writer could discern was given a section in the filing.

3.0 The Analysis.--The classification of features, as described above, put together all occurrences of the same "form." The second

step was to decide whether all occurrences of that form were evidences of the use of the same significant unit[1] or not. If a form was shown to represent more than one significant unit, the environments that tell the different units apart were described.

When it was discerned that options in position and form were frequent, a frequency count was taken of each option, for some indication of patterns of preference. In syntax, this was especially valuable in deciding about the preferences for front positions or post positions, for one intonational pattern or another over the same word arrangement. In this way, basic or "neutral" patterns were determined, and minor patterns were described in terms of the modification which they effect on the basic patterns.

Finally, when the long-observed freedom of arrangement of the subject (in relation to its verb or subject complement) was confirmed by analysis, and when no significant explanation for this "behavior" could be discerned from the analysis of sentence structure itself, the analysis was extended into the discourse level. The arrangements--subject before subject complement or verb, and vice versa--were treated as preferences of behavior. The factors most likely to correlate with these two syntactic arrangements (these were two general types of discourse) were chosen, and their possible relationships were submitted to the kind of statistical analysis considered appropriate.

4.0 Exemplification.--Hiligaynon sentences given as illustrations of some syntactical feature being discussed are also given analysis and gloss. If the close translation is not in acceptable English,

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[1]By "unit" is meant a morphological or a syntactical unit.

usually a second translation is given in parenthesis. A guide to the interpretation of the symbols used in the analysis of the examples is given below.

TABLE 1

A GUIDE TO SYMBOLS USED IN ANALYSIS OF EXAMPLES

Abs - Absolute construct
Adj - Adjectival; sometimes simply identified as Mod
Adv - Adverbial; sometimes simply identified as Mod
AgPr - Agentive case form of the personal pronoun
Agt - Agent of verb action
Ar - Article

Ben - Beneficiary of verb action

C - Connector in a noun/verb modification structure
Co - Coordinator; a connector of two grammatical units of equal rank
Compl - Complement; Compl-S=Subject compl.; Compl-1, etc.=Verb compl.

Dem - Demonstrative pronoun

GnPr - Genitive case of the personal pronoun

Hol - Holophrastic word

InPr - Indefinite pronoun
Ins - Instrument of verb action

Mod - Modifier; used when the nature of the modifier is not specified
Mdl - Modal verb

N - Noun; nominalized forms are indicated thus: N,Adj=a nominalized adjectival form; N,V=a nominalized verb, etc.
Neg - Negator
NomP - Nominative case form of the personal pronoun
Nu - Numeral, whether ordinal or cardinal

Plu - Plural; a plural-forming particle

Q - Interrogative expression
Ql - Qualifier; a modifying particle
Qu - Quantifier

Rel - Relator; a connector showing relation other than those designated by Sub, C, and Co

Sub - Subordinating connector, unlike C or Co above
Subj - Subject of the sentence or clause

V - Verb of the sentence; occasionally the uninflected form is given

TABLE 1--Continued.

to contrast with the inflected form in the sentence
Voc - Vocative

## E

## Organization of the Report

1.0 The Classification of Hiligaynon Sentences.--In classifying sentences, one may approach the undertaking from any or all of four different perspectives. One may consider the intent of the speaker, isolate the "units" of that intent, and discern how these units are realized in the structuring of an utterance. Or, one may consider the structuring of the utterance alone and on the basis of recurrence of meaningful patterns classify sentences. Or, one could consider the effect of the position of a sentence in discourse as a possible basis for classification. It is even fruitful to classify sentences according to the nature of the response expected by the speaker. Hiligaynon sentences have overt markers that make it possible to classify them from all these aforementioned perspectives.

In outline, Hiligaynon sentences can be classified thus:

I. Classification based on the realization of the "units" of intent: "topic" and "comment"

A. With topic and comment

1. Sentences with subject realizing "topic"

a. Verbless sentences

(1) Subtype 1 (with "ang" construct[1] as subject)

(2) Subtype 2

---

[1]This form stands for equivalent forms as well.

(a) Subtype 2-a (with "sa" construct[1] as subject)

(b) Subtype 2-b (with "sang" construct[1] as subject)

b. Sentences with verbs

(1) Agent-focus sentences (with "agent" as subject)

(2) Goal-focus sentences (with "goal" as subject)

(3) Beneficiary-focus sentences (with "beneficiary" as subj.)

(4) Instrument-focus sentences (with "instrument" as subject)

2. Sentences with absolute construct realizing "topic"

B. With comment only--the impersonal (subjectless) sentences

II. Classification based on complexity of structure

A. Simple sentences

B. Compound sentences

C. Complex sentences

III. Classification based on order of occurrence in discourse

A. "Free" sentences

B. Sequent sentences

IV. Classification based on expected response

A. Statements

B. Jussive sentences

C. Questions

2.0 Description of the Sentences.--The description of each sentence type will proceed as follows:

(1) The sentence type will be defined by describing the minimal features that characterize it and distinguish it from other types. (The types which are contrasted are those that are isolated after analysis

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[1]These forms stand for equivalent forms as well.

from one perspective.)

(2) Examples will be given to illustrate each type.

(3) Each sentence constituent (or function slot) will also be defined, and the forms that are used in that function will be enumerated. The description of intonation will start with a definition of the basic pattern.

(4) If a minimal form can be expanded, the patterns of expansion will be described. If a pattern can be modified, i.e., reshaped instead of just being expanded, the significant variations from the basic pattern will also be identified.

(5) If there is a basic word order, this will be described first; then optional arrangements will be presented, if there are any. If there are any restrictions to the re-ordering of sentence constituents, these will also be pointed out.

3.0 Supplementary Information.--When the proposed classification of Hiligaynon sentences has been demonstrated, a summary characterization of the language will be attempted and some implications for the teaching of another language, especially English, to Hiligaynon speakers will be pointed out. Some projects for research which are immediately suggested by the present work will be mentioned.

The appendices will contain supplementary information about Hiligaynon morphology. From time to time reference to them will be given wherever fuller discussion of a feature of word building may be found needful.

## CHAPTER II

## CLASSIFICATION BASED ON RELATIONS OF DEEP STRUCTURE TO SURFACE STRUCTURE

1.0 Introduction.--This presentation is based on the assumption that when a speaker makes a sentence, he is giving expression to an intended message that will tell the hearer what is uppermost in his interest at the moment of speaking, and what particular "something" about this object of interest is of current importance to him. These two parts of the intended message are called "topic" and "comment," respectively. The realization of both or only one of them in a sentence is a significant consideration in the classification of sentences.

A "free" sentence, i.e., one that is unconditioned[1] by previous utterances, is most likely to have both "topic" and "comment." Without "topic," a "free" sentence is likely to be an impersonal sentence, a type that will be described later.

In a minimal "free" sentence, "topic" is realized by the subject, and "comment" is realized by the predicate. The first classification of sentences to be attempted here is based on the kind of constituent(s) to be found in the predicate. On this basis, sentences are classified as either verbless sentences (Type 1) or sentences with verbs (Type 2). Further subclassification of either type of sentence is based on the relation of the forms that function as subject to the

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[1] "Unconditioned" can be further defined as (1) being a starting sentence of a communication situation, or (2) being the beginning sentence of a new topic for discourse.

forms that function as predicate.

## Part I

## The Verbless Sentence

### A. Preliminary Statements.

1.0 The Typical Features of a Verbless Sentence.--The verbless sentence is composed of the subject and a complement which either gives the identity of the subject, or a characterization of it, or its location. Each of these main divisions may have minimal or expanded forms, and the nuclear relationship of subject and complement may itself be modified. For reference, this sentence may be called Type 1.

2.0 Subtypes of Verbless Sentences.--There are two subtypes of verbless sentences. The first subtype, which may be considered as the most commonly used, has for subject four kinds of forms typified by the "ang" construct, a member of a class of marked nominals. The other forms parallel this construct in this and other functions. The subtype also has a variety of forms for complement. Semantically, it presents an objective report on characterization, identification, or location of the subject. The second subtype has for subject forms which have other markers than those found with the subject of the first subtype. Its complement is, regularly, a ka- inflected descriptive.[1] The construction, semantically, is more like a strong commentary on the subject than an objective report. This subtype can be further subdivided into two others: one with nominal constructs marked by the articles sa, sa kay, and sang for subject, and the other using in the

[1]For the definition of this class, see Appendix F, Section 6.0.

same function nominal constructs marked by the articles sang and ni, and the agentive case form of the personal pronoun.[1] The complement of the latter subtype, although still a ka- inflected form, is restricted to expressions of states of feeling.

Each of these subtypes will be described in a separate section. A treatment of the expansion of either subject or complement will be given with the description of the first subtype.

B. Subtype 1 of the Verbless Sentence.

1.0 The Subtype Exemplified.--Below are some examples of this subtype of sentences. The subjects are four different forms whose class membership will be identified later.

1. A si construct[2] as subject

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Didto | si Jose. | 'Joe is/was there.' |
| there | Joe | |
| Compl-S[3] | Subj | |

2. An ang construct as subject

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Ang tawo | tigulang. | 'The man is old.' |
| man | old | |
| Subj | Compl-S | |

3. A personal pronoun as subject

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Matahum | sia. | 'She is pretty.' |
| pretty | she | |
| Compl-S | Subj | |

4. A demonstrative pronoun as subject

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Ina | bata. | 'That is a child.' |
| that | child | |
| Subj | Compl-S | |

---

[1] See Appendix C, "Hiligaynon Deictics."

[2] Henceforth, all nominal constructs will be identified by their articles.

[3] Compl-S=Subject complement; complement of the verbless sentence.

1.1 Three features in these minimal constructions need to be explained. Already mentioned is the subject form peculiar to this construction and its possible expansion. Another is the variety in forms which may serve as complement. The last is the relative ordering of these constituents.

2.0 Classes of Forms Used as Subject.--The four types of subjects used above come from four classes of nominals.[1] The first two are marked by particles which are regularly associated with forms used in this function, although they are also used in two other ways which will later on be discussed along with expanded sentence forms. The last two subject forms are deictic forms.

2.1 Si constructs as subjects. The constructs marked by si are personal nominals (which are usually nouns[2]). The term "personal" refers to the mention of a specific person, or persons; and the class includes personal names, titles, and positions in the kinship hierarchy. Some idea of the kinds of expressions marked by si are the following items:

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[1]The term "nominals" names a larger group, a "category." The category "nominals" is that group of classes from which come forms that fulfill such substantive functions as subject, verb complements, and object of relators. These are the basic functions of Hiligaynon nominals although they may have other functions like that of being modifier.

[2]"Noun" is the name for a class of words which can be distinguished from other nominals by either form or nature of modification. Nouns have distinctive derivation (See Appendix B). Negatively, nouns can be distinguished from deictic nominals which, unlike nouns, are items in closed classes. Furthermore, some forms may have different meanings when they are in noun modification structures than when they are in verb modification structures. For example, a sang construct may be adjectival when associated with a noun but express complementation with a verb. Semantically, a noun usually refers to a "thing," a helpful distinction when only roots are used in a sentence where distinguishing markers are also absent in other forms or constructs.

| | |
|---|---|
| si Tita Ester 'Aunt Ester' | si Santa Claus 'Santa Claus' |
| si Mommy 'Mother' | si Rudolph 'Rudolph |
| siManang Weng '(Older) Sister Weng' | si Dr. Ruiz 'Dr. Ruiz' |
| si Lola Tiaga 'Grandma Tiaga' | si Chinito 'Chinito' |

2.1.1 The personal article si also carries the meaning 'singular'. The plural form of a personal nominal is marked by sanday, thus:

1a. Didto sanday Jose.

'Jose and his company are/were there.'

It is to be noted from the example above that the "plural" sanday Jose does not refer to several boys by that name, but to a boy, Jose, and his companions.

2.2 Ang constructs as subject. The construct marked by ang is here called non-personal. The types of forms which may be marked by ang (and may therefore function as subject[1]) are of various kinds:

1. A true noun

   ang siya 'a/the chair'

2. A pronominal form

   ang iban 'the others'

   ang iya 'the his/hers' (his/hers)

3. A verb form

   ang gadalagan 'the (one who) is running'

4. A modifying form

   ang didto 'the (thing which is) there'

   ang matahum 'the pretty (one)'

---

[1]The only two other uses of the ang construct are as subject complement and as absolute construct.

Ang may even be attached to a phrase:

5. ang halin sa ibabaw 'the (thing which is) from above'
   from place above

6. ang gadalagan sa dalan 'the (one who) is running on the road'
   V=dalagan N
   run road

2.2.1 "Number" is not distinguished in non-personal constructs by the article. Plurality in this class of nominals is marked by the particle mga /maŋa/ and by the use of the paired affixes ka- -an with some true nouns.

2.2.1.1 The particle mga means 'more than one unit of.'

ang mga siya 'the chairs'

ang mga bata' '(the) children'

ang mga iban 'some/the others'

ang mga gadalagan 'those who are running'

ang mga didto 'those that are there'

ang mga matahum 'those who are pretty'

2.2.1.1.1 It may also be said that a plural form ang mga Jose may occur, as well as sanday Jose, but the meaning of it is different: 'the boys all named Jose.' The change of articles also changes the class of the nominal: ang mga Jose is a non-personal nominal.

2.2.1.2 The paired affixes ka- -an are found only in the plural forms of true nouns. They may jointly be synonymous with mga in that one can say ang mga bata' or ang kabata-an to refer to 'children.' The affixes may be used, however, to refer to a totality which is not just a sum, as in:

ang saging 'a/the banana'; ang kasagingan 'banana plantation'

ang Katsila 'a/the Spaniard'; ang kakatsila-an 'the Spanish people'

ang ma-ayo 'the good'; ang ka-ayohan 'the welfare'

2.3 Personal pronouns as subject. The nominative case of the personal pronouns has seven forms which are regularly used as subjects:

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| First person: | singular | - ako | 'I' |
| | plural, inclusive | - kita | 'we' (you and I) |
| | plural, exclusive | - kami | 'we' (they/he/she and I) |
| Second person: | singular | - ikaw | 'you' |
| | plural | - kamo | 'you' |
| Third person: | singular | - sia | 'he/she' |
| | plural | - sila | 'they' |

2.3 The nominative case of the demonstrative pronouns has three forms which are used as subject:

ini 'this'

ina 'that'

yadto 'that yonder'

Sometimes these forms are also marked by ang.

3.0 Expanded Forms Used as Subject.

3.1 The first expanded form described so far is the plural form of the non-personal nominal, the form of which can be thus represented: + ang + mga + Nominal. Another plural subject form is a compound such as: ± Ar + Nominal + Co ± Ar + Nominal

si Maria kag sia 'Mary and she'

ini kag ina 'this and that'

3.2 Another modification structure of a nominal used as subject is the form: + ang + adjectival + nga + nominal, in which "adjectival" is a slot filled by a descriptive, an ordinal, a quantifier, a demon-

strative, or an indefinite[1]; nga is a connector, and the nominal is usually a noun.

1. ang naha-una nga bata' 'the first child'
   (ordinal) N

2. ang matahum nga bata' 'the pretty child'
   (descriptive)

3. ang iban nga kabata-an 'the other/some children'
   indefinite N

4. (ang) ina'[1] nga bata' 'that child'
   Dem.

3.3 The construct: + ang + Noun + Directive can be thus exemplified:

1. ang tawo diri 'the man here'

2. ang kwarta dira' 'the money there'

3. ang bata' didto 'the child there yonder'

3.4 Another modification structure for nominals is the form: + ang + Genitive Pronoun + Noun.

1. ang akon edad 'my age'

2. ang aton balay 'our (your and my) house'

3. ang amon duta' 'our (their and my) land'

4. ang imo bayo' 'your dress'

5. ang inyo suga' 'your (plural) lamp'

6. ang iya ngalan 'his name'

7. ang ila caro 'their cart'

3.5 The construct above is synonymous with a construct having the agentive case forms of the personal pronoun. Another way of expressing the (same) meanings above, therefore, would be:

---

[1]See Appendix F, "Modifiers."

1a. ang edad nakon

2a. ang balay naton

3a. ang duta` namon

4a. ang bayo` nimo

5a. ang suga` ninyo

6a. ang ngalan niya

7a. ang caro nila[1]

3.6 The objective[2] case forms of the demonstrative pronouns can occupy the same positions as those of the agentive forms above:

1b. ang edad sini 'the age of this (person)'

2b. ang balay sina` 'the house of that (person)'

3b. ang duta` sadto 'the land of that (aforesaid but unseen person)'

The same structure can be further expanded to:

1c. ang edad sini nga tawo 'the age of this person/man'

2c. ang balay sina` nga tawo 'the house of that person/man'

3c. ang duta` sadto nga mga tawo 'the land of those persons/men'

3.6.1 The nominative case forms as modifiers may also occupy postposition:

1d. ang edad (nga) ina`/na` 'that age'

3.7 The ang construct may also have for modifier another con-

[1]This interchangeability of the two case forms has led to the impression that the two are allomorphs. However, Example 2 in Section 2.2 above shows that this is not the case. There are other uses of the genitive form which the agentive form does not share. The position, however, is significant for emphasis. Here, as elsewhere in this language, where options in position are given, a front position is more emphatic than a postposition. So, in the case above, it can be said that some emphasis is given to the pronominal modifier in the first set of forms, as to say, for example, 'my age, not somebody else's ....'

[2]The demonstrative pronouns have just two cases: nominative and objective.

struct marked by another article. Another modification structure, then, is: + ang + Noun + sa/sang/ni construct.

1. ang edad sang bata 'the age of the child'

2. ang tawo sa balay 'the man in the house'

3. ang kwarta sa lamisa 'the money on the table'

4. ang kwarta ni Jose 'the money of Joe/Joe's money'

2.8 Another modifying construct for forms used as subject is a relator[1] construct, which may occupy the same position as the sang/sa construct, as in:

1. ang obra halin sa aga 'the work from morning'
   N Rel Ar N
   work from morning

2. ang panakayon tubtub sa Manila 'the voyage up to Manila'
   N Rel Ar N
   voyage until

3.9 Another type of modifier is an intensifier. There are four subtypes of intensifiers: (1) the form iya, (2) the form gid, (3) the demonstrative with a personal pronoun, and (4) a corresponding genitive form of a personal pronoun in the nominative case. Some examples are:

1. ang bata iya 'the child himself'

   sia iya 'he himself'

2. ang bata gid 'the child himself/really the child

   sia gid 'he himself/really he

3. ina sia 'that he' (that very person)

4. ako akon ' I myself'

   ikaw imo 'you yourself'

3.10 Some other particles may also modify a noun. These items

---

[1]For a list of Hiligaynon relators, see Appendix J, "Connectors." A relator construct=relator + nominal construct.

are collectively called qualifiers,[1] of which intensifiers are a subclass. Some examples of their use are:

ang bata` man 'the child also'
pa 'the child also/yet'
lang 'the child only'

3.11 A clausal modifier for a noun may have this form: + ang + Noun + nga + Predicate. "Predicate" stands for either the subject complement (if the modifying clause is the verbless type) or the verb with or without its complements and modifiers (if the modifying clause is the type with a verb).[2]

1. ang bata` nga matahum 'the child who is pretty'
N Sub Adj

2. ang tawo nga gadalagan 'the man who is running'
N Sub V

3.12 Ina` 'that' as subject is likely to have an appositive if its complement is another "general" word, as in:

| Nano | ina` | ang | ginakaptan | mo? |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Q | Dem | Ar | N,V=kaput | AgPr |
| what | that | | hold | you |
| Compl | Subj | Appositive | | |

'What is that which is being held by you?'

4.0 Negation of the Subject.--The negative form of a verbless sentence may have either the subject or the complement negated. The negation of the subject is effected by placing the negator indi` before the subject form, thus: indi` + ang construct/nominative pronoun.

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[1] See Appendix F, "Modifiers."

[2] A sentence with this modification structure is no longer minimal. The discussion of other complex sentences will be taken up in Chapter III.

1. Indi' ang bata' ang matahum.
   Neg Subj Compl-S
   not child pretty

   'Not the child is the pretty one.'

   (It is not the child who is pretty.)

2. Indi' ina' ang matalum.
   Neg Subj Compl-S

   'Not that is the sharp one.'

   (Not that one is the one which is sharp.)

3. Indi' sia ang gadalagan.
   Neg Subj Compl-S

   'Not he is the one who is running.'

   (It is not he who is running.)

It is to be noted that the complement is an ang construct also. This sentence construction should later on be contrasted with the sentence where the complement is negated.

5.0 Complements of a Subtype 1 Verbless Sentence.--The fact that the complement of this subtype of verbless sentence has at least three semantic meanings to express is reflected in the many kinds of forms that fulfill this function. These forms are either adjectival: genitive pronouns, numerals, descriptives, complementives,[1] directives,[1] sa constructs, relator constructs; or substantival: "unmarked"[2] nouns, or ang constructs. They may be regrouped according to their "comment" on the subject, thus:

---

[1]See Appendix C, "Hiligaynon Deictics."

[2]"Unmarked" here means that the noun has no article before it. It may be marked in other ways--by having distinctive affixation or modification.

A. To identify the subject

1. unmarked nouns

2. ang constructs

3. relator constructs with amo as relator

B. To characterize[1] the subject

1. genitive pronouns

2. numerals

3. descriptives

4. relator constructs with pareho/subong as relator

C. To give location of the subject in time or space

1. directives

2. complementives

3. sa constructs

4. other relator constructs

5.1 Complements identifying the subject. The use, or non-use, of ang with a substantive complement basically signifies whether the subject is to be identified as a member of a class, or as an individual. The contrast in usage is shown in:

1. Si nanay ma-estra. 'Mother is a teacher.'
   mother teacher
   Subj Compl-S

2. Si nanay ang ma-estra.[2] 'Mother is the teacher.'
   Subj Compl-S

---

[1]Obviously, the meaning of the term "characterize" has been extended, but only to contrast it with "located at," which is the third meaning of this type of subject complement.

[2]A case like this of a sentence having equivalent expressions for subject and complement raises the question of which to consider the subject. The issue is more complex when both sentence divisions are filled by ang constructs. This problem will be discussed in the next section, on word order.

5.1.1 An interesting issue is raised when a verb is nominalized, as in:

| Ang bata' | ang nagadalagan. |
|---|---|
| N | V=is running |
| Subj | Compl-S |

'The child is the one who is running.'

The sentence can be transformed into a perfectly acceptable Type 2 sentence (i.e., one with a verb) simply by omitting ang:

Ang bata' nagadalagan. 'The child is running.'

The question is: Of what significance is such subtle distinction in form and meaning? This difference appears to illustrate one of the contrasts in the range of distinctive constructions showing degrees of emphasis which may be given a nuclear constituent of a Type 2 Hiligaynon sentence. The verbless sentence cited here typifies a "pole." This particular pole shows the subject as the center of emphasis. The other pole is a sentence with the verb as the center, and the only nuclear constituent, in it. This position will be elaborated in appropriate sections in the second part of this chapter.

5.1.2 The minimal forms given in the foregoing examples may be expanded in any of the ways outlined for the expansion of subject forms. For example:

| | |
|---|---|
| 1. Si nanay ma-estra. | 'Mother is a teacher. |
| ... ma-estra man. | '... is a teacher also.' |
| ... ma-estra namon. | '... is our teacher.' |
| ... ma-estra sa ciudad. | '... is a teacher in the city.' |
| ... ma-estra nga ma-ayo. | '... is a teacher who is good.' |
| ... ma-ayo nga ma-estra. | '... is a good teacher.' |

2. Si nanay ang ma-estra. 'Mother is the teacher.

... ang ma-estra nakon. '... is my teacher.'

... ang ila ma-estra. '... is their teacher.'

... ang ma-ayo nga ma-estra.'... is the good teacher.'

5.1.3 The relator construct introduced by amo is another expression of identity.

Si nanay amo ang ma-estra. 'Mother is the teacher.'

5.2 Complements characterizing the subject.

5.2.1 The distinctive positions of a genitive pronoun as subject complement are: (1) at the end of the sentence (after the complete subject) and (2) before the article introducing the subject form, as in:

1. Ang kwarta akon. 'The money is mine.'

2. Akon ang kwarta. 'The money is mine.

This use of the genitive pronoun is to be contrasted with its use in a modification structure:

3. Ang akon kwarta .... 'My money ....'

5.2.2 The use of numerals as complements is exemplified by the following sentences:

1. Ang akon edad dies. 'My age is ten.' (I am ten years old.)

2. Duha ang nagadalagan. 'The ones who are running are two.'
(Two are running.)

3. Ang bata\ naha-una. 'The child is first.'

5.2.3 True characterization is implied in the use of descriptives as subject complement. In the expression of this semantic meaning, Hiligaynon begins to be selective as to form and syntactic construction. In a Subtype 1 verbless sentence, only the root form or the ma- inflected form of the descriptive occurs. This sentence simply

reports the "presence" of a characteristic.[1]

1. Ang bata\ matahum. 'The child is pretty.'

2. Guapa ang bata\. 'The child is pretty.'

3. Ang isa daku\. 'One is big.'

4. Ma-ayo ang negosyo diri. 'Business here is good.'

5.2.3.1 The descriptive may itself be modified. One modification structure is: Modifier + ka[2] + Descriptive.

1. Ang lamisa amo[3] ka daku\.
(Subj) same big

'The table is this big.'

2. Sobra ka "bright" ang kabata-an.
"extra" (Subj)

'The children are very bright.'

Another modification structure is: + Descriptive + Qualifier and/or ka-ayo, as in:

1. Ang bata\ daku\ ka-ayo. 'The child is very big.'

2. Ang iya pagla-um daku\ gid. 'His hope is truly great.'

3. Ang iya bata\ daku\ man ka-ayo. 'Her child is also very big.'

A third type is: + Descriptive + sa/sang construct, as in:

1. Ina\ bagay sa imo. 'That is fit for you.'

2. Ang tawo malaw-ay sang dagway. 'The man is ugly in appearance.'

5.2.4 The relator constructs introduced by pareho/subong 'like' are also used as characterizing complements.

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[1]The other inflectional form of the descriptive occurs in Subtypes 2a and 2b. These sentences also differ from Subtype 1 in structural meaning.

[2]Ka is the "empty" connector also used in noun modification structures.

[3]Amo in this construct is adverbial. Cf. with examples in 5.1.3, directly above.

1. Ang akon bayo\ pareho sang imo.
   (Subj) Rel Ar GnPr
   like your

'My dress is like yours.'

2. Ang iya gin-obra subong sina\.
   GnPr N,V=obra Rel Dem
   his work that

'The thing that was done by him was similar to that.'

5.3 The location of the subject in space or time is signalled by four types of forms:

1. By a directive:

Si Jose didto./Didto si Jose. 'Joe is/was there.'

2. By a complementive:

Si Jose ari./Ari si Jose. 'Joe is in here.'

3. By a sa construct:

Ang libro sa balay./Sa balay ang libro. 'The book is in the house'

4. By a relator construct:

Ang obra halin sa aga./
Halin sa aga ang obra. 'The work is from (the) morning.'

5.3.1 In the above types of construction, more than in any other verbless sentences, the open juncture between subject and complement (when they occur in this order) is significant. The examples for 1,3, and 4 have been shown elsewhere to be identical with modification structures of nouns, but in the latter structures only normal transition between items occurs. As noun modification structures, they would mean:

1a. Joe there ....

3a. The book in the house ....

4a. The work from morning ....

Of course, the inclusion of any of these constructs in expanded structures may resolve the ambiguity. This problem becomes probable in sequent sentences where the occurrence of ellipsis is high.

5.3.2 The deictic forms tend to be reinforced by modifying structures which particularize "place." (Time expressions may also be added.) Examples of such expansions are:

1. Si Jose didto sa eskwelahan kahapon.
   school yesterday

   'Joe was there in the schoolhouse yesterday.'

2. Si Jose ara\ sa eskwelahan.

   'Joe is in there, in the schoolhouse.'

3. Ang libro ara\ dira\.[1]

   'The book is in that very place.'

5.4 Negation of the complement. Negation of the complement may be expressed by placing indi\ before the characterizing or identifying complement, as in:

1. Si nanay indi\ ma-estra./Indi\ ma-estra si nanay.

   'Mother is not a teacher.'

2. Si nanay indi\ ang ma-estra.

   'Mother is not the teacher.'

Complements "locating" the subject are preceded by wala\, except the complementive for which there is no negative expression but which is transformed into the expressions below:

3. Si Jose wala\ didto. 'Joe was not there.'

4. Ang libro wala\ sa balay. 'The book is not in the house.'

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[1] The construct is here called complementive compound. For others, see Appendix C, "Hiligaynon Deictics."

5.5 Discontinuous complements. Expanded and negated complements are more likely to occur as discontinuous structures, like:

1a. Indi` si nanay ma-estra.

Because of this possibility, negation of the subject is distinguished from negation of the complement thus:

1. Negation of the subject:

   Indi` ang bata` ang matahum.[1]

   'It is not the child who is pretty.'

2. Negation of the complement:

   Indi` ang bata` matahum.

   'The child is not pretty.'

It is to be noted that the nominalization of the descriptive is obligatory in order to effect the contrast. Other examples of discontinuous complements are:

1. Amo ato ka daku`. 'That yonder is just as big (as X).'
   same that C big

2. Iya ina` sala`. 'That is his fault.'
   his that fault

3. "Weak" sia sang "heart." 'He is weak of heart.'
   he

4. Bagay ina` sa imo. 'That is fit for you.'
   fit that (for) you

5. Indi` ina` bagay sa imo. 'That is not fit for you.'

6.0 The Significance of Word Order in Subtype 1.--From all the examples given so far, it becomes evident that word order tends to be fixed at phrase level, here noted in the expansion of the structure used as subject or as complement. At clause or sentence level, how-

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[1] See Section 4.0 above.

ever, the positions of the complete subject and the complete complement are interchangeable, and the subject may even interrupt an expanded complement.

6.1 In a sentence with two "marked" substantives, the question of which is the subject arises. Some suggestions for making decisions are offered here. First, it can be decided that any nominative pronominal form, or a si construct, be considered the subject if it occurs with an ang construct. Second, if a pronominal form and a si construct occur together, the pronominal form be considered the subject. Third, if two ang constructs occur together, the one with the more specific referent be considered the subject, as in:

| Ang | iloy | ko | ang | nagadigamo. |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | mother | my | N,V=is | cooking |
| Subj | | | Compl-S | |

'My mother is the one who prepares the meals.'

Fourth, where such a condition as the one above cannot be fulfilled, the second of two ang constructs be considered the subject, to accord with the observation that subject complements (and other predicates) tend to precede the subject more frequently in discourse. So:

| Ang | obrahon | mo | ang | masarangan | mo. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | N,V | AgPr | | N,V | AgPr |
| | be done | you | | can be done | you |
| Compl-S | | | Subj | | |

'What can be done by you is what is to be done by you.'

C. Subtype 2-a of the Verbless Sentence.

1.0 Subtypes 1 and 2-a Compared.--The similarity and the difference in situations which are expressed by these two subtypes are best shown by taking the examples given for Subtype 1 in Section 1.0

of the preceding discussion and placing by them possible versions in Subtype 2. The sentences are:

| Subtype 1 sentences: | Subtype 2 versions: |
|---|---|
| 1. Didto si Jose.<br>'Joe is there.' | 1. none |
| 2. Ang tawo tigulang.<br>'The man is old.' | 2. Katigulang sang tawo.<br>'The man is very old!'/<br>'How old the man is!' |
| 3. Matahum sia.<br>'She is pretty.' | 3. Katahum sa iya.<br>'She is very pretty!'/<br>'How pretty she is!' |
| 4. Ina' bata'.<br>'That is a child.' | 4. none |

Four general observations can be made from this comparison. First, Subtype 2 sentences have only descriptives for complement head.[1] Second, the form used as subject is not in the nominative case or its equivalents. Third, the position: + Descriptive + Subject is fixed. Fourth, the Subtype 2 sentences are strong commentaries while Subtype 1 sentences are objective reports.

2.0 Subject Forms of Subtype 2-a Sentences.--Four distinctive forms are used as subjects in this subtype of verbless sentences: (1) the sang construct for non-personal nominals, (2) the sa kay construct for personal nouns, (3) the sa construct for personal pronouns, and the objective form for demonstrative pronouns.

2.1 The sang construct as subject

[1]The structure of the complement may be expanded, i.e., the descriptive may be modified.

1. Katigulang sang tawo. 'The man is very old!'
2. Kadamu\ sang tawo sa balay. 'How many are the people in the house!'
3. Kalaw-ay sang guya sang tawo. 'How ugly is the face of the man!'
4. Katahum sang bata\. 'The child is very pretty!'

Examples 2 and 3 above have expanded subject forms. This kind of subject can be expanded just like the ang construct.[1]

2.2 The sa kay construct as subject

1. Katahum sa kay Inday. 'Inday is very pretty!'
2. Kalayo\ sa kay Mama. 'Mother is very far!'
3. Ka-alam sa kay Dr. Cruz. 'Dr. Cruz is very intelligent!'
4. Kadasig sa kay Rudolph (nga iya) ni Santa Claus. 'Rudolph which is Santa Claus's is very fleet!'

2.3 The sa construct as subject

1. Kakusug sa iya. 'How strong he is!'
2. Katahum sa imo. 'You are very pretty!'
3. Kagahud sa ila dira\. 'How noisy they over there are!'
4. Kapisan sa imo iya. 'You yourself are very industrious!'
5. Kagahud sa ila dira\ sa sulud sang balay. 'How npisy those inside the house are!'

Examples 3-5 of the sentences above exemplify possible expansions for this type of subject.

2.4 The objective demonstrative as subject

1. Kala-in sina\. 'That is very bad!'
2. Kala-in sina\ sa iya. 'That person is very bad!'

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[1] See Section 3.0 of Part A, "Subtype 1 of Verbless Sentences."

3. Kanamit sina\ sang paho\.[1] 'That, the mango, is very delicious!'

4. Kalaw-ay sina\ nga tawo.[2] 'That man is very ugly!'

3.0 The Expanded Form of the Complement.--The expanded complement of the Subtype 2-a sentence is usually a discontinuous structure. The modifier of the descriptive comes after the subject. Some kinds of modifying forms are exemplified below:

3.1 A nominal construct

1. Kalayo\ sa kay Mama sa amon. 'How far Mother is from us!'

2. Kapisan sa imo iya sa balay. 'How industrious you yourself are in the house!'

3.2 A verbal

Kagahud sa ila maghambal. 'How noisy they are in talking!'
(How noisily they talk!)

3.3 A subordinate clause

Kala-in sina\ kon[3] maluto\. 'How bad that is when cooked!'

D. Subtype 2-b of the Verbless Sentence.

1.0 Subtypes 2-a and 2-b Contrasted.--Subtype 2-b may be considered a specialized form of Subtype 2-a in that its commentary is limited to expressions of states of feeling. This intent is overtly signalled by changes in subject form: sang/ni construct instead of

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[1]This is more likely to be heard thus: "... sinang paho\."

[2]The subject head here is really tawo, but this example is to show that the demonstrative that "marks" a structure suffers the change in form to signal a change in the type of subject.

[3]This is a subordinating connector. For other such forms, see Chapter III.

sang/sa kay construct;[1] an agentive case form instead of a genitive form in a sa construct. Some examples of this subtype of verbless sentence are given below; the subjects are underlined.

1. Ka-akig ni Inday. 'How angry Inday was!'
2. Ka-akig ni Inday sa amon. 'How angry Inday was with us!'
3. Kalipay sang kabata-an sa eskwelahan. 'How happy the children in school were!'
4. Ka-ugut niya. 'How vexed he was!'

2.0 The Complement of Subtype 2-b.--There are two sources of difficulty in determining the subgrouping of Subtype 2 sentences. Difficulty can be caused by the interpretation of the range of meaning of "state of feeling." It can also be caused by the use of a sang construct as subject. The sentence below illutrates these difficulties.

Kaluya sang bata\. 'How weak the child is!

The root word of the complement is luya 'weak.'

This is a Subtype 2-a sentence because one can also say: Kaluya sa iya. 'How weak he is!' but hardly: *Kaluya niya. Another reason is that the sentence can be converted into a Subtype 1 sentence:[2] Maluya ang bata\. 'The child is weak.' On the other hand, a sentence like Kalipay sang kabata-an. cannot be converted into *Malipay ang kabata-an. to mean 'The children are happy.' Malipay is a verb meaning 'will be/become happy.' The ka- forms, therefore, which express states of feeling do not have corresponding ma- forms.

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[1] Obviously, a sang construct can signal ambiguously.

[2] This is proposed as a test for Subtype 2-a sentences.

# Part II

## Sentences with Verbs

### A. Introduction.

1.0 The Sentence with a Verb, Defined.--The sentence with a verb, which may be called Type 2, is primarily an expression of a relationship between an action and various entities having to do with that action, either as its agent, its goal, its beneficiary, or its instrument. The verb, which expresses the action, is the nucleus of the predication. Its relationships to the nominals that represent the entities having "direct association" with the action, already alluded to, are of two types. The first type of relationship is that which can be called "in-focus" relationship, and the other, "complement" relationship.

The "in-focus" relationship is the emphasized relationship. It defines sentence focus. This relationship is expressed by putting the entity involved in a nominative case form ( or a nominal construct of equivalent form), which becomes the subject of the sentence. This relationship is also marked on the verb by an inflection (called "voice") that is cross reference to the subject of the predication. The distinction for focus is obligatory in all Type 2 sentences.

The three other nominals in direct association with the verb, if present in the predication, are in "complement" relationship to the verb. Each takes the "non-subject" marker appropriate to the relationship it has with the verb and sometimes, where ambiguity may occur, occupies some fixed position in relation to the verb. The rest of the forms in the sentence usually qualify (1) the verb, or (2) the nominals that are in direct association with the verb, or (3) the whole

nuclear relation (the "sentence").[1]

2.0 "Topic" and "Comment" in Type 2.--The term "topic" does not have the same importance in the Type 2 sentence that it does have in the Type 1 sentence. In the Type 1 sentence the "topic" is the nucleus, but in the Type 2 sentence it is really the verb that is the nucleus. The Type 2 sentence is not the kind one makes when he has a "topic" in mind and wants to "comment" about it. In Hiligaynon this intention is expressed in a Type 1 sentence.[2]

3.0 Complements in Type 2 Sentences.--From the explanation given above and from the discussion of verbless sentences, it is seen that the term "complement" has two meanings. The complement in a Type 1 sentence has been called "subject complement" (Compl-S); and those in Type 2 sentences are here called "verb complements." The nuclear entities, when they occur as complements, may be designated thus: the expression for the agent, first verb complement (Compl-1); that for the goal, second verb complement (Compl-2); that for the beneficiary, third verb complement (Compl-3); and that for the instrument, fourth verb complement (Compl-4).

The nuclear nominals are here called by these terms for three reasons. First, by definition they are equivalent when in complement form. Second, the definition is impelled by the fact that complement forms are drawn from the same grammatical levels; all may be marked nominal constructs, or all may be pronominal forms, or combinations of

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[1]The one-clause sentence is assumed in the description of both types. The descriptions apply to every clause in "longer" sentences.

[2]See Part A, Section 5.1.1.

these may be used. Parallel forms are interchangeable in a function. Finally, traditional terminology, especially for English grammar, may have terms for Complement 2 (direct object) and Complement 3 (indirect object), but it has nothing for Complement 1 and Complement 4 which are simply identified as by-phrases, and modifiers at that.

4.0 Verb Form and Nature of Response Expected.--Hiligaynon has two sets of verb inflection. One set is used primarily with verbs in statements. Verbs with such inflection are here called indicative verbs. Another set is used with verbs in commands and requests. Verbs with this inflection will be called jussive verbs. In the following sections, distinction for focus will also imply distinction between statements and jussive sentences but only insofar as they are distinguished by verb structure. The fuller contrasts between sentence types according to the nature of response expected will be discussed in another chapter.

5.0 The Causative Verb Versus the Simple Verb.--The addition of the morpheme {pa-$_2$} 'causative' to the non-causative[1] verb affects it in the sense that the signification of that verb is usually changed in focus. Because of this, discussion of causative verbs will be given a separate section.

B. Sentences with Simple, Indicative Verbs.

1.0 Sentences with Non-inflective Verbs.--Hiligaynon has only

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[1]For ease in reference, it is proposed that this form be called the simple verb. This usage, obviously, is not in accord with that for English verbs, but it seems to be the most apt for the present purpose. The term here, then, simply means 'non-causative.'

one non-inflective verb: may 'have'; but other forms may serve as non-inflective verb substitutes. Such forms are (1) the negators indi and wala`/wa-ay, and (2) the adverbial interrogative di-in 'where.' May and the negators are used in agent-focus sentences; di-in implies a passive verb and is usually a verb substitute in a goal-focus sentence.

1.1 The examples of the use of may and wa-ay/wala`, below, illustrate forms and positions that characterize agent-focus sentences in general and sentences with these verb forms in particular.

1. Si Inday may Tita Celia. 'Inday has an Aunt Celia.'
   Subj V Compl-2

2. May Tita Celia si Inday. 'Inday has an Aunt Celia.'
   V Compl-2 Subj

3. May Tita Celia ikaw. 'You have an Aunt Celia.'
   Subj

4. Wa-ay ikaw (sang) Tita Celia. 'You do not have an Aunt Celia.'
   V Subj Compl-2

5. Wa-ay (sang) Tita Celia ako. 'I do not have an Aunt Celia.'
   Subj

6. Si Tita Celia may bata`. 'Aunt Celia has a child.'
   Subj V Compl-2

7. Si Tita Celia wa-ay (sang) bata`. 'Aunt Celia does not have a child.'
   Subj V Compl-2

8. May ginasugilanon ako. 'I have somebody who is being conversed with (by me).'
   N,V=sugilanon
   being conversed with
   Compl-2 Subj
   (I'm talking with somebody.)

9. Wa-ay ako (sang) ginasugilanon. 'I do not have anybody who is being conversed with (by me).'
   (I am not talking to anybody.)

1.1.1 Some observations that can be derived from the above exam-

ples are:

(1) The subject is the nominal in nominative case form.[1] This observation holds true for all sentences with verbs.

(2) The pronominal subject tends to follow the verb. This also is a common tendency in sentences with verbs.

(3) A subject which is not a pronoun tends to be moveable. This is true of ang constructs as well as of si constructs, and, again, this is a common feature of sentences with verbs.

(4) The second verb complement may be an unmarked nominal or a sang construct. Other possible forms used in this function will be mentioned in the discussion of other active verb forms, which are inflected.

Invariably, the complement of may is directly after it, and it is an unmarked nominal. On the other hand, a pronominal subject may come between wa-ay/walaʼ and its complement, and that complement may optionally be a sang construct or an unmarked nominal.

1.2 The following sentences are examples of the use of indiʼ as a non-inflective verb substitute. The contexts which have the verbs being substituted for are given, in order to show the variety of forms involved:

1. Pa-ugtason mo[2] ako, indiʼ ko.[2]
   be caused to fret (by) you I I

   '(If) I am caused by you to fret, I won't.'

---

[1] In Type 2 sentences, it will make for ease in reference if all the different forms that are regularly used as subject are comprehended under "nominative case form," which is strictly the form of the pronouns used in this function. The term is extended, then, to refer to the ang and si constructs, which function in the same way.

[2] These are clipped forms of personal pronouns.

2. Gusto[1] ikaw mag"subscribe"? Indi' ikaw?
like you will subscribe you

'Would you like to subscribe? You don't want to?'

3. Makakuha' ko "six tablets," indi' na.
will be able to get I any more

'(If) I have taken six tablets, (I) can't (take) any more.'

It is to be noted that indi' precedes the pronominal subject. The general tendency is for it to precede all nuclear pronominal forms. This will be evident in later examples.

1.1 The use of di-in as a verb substitute in a goal-focus sentence is exemplified by the sentence below:

Di-in mo[2] ato[2] ang bola?
was placed where (by) you that the ball

'Where was that ball placed by you?'

2.0 Agent-focus Sentences.

2.1 Verb inflections implying agent focus. Certain affixes[3] and combinations of affixes in the verb imply, if not overtly mark, agent focus, even while they carry other meanings. These are:

1. nag- ( {na-} 'event' tense + {G-} 'agent' + perfective aspect[4])
2. naga- ( {na-} + {G-} + {a-} 'imperfective aspect')
3. mag- ( {ma-} 'non-event' tense + {G-} + perfective aspect)
4. maga- ( {ma-} + {G-} + {a-} )

---

[1]Gusto is one of the modal forms of Hiligaynon. It is followed by the main verb in a 'non-event' tense form.

[2]These are other clipped pronominal forms.

[3]For an inventory of verb affixes, see Appendix H.

[4]The absence of the 'imperfective' morpheme a- signals the perfective aspect.

5. manog- ( {ma-} + {nu-} 'near future' + {G-})

6. ga- ( {G-} + {a-})

7. ka- ( {ka-} 'potential' + 'agent')

8. -um- ( {-um-} 'event' tense + 'agent')

9. naN- ( {na-} + (N<- C-)[1] 'agent + 'plural action')

2.2 In-focus relationship in agent-focus sentences. The in-focus relationship indicated by these sentences is that the subject of the sentence (a nominative case form) is the agent of the verb. As it has already been pointed out, pronominal subjects tend to come after the verb; otherwise, the scheme for the minimal form of such a sentence is: + Verb_/‾+ Subject.[2] The use of the affixes above is shown below:

1. Si Jose naglakat./Naglakat si Jose. 'Joe went/walked.'

2. Si Jose nagalakat./[3] 'Joe is walking.'

3. Gusto maglakat si Jose./ 'Joe would like to go.'

4. Si Jose magalakat./ 'Joe will go.'

5. Si Jose manoglakat./ 'Joe is about to go.'

6. Galakat si Jose./ 'Joe is walking.'

7. Si Jose kalakat./ 'Joe was able to/can go.'

8. Makalakat kami. 'We will be able to go.'

9. Nakalakat sia. 'He was able to go.'

10. Si Jose nanawag.[4]/ 'Joe called around/several times.'

---

[1] N=homorganic nasal of the initial consonant (C) of the verb stem.

[2] _/‾= positions of adjoining constituents are interchangeable.

[3] The virgule (/) marks sentences with interchangeable constituents.

[4] Root verb= tawag 'call'

Verbs like lakat which may occur without complements are intransitive.[1]

2.3 Agent-focus sentences with Complement 2. Complement 2, if present, may be in one of two types of forms: a "marked" form (a sang, sa, or sa kay construct[2]; or sina\ ) if the goal is definitely identified, or an unmarked nominal if the goal is not definitely identified.

2.3.1 Three kinds of arrangement are possible for agent-focus sentences:

(1) + V + NomP + C-2

(2) NN_/ + V + C-2

(3) V + C-2 + NN

where: V=verb; NomP=pronominal subject form; C-2=Complement 2; and NN=a subject form which is either a si or an ang construct.

2.3.1.1 Sentence form: + V + NomP + C-2

1. Nagluto\ sia kan-on. 'She cooked (the) rice.'

2. Makaka-on ina\ sia sina\. 'He may eat that.'

3. Manogtan-aw kami sang mga gadalagan. 'We are about to see/ watch those who are running.'

2.3.1.2 Sentence form: NN_/ + V + C-2

1. Ang tawo nagbakal balay./ 'The man bought a house.'

---

[1] In Hiligaynon it may be more advisable to say that these verbs are used intransitively, for lakat may have passive forms and be thus used in goal-focus sentences.

[2] Since Complement 3 is also a sa/sa kay construct, identification becomes a problem with a sentence having only a sa construct for complement. It is suggested that converting the sentence into one with a non-agent focus will resolve the problem. "Beneficiary" has a different cross reference in the verb form from "goal." For example; Gatawag si Jose sa akon.= Ako ginatawag ni Jose. But: Gapamati\ sila sa akon.= Ginapamati-an nila ako. This is the reason why all sa/sa kay constructs which are complements cannot be simply considered Complement 3 forms.

2. Gatahi\ si Maria sang bayo\./ 'Mary is sewing the dress.'

2.3.1.3 Sentence form: + V + C-2 + NN

1.Nagtahi\ bayo\ si Maria. 'Mary sewed a dress.'

2. Nagtawag sa akon/sa kay Maria si Jose. 'Joe called me/Maria.'

2.4 Agent-focus sentences with Complement 3. Complement 3, if present, is in the form of a sa/sa kay construct.[1]

1. Gapamati\ sila sa akon. 'They are listening to me.'

2. Ang tawo nag-agi sa campo. 'The man passed through the field.'[2]

3. Nagsugid ang tawo sa kay Maria. 'The man told Maria.'

The possibilities for arrangement of the three nuclear constituents are the same as those noted for the sentence having only Complement 2.

2.4.1 If Complements 2 and 3 are both present in a sentence, usually Complement 2 has a form other than a sa/sa kay construct. The following sentence schemes are possible:

(1) + NN_/ + V + C-2_/ + C-3

(2) + V + NomP[3] + C-2_/ + C-3

(3) + V + C-2_/ + C-3 + NN

where, in addition to the symbols already described: C-3=Complement 3.

2.4.1.1 Sentence form: + NN_/ + V + C-2_/ + C-3

1. Ang tawo naghatag sang kwarta sa akon./

'The man gave (the) money to me.'

---

[1]See previous footnote.

[2]The English translation is a poor guide to the nature of the Hiligaynon complement, for the true test of the complement is its convertibility to an ang construct with appropriate verb cross reference, as suggested in the foregoing footnote. Obviously, sa campo 'through the field' cannot be considered "indirect object" in English.

[3]Infrequently, the pronominal subject may occur before the verb. When it does, the intent is to point out the agent.

2. Nagbutang ang bata\ nga babae sang kan-on sa lamisa./

'The girl placed some/the rice on the table.'

3. Ang tawo nanagtag[4] sang premio sa kabata-an./

'The man distributed around prizes among the children.'

2.4.1.2 Sentence form: + V + NomP + C-2_/ + C-3

1. Kahatag sila sang kwarta sa akon./

'They were able to/can give the money to me.'

2. Nagsugid sia sang iya estoria sa kay Jose./

'He told his story to Joe.'

3. Nagtawag ako sang "taxi" para[2] sa tawo.

'I called a taxi for the man.'

2.4.1.3 Sentence form: + V + C-2_/C-3 + NN

1. Kabaligya libro sa tawo si Jose./

'Joe was able to sell a book to a/the man.'

2. Magahatag sina\ sa amon ang ma-estra./

'The teacher will give (something like) that to us.'

2.5 Expansion of Agent-focus sentences.

2.5.1 Any nuclear nominal may be expanded in the ways previously outlined.[3] For example:

1. Kahatag sila sang madamu\ nga kwarta sa amon tanan.
   much C money us all

'They were able to give much money to all of us (them and me).'

---

[1]Root verb= tagtag 'distribute.'

[2]The use of para 'for' with a sa construct is sometimes necessary when it is Complement 3 of certain verbs. The sentence converts into beneficiary focus just like sentences without para. The position of its construct seems fixed, however.

[3]See Part I-A, Section 3.0.

2. Nagtawag ako sang "taxi" nga diotay para sa tawo nga daku\.
that small that big

'I called a taxi which was small for a man who was big.'

3. Nagtawag ako sang duha ka taxi para sa mga tawo diri.
two C "plural" here

'I called two taxis for the people here.'

2.5.2 Modifiers of the verb. Many classes of forms can be used as modifiers of the verb: nominals, relator constructs, negators, particles, descriptives, and temporals.[1] According to the meaning that they add to verb meaning, these may be regrouped into modifiers of time, place, manner, frequency, degree, reason, etc.

Of the classes, the negators and the particles (or, qualifiers[2]) tend to occupy fixed positions in the sentence. The others are relatively more free in position.

2.5.2.1 The negators as modifiers. A negator as modifier of the active verb is found (1) directly before the verb or (2) sentence initially (in which case only the subject comes between it and the verb). The sentences below show its use:

1. Indi\ magtahi\ si Maria sang bayo\.
Neg V Subj Compl-2

'Mary will not sew the dress.'

2. Wala\ si Jose kabakal balay.
Neg Subj V Compl-2

'Joe was not able to buy a house.'

3. Si Jose wala\ makabakal sang balay.
Subj Neg V Compl-2

'Joe was not able to buy the house.'

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[1]For the definition and usages of temporals, see Appendix F.

[2]For the usages of qualifiers, see Appendix F.

It is to be noted from the examples above that indi\ is used with verbs in "non-event" tense form; wala\ is also commonly used with "non-event" tense forms, but it implies a happening. In the case of a sentence like the second example where tense is not specified, the use of wala\ implies an occurrence; substitution with indi\ would change the implication to one of non-occurrence.

2.5.2.2 The qualifiers as modifiers. Five of the six qualifiers: gid, lang, man, na, pa--usually occur directly after the active verb. If the verb is negative, the qualifiers occur after the negator. The sixth qualifier, mas, occurs before the verb. The qualifiers may occur singly or in combinations.

1. Si Inday nakasunud gid kay Tita niya Jo.
   Subj V Ql Compl-2

   'Inday was really able to follow her Aunt Jo.

2. Wala\ man magsunod si Inday sa akon.
   Neg Ql V Subj Compl-2

   'Inday did not follow me either/at all.'

3. Nagsunud na man[1] si Inday sang bata\.
   V Ql Ql Subj Compl-2

   'Inday followed the child again.'

4. Mas nagatodo, mas nagatubo\.
   Ql V Ql V

   'The more it intensifies, the more (it) grows.'

5. Si Jose naglakat na man lang.
   Subj V Ql Ql Ql

   'Joe did go, at last.'

2.5.2.2 The other types of modifiers, theoretically, may occur between any two of the nuclear constituents (i.e., the subject, the verb,

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[1] Na=already; man=also,etc., but na man='again.' There are other combinations of qualifiers with specialized meanings.

and the complements), but the following conditions may limit that freedom:

1. Pronominal subjects usually are not separated from their verbs;

2. Long modifiers (like nominalized clauses or other constructions with inner layers of modification) tend to occur sentence initially or finally;

3. Modifiers of place in sa constructs tend to occur sentence initially;[1]

Below is an agent-focus sentence, the positions before and after whose nuclear constituents have been marked:

(a) Si Jose (b) naghatag (c) sa akon (d) sang kwarta (e).

Below are some examples of modifiers which may be used as modifiers of the verb of the sentence, naghatag 'gave.'

| Group 1 | Group 2 |
|---|---|
| kahapon 'yesterday' | sang pag-abut mo 'upon your arrival' |
| sang[2] 1963 'in 1963' | halin sa Canada 'from Canada' |
| kutub sadto 'since then' | nahanungud sa imo 'because of you' |
| adlaw-adlaw 'everyday' | Group 3 |
| bag-o lang 'just now' | sa balay 'in the house' |
| amat-amat 'gradually' | diri 'here' |
| pa-agi sa iban 'through others' | sa Manila 'in Manila' |
| sa gihapon 'as ever' | Group 4 |
| | sing ma-alwan 'generously' |

[1] Sa constructs designating "place" coming after a verb are likely to be construed as Complement 3 because such forms are usually convertible to subject forms of beneficiary-focus sentences.

[2] Sang, introducing modifiers of time, denotes past time; sa, introducing the same expressions, denotes future time; so, sang Domingo='last Sunday'; sa Domingo='this coming Sunday.'

Items like those in Group 1 may be inserted freely between the nuclear constituents, in the positions indicated in the example above.

Items like those in Group 2 tend to occur at (a), (b), and (c).

Items like those in Group 3 tend to be ambiguous in (c), (d), and (e) if sa akon is not in the sentence because they each may substitute for it (i.e., be Complement 3).

2.5.2.2.1 The two most common positions for modifiers of verbs are at the beginning of the sentence and after both the verb and the subject.

2.5.2.2.2 When a modifier of the verb is to be emphasized, it is placed at sentence-initial position and is followed by gid.

1. Dugaydugay gid ina\ mag-ayo.
   Mod Ql Subj V

   'That will heal in a very long time.'

2. Indi\ gid ina\ sia makabati\.
   Mod Ql Subj V

   'That person won't ever hear (it).'

2.5.2.2.3 The expansion of modifying structures of verbs is illustrated by the following sentence: (The head is double-scored.)

| Wa-ay | lang | dugaydugay | gaka-on | na | man | sia. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Neg | Ql | Desc | Verb | Ql | Ql | Subj |
| not | only | soon | | again | | |

'In no time at all she is eating again.'

2.5.3. Modifiers of the sentence

2.5.3.1 Usually, a modifier[1] of the sentence, when at initial position, is in the same position occupied by the modifier of the verb. The two types of modifiers are told apart by juncture and intonation. The sentence modifier is likely to have a rise in pitch at the last syl-

[1] Excluding the modifying clause.

lable; the rest of the sentence begins at a lower pitch. The sentence modifier is also separated from the rest of the sentence by open juncture.[1] In the examples below, the first sentence modifier is a temporal; the second, a descriptive.

1. $^{2}$Da$^{3}$son // $^{2}$mabisa ka dayon, $^{3}$Ta, eh.
   Mod(S) V Subj Mod(V) Voc Hol
   next kiss you right away

   'Then, of course, Auntie, you kiss (the hand) right away.'

2. $^{2}$Dugaydugay //$^{1}$nag-abut $^{2}$na.
   Mod(S) V Ql

   'By and by (it) arrived already.' (Soon it arrived.)

The modifier of the verb, on the other hand, is more closely bound to the rest of the sentence, there being only normal transition between it and the rest of the sentence. The rise in pitch at the last syllable is usually absent.

$^{2}$Pe$^{3}$ro $^{2}$dali ka mag$^{3}$-a$^{2}$yo.
Co Mod(V) Subj V
but fast you will recover

'But, you will recover fast.'

2.5.3.1.1 A sentence modifier in final position, such as the one in the sentence below, may have two plausible interpretations. Matu-od may be analyzed as the comment of an impersonal clause used as commentary: '(it is) true.' It is just as plausible to consider it adverbial: 'truly.'

Calmante gid lang ina matu-od.[2]
Compl-S Ql Ql Subj Mod(S)

'Truly, that is simply palliative./That is simply palliative, it is true.'

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[1] Or, even a pause, as the double bar in the examples show. This description is also true for the verbless sentence.

[2] This is, of course, a verbless sentence.

2.5.3.2 There are five particles which may be considered attitudinal words and, being such, sentence modifiers. These are tani`, expressing, or introducing, a wish or a suggestion; daw, suggesting probability; ayhan, suggesting conjecture; basi`, suggesting possibility; and seguro/guro, which may suggest either conjecture or possibility. Any of these five can be freely placed between nuclear constituents and modifiers. The way in which their presence affects sentence meaning is thus exemplified:

1. Madagdag ka da`.
   will fall you there

   'You will fall there.' (You will fall from that place.)

2. Basi` madagdag ka da`.

   'You might fall from that place.'

3.0 Goal-focus Sentences.

3.1 Verb inflections for goal focus. Verbs in goal-focus sentences have the following inflections: na-, na- -an; ma-, ma- -an; -in-, gin-, gina-; i-, inog-, iga-, -on, i- -on.

The following, therefore, are goal-focus sentences:

1. Naka-on namon ang kan-on. 'The rice was eaten by us.'
   V=ka-on Compl-1 Subj

2. Nabati-an ang bata`. 'The child was heard.'
   V=bati` Subj

3. Maka-on ang kan-on. 'The rice can be eaten.'
   V=ka-on Subj

4. Mabati-an ini. 'This will be heard.'
   V=bati` Subj

5. Hinatag ini. 'This was given.'
   V=hatag Subj

6. Ginhatag ini. 'This was given.'
   V=hatag Subj

7. Ginahatag ini. 'This is being given (away).'
   V=hatag Subj

8. Ihatag ini. 'This will be given away.'
   V=hatag Subj

9. Inoghatag ini. 'This is about to be given away.'
   V=hatag Subj

10. Igahatag ini. 'This is (i.e., will be) being given (away).'
    V=hatag Subj

11. Ka-onon ini. 'This will be eaten.'
    V=ka-on Subj

12. Ika-onon ini. 'This is to be eaten.'
    V=ka-on Subj

3.2 In-focus relationship in goal-focus sentences. The verb inflections are cross references to the subject as the "goal" of the verb action. The agent now is in complement position, if it is present.

As with the agent-focus sentences, the subject and the verb have interchangeable positions, unless the subject is a pronoun form.[1]

3.3 Other significances of goal-focus inflections. The inflections given above can be grouped according to the tense specified or implied. Those in the "event" tense are na-, na- -an, -in-, gin-, gina-. The "non-event" forms are ma-, ma- -an, i-, inog-, iga-, -on, i- -on.

Two intents of communication can be distinguished among the minimal forms: inflections expressing a passive state-- na-, ma-, -on; and those expressing a passive action-- -in-, i-.

In the combinations, the following morphemes have already been identified: {na-}, {ma-}; {nu-} in inog-; {G-} in gin-, gina-, inog-, and iga-; {a-} in gina- and iga-.

3.3.1 {na-}, as has already been said, regularly indicates accom-

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[1] See Section 2.2 above.

plished (in the sense of not just intended or forthcoming) action, hence perfective condition. Such sentences as the ones below indicate, if at all, notional passive.

1. Natumba ang siya. 'The chair tipped over.'
   V=tumba Subj

2. Ang bata\ nadagdag. 'The child fell.'
   Subj V=dagdag

3. Na-atrasar sia. 'He was delayed.'
   V=atrasar Subj

3.3.1.1 The presence of a sang/ni construct, or an agentive personal pronoun or sina\ directly after the verb, however, definitely implies goal focus, as these sentences below show:

1. Naka-on namon ang kan-on. 'The rice was eaten by us.'
   V=ka-on AgPr Subj

2. Nabilin niya ina\. 'That was left by him.'
   V=bilin AgPr Subj

3. Nabilin ni Jose ina\. 'That was left by Joe.'
   V=bilin Subj

4. Ang libro nadala sang bata\. 'The book was taken by the child.'
   Subj V=dala

3.3.1.2 This type of goal-focus sentence may have these forms:

(1) + NN_/~(+ na-V + C-1)

(2) + na-V + C-1 + NomP

where, in addition to the terms already identified,: na-V= verb with {na-} inflection; C-1= first verb complement (agent). The order na-V + C-1 tends to be fixed because of the fact that a form which functions as Complement 1 can also be a modifier of a nominal. The formula (na-V + C-1) therefore means that the expression as a whole changes position with the subject. Thus, a change in position of C-1 could effect the following change in meaning:

1a. Naka-on ang kan-on namon. 'Our rice was eaten.'

4a. Nadala ang libro sang bata\. 'The book of the child was taken.' However, 3a. Nabilin ina\ ni Jose. is not likely to confuse because (1) ina\ ni Jose is not the usual way of stating the modification of ina\;[1] (2) a pronominal subject tends to follow the verb, unless, as in Sentence 2, Complement 1 is also a pronoun.

3.3.1.3 $\{ma\text{-}_v\}$[2] can fill the slot of $\{na\text{-}\}$ in these usages. However, $\{ma\text{-}_v\}$ tends to occur with more active verbs than $\{na\text{-}\}$ does.

3.3.2 $\{\text{-in-}_1\}$[3] regularly signifies passive action. This infix may interrupt the root verb or a bound stem with agent focus, perfective aspect, thus:

sinulat 'was written' = sulat 'write' + $\{\text{-in-}_1\}$ 'passive'

ginsulat 'was written' = $\{G\text{-}\}$ + $\{\text{-in-}_1\}$ + sulat

Commonly considered interchangeable, these forms are not similarly productive. The form typified by ginsulat is more frequent in current usage. One reason may be the fact that the form permits a contrast in aspect, which sinulat does not: ginsulat (perfective) vs ginasulat (imperfective).[4]

3.3.2.1 Semantically, the forms sinulat and ginsulat also express a difference in degree of emphasis on the nuclear nominals. If, as has been posited, verbal inflections of these types are cross references to nuclear nominals, then sinulat has one cross reference--for

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[1] Ina\ is more likely to be followed by an appositive nominal, thus: Ina\ ang (or, inang) libro ni Jose 'that book of Joe's.'

[2] The subscript distinguishes this morpheme from others of identical shape.

[3] There are other morphemes with the shape /-in-/.

[4] Another good reason is that $\{G\text{-}\}$ is a strong environment for identifying $\{\text{-in-}_1\}$. Sinulat may mean 'collective writing by a group of persons, with /-in-/ interpreted as $\{\text{-in-}_2\}$. $\{\text{-in-}_3\}$ in inilonggo means 'in the manner of (the Ilongo).'

the goal as subject; and ginsulat has two--for the goal, first, as subject and, second, for the agent though it is non-subject. The cross reference to the subject in ginsùlat is the later inflection. If -in- were not the later addition, the form would have been *gsinulat.[1]

It is to be recalled that in the combinations mag- and nag- the opposite is true: ma- and na- are potential markers for passive notions, but mag- and nag- (upon the addition of {G-}) definitely mark active verbs.

The agent marker {G-}, in the environment of an added {-in-} may be called "agent reminiscent."[2]

3.3.2.1.1 An interesting result derives from the combination: {ma-$_V$}/{na-} + {G-} + {-in-}, with {G-} nasalized. These forms: mangin- and nangin- mean 'will become...' and 'became ...,' respectively. Their use is to be contrasted with others thus:

nagma-estra 'taught'

ginma-estrahan 'was being taught'

nanginma-estra 'became a teacher'

It is as though the nasalization signal's the agent's doubling back on himself, to make himself, or allow himself to be, the object of "becoming." The 'goal' of the action is suggested by the root word. Other examples are:

nanginkahuy 'became wood/a tree' (Rt=kahuy 'wood/tree')

manginmatu-ud 'will become true' (Rt=matu-od 'true')

nanginsubong 'became similar' (Rt=subong 'like')

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[1]Hiligaynon infixes interrupt a stem after the initial segment (which is always a consonant).

[2]A term inspired by Bloomfield's reminiscent sandhi.

3.3.2.2 Emphasis as implied in sentence form. Among the sentence forms described so far, the treatment of emphasis which can be deduced from structure can be summarized and exemplified in the handling of the concept "agent." Reference to the agent is given in descending order of importance:

1. The center of predication, as the subject of a verbless sentence, with a nominalized verb as complement:

Ang bata\ ang nagka-on sang kan-on.
Subj Compl-S

'The child is the one who ate the rice.'

2. The subject of an agent-focus sentence, initial position:

Ang bata\ nagka-on sang kan-on.
Subj V-af[1] Compl-2

'The child ate rice.'

3. The subject of an agent-focus sentence, position after the verb:

Nagka-on ang bata\ _/ sang kan-on.
V-af Subj Compl-2

'The child ate the rice.'

4. Complement 1 of a goal-focus sentence, with cross reference:

Ginka-on sang bata\ ang kan-on.
V-gf[2] Compl-1 Subj

'The rice got eaten by the child.'

5. Complement 1 of a goal-focus sentence, without cross reference:

Kina-on sang bata\ ang kan-on.
V-gf Compl-2 Subj

'The rice got eaten by the child.'

6. Not referred to in a goal-focus sentence, passive action implied:

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[1]Verb with agent focus

[2]Verb with goal focus

Kina-on ang kan-on.
V-gf Subj

'The rice got eaten.'

7. Not referred to in a goal-focus sentence, passive state implied:

Naka-on ang kan-on.
V-gf Subj

'The rice was eaten.'

3.3.2.2.1 A finer distinction is illustrated by the following synonymous sentences, all meaning 'The rice got eaten by him.':

Ginka-on niya ang kan-on.

Iya ginka-on ang kan-on.

Ang kan-on ginka-on niya.

Ang kan-on iya ginka-on.

It is suggested that the genitive form is a more emphatic form than the agentive form.[1] A sentence with a genitive form for Complement 1 should be Order 4 above, and another should be Order 6. Hiligaynon sentence structure could then show nine possible degrees of emphasis for "agent."

3.3.3 Other considerations enter into the use of the forms i-, -on, na- -an (and ma- -an), and i- -on. Usually the type of verb determines the selection.

3.3.3.1 Na- -an, ma- -an, and -in- -an are used with verbs that are not inflected by na- or -in- alone for goal focus. Such verbs are the type that do not take a third complement (beneficiary).

1. nabati-an 'was heard' (Rt= bati' 'hear')

2. nakaptan 'was held' (Rt= kaput 'hold')

3. ginpamati-an 'was listened to' (Rt= pamati' 'listen')

3.3.3.2 Some verbs like hatag 'give' select i- inflection for

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[1]Cf with footnote for Part I Section 3.5, Sentence 7a.

"non-event, goal focus." The form *hatagon does not occur. Some other verbs like ka-on 'eat' take the regular -on to signal "non-event, goal focus state": ka-onon, but to signal "non-event, goal focus action" they do not take i- alone but i- -on: ika-onon. The form ika-on has other significance.

Other verbs like hatag are:

sugid 'tell': isugid 'will be told'

hambal 'speak': ihambal 'will be spoken/said'

Other verbs like ka-on are:

inum 'drink': inumon 'will be drunk'; i-inumon '(the wine) will get drunk'

tahi 'sew': tahi-on 'will be sewed'; itahi-on 'will get sewed'

tan-aw 'look': tan-awon 'will be observed'; itan-awon 'will get observed'

3.3.4 Further expansions of the goal-focus sentence.

3.3.4.1 Complement 3 (beneficiary) may occur in a goal-focus sentence. It is, as in agent-focus sentences, a sa/sa kay construct. A goal-focus sentence with Complements 1 and 3 which are non-pronominal forms has the most varied arrangements, of all the sentence types. The agent-focus sentence: Ang tawo naghatag sang kwarta sa akon. 'The man gave the money to me.' may be converted into the following goal-focus sentences, all meaning 'The money was given to me by the man.':

(1) + NN + V-gf + C-1 / + C-3

Ang kwarta ginhatag sang tawo sa akon.

Ang kwarta ginhatag sa akon sang tawo.

(2) + NN + C-3 + C-1 + V-gf

Ang kwarta sa akon sang tawo ginhatag.

(3) + V-gf + C-3 / + C-1 + NN

Ginhatag sa akon sang tawo ang kwarta.

Ginhatag sang tawo sa akon ang kwarta.

(4) + V-gf + NN + C-3 + C-1

Ginhatag ang kwarta sa akon sang tawo.

(5) + V-gf + C-1 + NN + C-3

Ginhatag sang tawo ang kwarta sa akon.

(6) + C-3 + V-gf + C-1 + NN

Sa akon ginhatag sang tawo ang kwarta.

(7) + C-3 + C-1 + V-gf + NN

Sa akon sang tawo ginhatag ang kwarta.

3.3.4.1.1 Arrangement 4 may become ambiguous in a sequent type of sentence where another person than the referent of sa akon may be meant to be the beneficiary. In this latter case, the sentence above would mean: 'The money with me was given (away/to X) by the man.'

3.3.4.1.2 It is to be noted that the sequence: + NN + C-1 is not permitted. It is most likely to be construed as a nominal modification structure: ang kwarta sang tawo = 'the money of the man.'

3.3.4.2 The use of a pronominal Complement 1 (for example, niya '(by) him'), however, cuts down the options in sentence arrangement. For example, the optional arrangement of complements in (1) will not be allowed. In (3) only C-1 + C-3 is normal. Arrangement (4) will not be permitted.

3.3.4.3 The manner of using modifying forms, either as verb modifiers or as sentence modifiers, outlined in the previous section (specifically Section 2.5.2 and Section 2.5.3) will apply in this type of sentence also. So will the previously described ways of expanding nominal forms.

## 4.0 Beneficiary-focus Sentences.

4.1 Functions of the sa construct reviewed. The sa construct has been seen to have quite varied functions. It can be subject of a type of verbless sentence:

Ka-ayo sa imo. 'You are very good./How good you are!'

It can be Complement 2 of certain verbs:

Ang noticia naghalit sa tawo.[1] 'The news hurt the man.'

It can be a modifier of a nominal:

Ang kwarta sa lamisa akon. 'The money on the table is mine.'

Ang kwarta sa lamisa nakon. 'The money is on my table.'

It can be a modifier of a verb:

Sa bukid nag-obra kami. 'In the mountain we worked.'

Or, it can be Complement 3:

Ang tawo naghatag sa akon. 'The man gave (something) to me.'

4.2 Distinguishing the "complement" functions of the sa construct. Among the examples above, the following are difficult to tell apart:

Ang noticia naghalit sa tawo.

Ang tawo naghatag sa akon.

These two in non-agent focus forms are just as similar:

Ang tawo ginhalitan sang noticia. 'The man was hurt by the news.'

Ako ginhatagan sang tawo. 'I was given (something) by the man.'

Additional features, however, distinguish between these two. As suggested in the footnote below, the first sentence may have an alternate

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[1] Halit is a type of verb that may have a sang or a sa construct for Complement 2. It seems that the selection of complement form depends upon whether a definite referent is in mind (in which case a sang construct is used) or a choice is implied (in which case a sa construct is used), as to say, someone else could have been hurt.

sang form as Complement 2, but a sang construct as Complement 2 cannot be added to the sentence if the intention is to make the sa construct Complement 3. The opposite, however, is true of the second sentence. A sang construct in place of a sa construct will have a different signification, as evidenced by a change in verb inflection upon conversion of the sentence into a non-agent focus construction:

Ang tawo naghatag sa akon.-- Ako ginhatagan sang tawo.

Ang tawo naghatag sang kwarta.-- Ang kwarta ginhatag sang tawo.

It is on the basis of such convertibility of forms that focuses are distinguished in Hiligaynon, and subclassification of verbs is attempted.

4.3 It can be seen, further, that a Hiligaynon sentence need not have Complement 2 along with Complement 3. In fact, some sentences are ambiguous because only one or the other may occur. When this happens, semantics may play a role in distinguishing between ambiguous forms, as in:

1a. Sa construct as beneficiary:

Naglakat kami sa dalan.-- Ang dalan ginlaktan namon.

'We walked on the road.' 'The road was walked on by us.'[1]

1b. Sa construct as goal:

Naglakat kami sa Manila.-- Ang Manila ginlakat namon.

'We went to Manila.' 'Manila was gone to by us.'[1]

The agent-focus sentences are ambiguous. It is felt that they should be converted the way they are here converted because of the difference in meaning between the relation of "walking" with "road" and the rela-

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[1]Obviously, an un-English sentence. The Hiligaynon sentence seems untranslatable into English.

tion of "walking" with a destination, like Manila.

On the other hand, a change in nominal markers can change the relationship between an action and an entity, as in:

2a. Sa construct as beneficiary:

Naglimpio kami sa kwarto.-- Ang kwarto ginlimpiohan namon.

'We cleaned the room.' 'The room was given a cleaning by us.'

2b. Sang construct as goal:

Naglimpio kami sang kwarto.-- Ang kwarto ginlimpio namon.

'We cleaned the room.' 'The room was made clean by us.'

4.4 Verb inflection for beneficiary focus. The differences in structure between the sets of sentences below define beneficiary focus.

1. Ang tawo humatag sa amon sang kwarta. 'The man gave us the money.'
   Subj-Agt V-af C-3 C-2

   a. Kami ginhatagan sang tawo sang kwarta. 'We were given money by the man.'
      Subj-Ben V-bf C-1 C-2

   b. Ang kwarta ginhatag sa amon sang tawo. 'The money was given to us by the man.'
      Subj-Goal V-gf C-3 C-1

2. Si Maria nagkuha\ bulak sa tanum. 'Mary got a flower from the plant.'
   Subj-Agt V-af C-2 C-3

   a. Ang tanum ginkuha-an bulak ni Maria. 'The plant was sheared of its flower by Maria.'
      Subj-Ben V-bf C-2 C-1

   b. Ang bulak ginkuha\ ni Maria sa tanum. 'The flower was picked by Maria from the plant.'
      Subj-goal V-gf C-1 C-3

3. Nagsugid sia sa kay nanay sang matu-od. 'He told the truth to Mother.'
   V-gf Subj-Agt C-3 C-2

   a. Si nanay ginsugiran niya sang matu-od. 'Mother was told the truth by him.'
      Subj-Ben V-bf C-1 C-2

b. Ang matu-od nasugid niya sa kay nanay. 'The truth was told by him
Subj-Goal V-gf C-1 C-3
to Mother.'

4.4.1 The regular inflection for beneficiary focus is the 'passive' suffix -an. Tense is indicated by adding na- or -in- to the verb stem for "event," and ma- or i- for "non-event." The in-focus relationship is between such a verb form and the nominal expressing the beneficiary in subject position.

4.4.2 Now there is reason to classify verbs according to whether they are inflected for goal focus only, or for beneficiary also/only. The first subclass of verbs, which are inflected for goal focus only, are here called T-1 verbs; the second, T-2 verbs.

4.4.3 The possible arrangements for a sentence with beneficiary focus and having Complements 1 and 2 are shown by the converted forms, below, of the agent-focus sentence: Ang tawo naghatag sang kwarta sa akon/sa kay Maria. 'The man gave the money to me/to Maria.'

(1) + NN/NomP + V-bf + C-1 + C-2

Ako/Si Maria ginhatagan sang tawo sang kwarta.

(2) + V-bf + C-1 + NN/NomP + C-2

Ginhatagan sang tawo ako/si Maria sang kwarta.

(3) + V-bf + C-1 + NN/NomP

Ginhatagan sang tawo sang kwarta ako/si Maria.

4.4.3.1 The restrictions on option in this type are pointed up when its possible arrangements are compared with those of the sentence with goal focus, given the same number of nuclear constituents. Some observations that explain the limitations here are: (1) the positions of Complements 1 and 2 are invariable; (2) only the subject is moveable. Therefore, the arrangement: "Ginhatagan ako sang kwarta sang tawo." is quite readily taken to mean 'I was given the money of the man.' instead

of 'I was given money by the man.' In Hiligaynon, a sang construct with an animate nominal after a construct with an inanimate nominal is usually construed to be a modifying structure. If two sang constructs which are semantically similar (in that, say, both have animate nominals) occur in a beneficiary-focus sentence, they are to be read as C-1 + C-2.

4.4.4 The expansions possible with agent-focus and goal-focus sentences are also possible with this type.

5.0 Instrument-focus Sentences.

5.1 The nominal expressing instrument. The nominal expressing instrument, when not in focus, is usually found in a goal-focus sentence of the form: + NN(Goal) + V-gf + "Sang"[1] construct(C-1) + Sang construct(C-4), as in:

1. Ang bata\ gintoslok sang tawo sang dagum.
   'The child was injected by the man with a needle.'
2. Ang kalat gin-utod sang bata\ sang sundang.
   'The rope was cut by the child with a knife.'

5.1.1 The instrument is the second sang construct in this type of sentence. Its only alternate form is sina\ '(with) that.' It is usually an inanimate nominal. The first sang construct expresses " agent" and is usually animate. It may be replaced by a personal pronoun, either an agentive form or a genitive form, in which latter case it is found before the verb. It is to be noted that the arrangement of the sang forms is fixed, for a reason similar to the one given for a like arrangement in beneficiary-focus sentences (see Section 4.4.2.1 above).

5.2 In-focus relationship in instrument-focus sentences. The

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[1] "Sang" construct also stands for other nominals which can function as C-1.

subject may be the "instrument" when the verb is inflected for goal focus. Definiteness of identification depends upon the tense of the verb and the nuclear nominals involved.

5.2.1 Verbs in the "event" tense tend to be more ambiguous than those in the "non-event" tense.

(a) Sentences with verbs in the "non-event" tense

1. Instrument focus

| Ang gunting | i-utod | sang kalat. |
|---|---|---|
| Subj-Ins | V=utod | C-2 |

'The scissors are to be used in cutting rope.'

2. Goal focus

| Ang kalat | utdon | sang gunting. |
|---|---|---|
| Subj-Goal | V=utod | C-4 |

'The rope will be cut with the scissors.'

| Ang kalat | i-utdon | sang gunting. |
|---|---|---|
| Subj-Goal | V=utod | C-4 |

'The rope is to be cut with the scissors.'

(b) Sentences with verbs in the "event" tense

1. | Ang gunting | gin-utod | sang kalat. |
|---|---|---|
| Subj-Ins | V=utod | C-2 |

'The scissors were used for cutting the rope.'

2. | Ang kalat | gin-utod | sang gunting. |
|---|---|---|
| Subj-Goal | V=utod | C-4 |

It is seen in the above examples that the verb in the "event" tense is ambiguous, and that the only clue to the identity of the nominals is semantic meaning; i.e., with a verb like "cut" one expects the scissors to be the instrument and the rope to be the goal, although the reverse is not impossible.

5.3 Verbs which are inflected for instrument focus use the paired affixes i- -on, or -on alone, as inflection for goal focus.

5.4 It is possible for an instrument-focus sentence to have a sa construct for Complement 2. The change in meaning is, as has been already explained in the footnote for Section 4.1 above, to show choice of goal, as in:

1a. Ang gunting gin-utod sa kalat.

'The scissors were used to cut the rope (and nothing else).'

5.5 Expansions of this type of sentence follow the expansions possible for other types, except that the addition of Complement 1 will not be acceptable.

C. Sentences with Indicative, Causative Verbs.

1.0 The Inflection for 'Causative.'--The affix {pa-$_2$} means 'causative.' It is to be distinguished from {pa-$_1$} which is a stem-formative.[1] The occurrence in a verb form of these two is illustrated thus:

kitaˋ 'see' + {pa-$_1$} + (N← C-)[1] = pangitaˋ 'search/look for'

pangitaˋ + {pa-$_2$} = papangita 'cause to be looked for'

pangitaˋ + {pa-$_2$} + {na-}[2] = napapangitaˋ 'was caused to be looked for'

2.0 The Causative in Hiligaynon Sentences.--The morpheme {pa-$_2$} is affective; i.e., its addition does not simply mean the addition of the meaning 'cause to' to the meaning of the stem, but it changes the relationships between the nuclear constituents in the sentence. Furthermore, the nuclear nominals then play a double function: in relation

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[1] See Appendix H, "Verb Inflections and Stem-formatives."

[2] The tense morpheme is the outermost affix if more than itself occur in a verb form.

to the causative and in relation to the verb root itself. This effect of the inflection 'causative' can be illustrated by showing the transformation of the types of sentence structures studied so far.

2.1 With an agent-focus sentence; verb=intransitive:

(a) Si Jose naglakat.
Subj-Agt V-af

'Joe went.'

(b) Si Jose nagpalakat sa amon.
Subj- V-caf[3] C-2

'Joe caused us to go.'

In this pair, the subject has changed from agent of the verb root to agent of the causative. The agent of the verb root is Complement 2 of the causative. It is to be noted that, with the causative inflection, what is originally an intransitive verb becomes transitive.

2.2 With an agent-focus sentence; verb=transitive:

(a)1. Nagluto sia kan-on.
V=luto Subj C-2

'She cooked rice.'

2. Nagpaluto sia kan-on.
V-caf Subj C-2

'She caused some rice to be cooked.'

With the causative in a transitive verb, Complement 2 becomes the goal of both the causative and the verb root. The subclass of the verb root is important here because sentence structure alone is ambiguous in both causative sentences above (2.1(b) and 2.2(a-2).

(b)1. Ang tawo naghatag sang kwarta sa akon.
Subj-Agt V-af C-2 C-3

'The man gave the money to me.'

---

[3]V-caf= Causative verb with agent focus.

2. Ang tawo nagpahatag sang kwarta sa akon.
   Subj-Agt V-caf C-2 C-3

   'The man caused the money to be given to me.'

3. Ang tawo nagpahatag sa akon sang kwarta.
   Subj-Agt V-caf ? C-2

The addition of a sa/sa kay construct to a 'causative-verb' sentence does not change the signification of the ang construct and the sang construct, but it does matter where the sa construct occurs. If it comes after the sang construct, it can just be beneficiary of the verb root still, as in a sentence with a simple verb. Placed after the verb, it becomes ambiguous in that it may still be beneficiary of the verb root, or be goal of causation and instrument/agent of the verb root. The second intent can be made definitely known by the addition to the sentence of another sa/sa kay construct, after the sang construct, to be the beneficiary of the verb root, thus:

Ang tawo nagpahatag sa akon sang kwarta sa bata.
Subj-Agt V-caf C-4 C-2 C-3

'The man caused me to give the money to the child.'

2.3 With a goal-focus sentence:

(a) Ginhatag ang kwarta sa akon sang tawo.
    V-gf Subj-Goal C-3 C-1

    'The money was given to me by the man.'

(b) Ginpahatag ang kwarta sa akon sang tawo.
    V-cgf Subj-Goal C-3 C-1

    'The money was caused by the man to be given to me.'

With this type of sentence, the subject is goal of both the causative verb and the verb root. In the order given above, Complement 3 is still beneficiary of the verb root, but Complement 1 is construed to be agent of causation, with the agent of the verb root not mentioned. The agent or instrument of causation can also be placed after the verb:

(c) Ginpahatag sang tawo ang kwarta sa akon.
V-cgf C-1 Subj-Goal C-3

'The money was caused by the man to be given to me.'

(d) Ginpahatag niya ang kwarta sa tawo.
V-cgf C-1 Subj-Goal C-3

'The money was caused by him to be given to the man.'

Exchanging the positions of the sa and the sang constructs, as in the sentence below, changes the constituents of the sentence thus:

(e) Ginpahatag sa akon ang kwarta sang tawo.
V-cgf C-4 Subj-Goal

'The money of the man was caused to be given (to X) by/through me.'

2.4 With a beneficiary-focus sentence.

(a) Ako ginhatagan sang tawo sang kwarta.
Subj-Ben V-bf[1] C-1 C-2

'I was given money by the man.'

(b) Ako ginpahatagan sang tawo sang kwarta.
Subj V-cbf C-1 C-2

'I was caused by the man to given the money.'

The subject of the sentence with a causative is beneficiary of both the causative and the verb root. The first sang construct, or its equivalent, becomes the agent of causation, and the second sang construct remains the goal of the verb root.

2.5 With an intrument-focus sentence.

(a) Ang gunting i-utod sang kalat.
Subj-Ins V-if[2] C-1

'The scissors are to be used in cutting the rope.'

---

[1]Verb with beneficiary focus.

[2]Verb with instrument focus.

(b) *Ang gunting ipa-utod sang kalat.

The transform with causative is improbable. It is possible to say, though:

| Ang gunting | ipa-utod | sang tawo. |
|---|---|---|
| Subj-Goal | V-cgf | C-1 |

'The scissors will be caused by the man to be cut.'

The addition of the causative, then, to an instrument-focus sentence makes the subject the goal of both causative and verb root instead of being the instrument of the verb root.

D. Sentences with Simple, Jussive Verbs.

1.0 Inflections in the Simple, Jussive Verb.--The jussive verb may be just a root verb, or an inflected form. Like the indicative verb, it may be inflected for focus and tense. The following affixes are used with jussive verbs: pag-, mag-, i-, -i, -a, -an, and -on.

1.1 The jussive verb is inflected for agent focus by pag- and mag-. The root verb, when used as a jussive verb, also has agent focus. The agent (which is most often simply implied) is the second person, or the first person, plural, inclusive (kita).

All the other affixes mark non-agent focuses. These will be sorted out later. The subjects of verbs with these affixes are either the goal or the beneficiary.

1.2 The two tenses in the jussive forms may be called " present" and "future." "Present tense" here means inflection that signals immediate compliance with a command or a request. "Future tense" indicates deferred compliance with a command or a request.

2.0 The Basic Forms of the Jussive Verb.--There are two sets of "basic" forms for the jussive verb, depending upon whether the sentence is affirmative or negative.

2.1 The affirmative jussive sentence.

2.1.1 With an active verb. The sentences below are minimal forms of active jussive sentences. The subject (either ikaw or kamo 'you') is implied in the first two. The subject of the third is the first person, plural, inclusive personal pronoun.

1. Ka-on. '(You) eat.'

2. Sigi. '(You) go ahead.'

3. Estoria kita. 'Let's tell stories.'

2.1.2 With a passive verb. The minimal form of such a sentence has the goal as subject. "You" is the implied agent.

1. Ihatag[1] ina. 'That be given (by you).' (Give that.)
   V=hatag Subj

2. Isugilanon ang sugilanon ni Bet. 'The story of Bet be told (by you).' (Tell the story of Bet.)
   V=sugilanon Subj

2.2 The negative jussive sentence.

2.2.1 The inflection of the active jussive verb in this type of sentence is mag-. The usual arrangement of its minimal constituents is: + indi + NomP + mag-V. This is also the usual arrangement for the goal-focus negative sentence. Less frequently, the subject follows the verb. Some examples of sentences with active verbs are:

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[1]It seems that i- 'jussive' is not accompanied by an overt marker for agent; i 'indicative' usually is followed by mo '(by) you' if the agent is the second person. Intonation is also a strong distinguishing feature.

1. Indi\ kamo magka-on. 'Don't eat, all of you.'

2. Indi\ ka[1] magkadlaw. 'Don't laugh.'

2.2.2 The passive jussive verb has the prefix pag- to express negation, as in:

Indi\ paghatag ina\. 'That be not given.' (Don't give that.)

3.0 Inflection for Focus.

3.1 Inflections for agent focus. In affirmative, jussive sentences the prefixes mag-[2] and pag- have other signification than the ones they have in the negative sentences. These in affirmative sentences are inflections for agent focus, and for future and present tenses, respectively. The sentences below illustrate the contrast.

1. Pagtulog kamo. 'All of you, go to sleep (now).'
   V Subj

2. Maghimus ka sang paniaga. 'You prepare dinner (later).'
   V Subj C-2

3.2 Inflections for object focus. Under "object focus" are comprehended both goal and beneficiary focuses. They are treated together because they share common affix forms: -i and -an. This common treatment also points up the contrastive uses of these affixes to signal focus. The matter will be taken up in greater detail in the following sections.

The inflections for focus are also tense markers; so, object-focus verbs are inflected for present tense and future tense in both goal and and beneficiary focuses. It will be noted that object focus markers in

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[1]The clipped form of ikaw.

[2]The forms pag- and mag- also mark verbals. The presence of the subject forms kamo and ka/ikaw distinguish the jussive forms.

the jussive verb are suffixes.

It will also be noted that the subclass of the verb is significant in determining focus.

3.2.1 Sentences with object-focus, present-tense verbs. The verb inflection -i 'present jussive,' signals that the subject is the goal of the action, when a T-1 verb is used.

1. Pamati-i ang kabata-an.
   V=pamati Subj

   'The children be listened to.' (Listen to the children.)

2. Bay-i sia.
   V=baya Subj

   'She be left alone.' (Leave her alone.)

3.2.1.1 With T-2 verbs, the same suffix, -i, signals that the subject is the beneficiary.

1. Hatagi si Inday sang kan-on.
   V=hatag Subj C-2

   'Inday be given some rice.' (Give Inday some rice.)

2. Luto-i ako sud-an.
   V=luto Subj C-2

   'I be cooked some viands.' (Cook some viands for me.)

3.2.1.2 The inflection for present tense, goal focus, in T-2 verbs is -a:

1. Kuha-a ato.
   V=kuha Subj

   'That be gotten.' (Get that.)

2. Dal-a sa iya ang libro.
   V=dala C-3 Subj

   'The book be taken to him.' (Take the book to him.)

3.2.2 Sentences with object-focus, future-tense verbs. The following examples show the use of -an as cross reference to the subject as goal of action, with T-1 verbs:

1. Kaptan ang micropono.
   V=kaput Subj

   'The microphone be held.' (Hold the microphone.)

2. Indi\ pagtakpan ang kolon.
   Neg V=takup Subj

   'The pot be not covered.' (Don't cover the pot.)

3.2.2.1 With T-2 verbs, this inflection signals beneficiary focus:

Sulatan ta[1] ang papel sina\.
V=sulat C-1 Subj-Ben C-2

'The paper be written on with that by us.'

(Let's write that on the piece of paper.)

3.2.2.2 With T-2 verbs, the inflection for goal focus is -on.

Sulaton ta ina\ sa papel.
V=sulat C-1 Subj C-3

'That be written by us on paper.'

(Let's write it down on paper.)

3.2.2.2.1 Some verbs like hatag select i- for this meaning:

Ihatag ta ina\ sa tawo.
V=hatag C-1 Subj C-3

'That be given by us to the man.'

(Let's give that to the man.)

3.3 At this point, a summary of the inflections for voice and the combinations they enter into are given in Table 2, on the following page. Some other general observations can also be drawn.

3.3.1 In the affirmative, jussive sentence, the verb tends to begin the sentence; the negator, however, precedes the verb in the negative sentence.

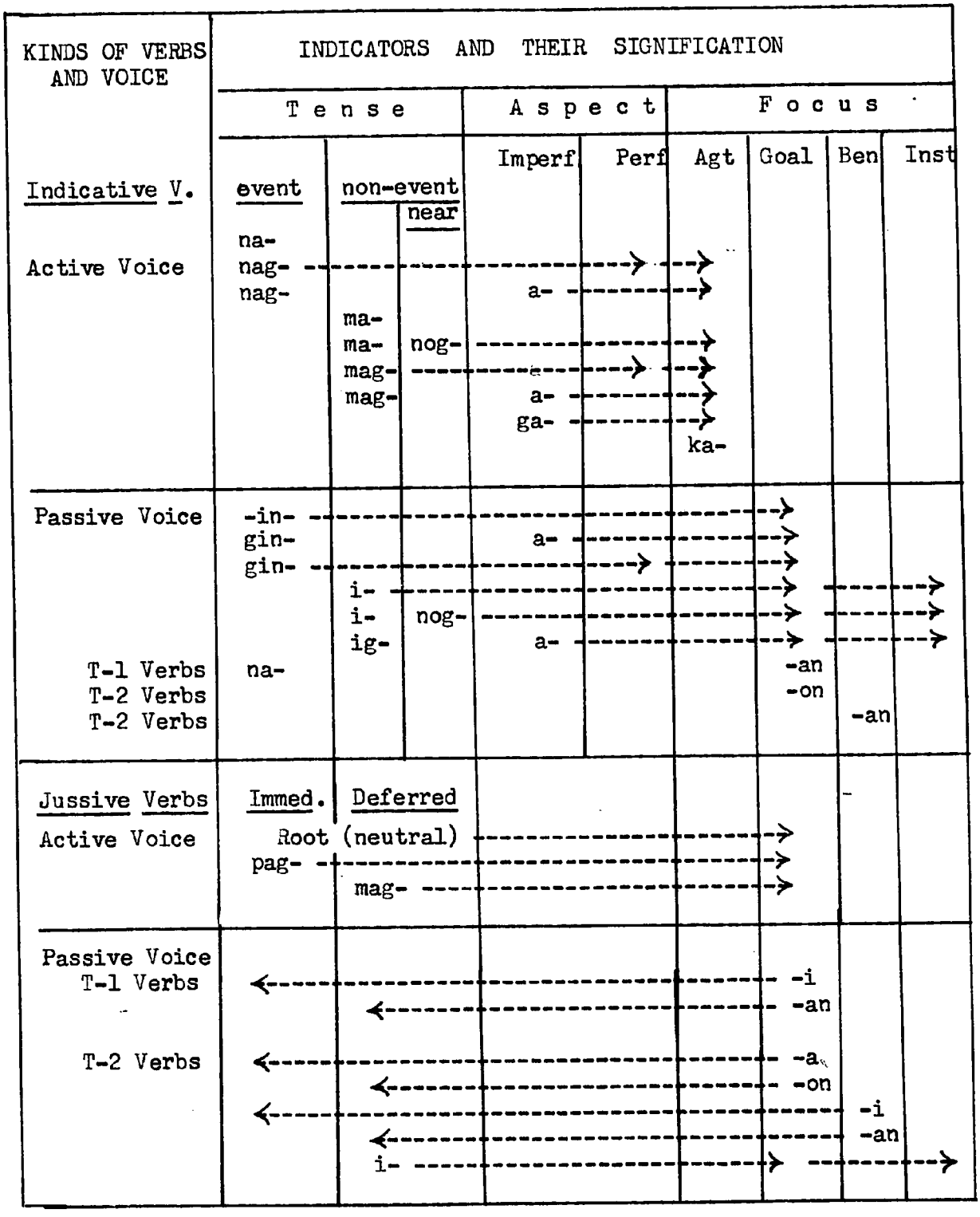
3.3.2 Complement 2, as in sentences with indicative verbs, may be

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[1] Clipped form of the agentive first person plural, inclusive pronoun.

TABLE 2

VOICE PATTERNS IN HILIGAYNON VERBS




N.B. The arrowheads indicate subsidiary meanings. Double arrows mark two functions an affix may have.

an unmarked nominal or a sang construct. Complement 3, when present, is till a sa/sa kay construct.

3.3.3 Except for the restrictions on the kinds of forms for Complement 1, further expansions of the jussive sentence may also follow those already suggested for previous sentence types.

3.3.4 The suffix -an carries a complex load of meaning. Aside from its use with nominal and descriptive forms, it has been associated with four types of contrasts in verbs.

3.3.4.1 First, with T-1 verbs it signifies cross reference to the subject as goal of the action, whether in the indicative system or in the jussive system. In the latter, however, it carries the added information that action is to be deferred. In the indicative system, indication of tense is not a function of this form.
In this function, the form is in complementary distribution with -on (-an with T-1 verbs; -on with T-2 verbs). With these details in mind, itis tempting to posit a morpheme $^{*}\{\text{-an}_1\}$ common to both indicative and jussive systems, with allomorphs /-an∿-un/ and the base meaning 'cross reference to subject as goal of action.' The meaning 'future' or 'deferred action' is automatically appended upon the use of the jussive system.

3.3.4.2 To do so, however, is to obscure a necessary contrast between -i 'jussive cross reference to subject as goal of action, immediate compliance,' and jussive -an. It seems more reasonable, then, to posit $\{\text{-an}_1\}$ 'indicative cross reference to subject as goal of action' and $\{\text{-an}_2\}$ 'jussive cross reference to subject as goal of action, deferred compliance.' Noth have the allomorphs -an∿-on.

3.3.4.3 With T-2 verbs, -an carries the meaning 'beneficiary,' in both the indicative and the jussive systems. The problem of distinguish-

ing forms here parallels that discussed above. It seems wise then to posit {-an$_3$} 'indicative cross reference to subject as beneficiary' and {-an$_4$} 'jussive cross reference to subject as beneficiary, deferred compliance.'

3.3.4.4 The extension of the preceding observations would be to recognize {-i$_1$} 'jussive cross reference to subject as goal of action, immediate compliance,' with allomorphs -i~-a. {-i$_2$} will then be 'jussive cross reference to subject as beneficiary of action,' with one allomorph, (of course, with T-2 verbs).

3.3.4.5 The distinguishing environments for telling the morphemes apart are: (1) concomitant prefixation, (2) the referent of the subject, (3) form of the complements, and (4), possibly, the period of time as set by "time" expressions or other verb forms.

4.0 "Jussive Reminiscent" Inflection.--Below are statements with verb inflections regularly associated with the jussive system. These sentences are "indicative" of antecedent commands or requests, here taken as the basis for the statements. However, these sentences are reports about them and not expressions of them. The verb inflections (here, -i and -a) will still be considered jussive. In the context of statements, however, their use is that of "jussive reminiscent,"[1] a term that is defined by the first three statements above.

1. Wala niya pagdal-i ako sang regalo.
   Neg C-1 V=dala Subj C-2

   'I was not brought a gift by him.'

2. Wa-ay sila ginpa-eskwelaha ni Daddy nila.
   Neg Subj V=eskwela C-1

   'They were not allowed to go to school by their father.'

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[1]For another "reminiscent" structure, see Part B, Section 3.3.2.1.

5.0 In summary, thus far, Table 3 on the next page shows the functions of nominals; the outline below sketches the tendency of the verb structure to dichotomize intricately. Thus:

1. Actions can be thought of from the point of view of the agent or that of an "object" (goal, beneficiary, or instrument).

2. Actions may be "happenings" or "commands."

3. Verbs in general may be transitive or intransitive.

4. Verbs may have different inflections for affirmation or negation.

5. Transitive verbs may be the type that takes only one complement or one that takes two complements.

6. Happenings may be events or eventualities/possibilities.

7. Eventualities may be imminent or not.

8. Commands may be deferred or pressing.

9. Actions can be "point" occurrences or durative ones.

## E. Sentences with Causative, Jussive Verbs.

1.0 The effect of the addition of the causative morpheme to a jussive verb can be seen by comparing typical sentences with and without it.

1.1 With an agent-focus sentence; verb=intransitive:

(a)1. Ka-on. '(You) eat.'

2. Paka-on (V-caf) ina (Subj). 'That be caused (by you) to be eaten.'
(Have that (be) eaten.)

The subject of the simple verb is also its agent. In the sentence with a causative, above, it becomes the implied agent of the causative. The subject is the goal of the verb root and the causative. The implied subject of the first sentence would have been Complement 1 in the second: "Paka-on ina nimo."

TABLE 3

## NOMINALS AND THEIR FUNCTIONS

| CLASSES OF NOMINALS | Functions | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | SUBJECT | | | | COMPLEMENT | | | | | MODIFIER |
| | TYPE 1 SENTENCE | | | TYPE 2 SENTENCE | | | | | | |
| | Subtype 1 | Subtype 2a | Subtype 2b | | Compl-S | Compl-1 | Compl-2 | Compl-3 | Compl-4 | |
| 1. Marked Construct | Ang- C.<br>Si-C. | Sa- C.<br>Sa kay-C. | Sang- C.<br>Ni-C. | Ang- C.<br>Si-C. | Ang- C.<br>Sa kay-<br>Sa-C. | Sang-C.<br>Ni-C. | Sang-C.*<br>Sa kay-<br>Sa-C. | Sa-C.<br>Sa kay- | Sang-C. | Sang-C.<br>Ni-C. |
| 2. Personal Pronouns | | | | | | | | | | |
| a. First, S | Ako | (Sa akon) | Nakon | Ako | Akon | Nakon | (Sa akon) | (Sa akon) | | Akon<br>Nakon |
| Inc, P | Kita | (Sa aton) | Naton | Kita | Aton | Naton | (Sa aton) | (Sa aton) | | A ton<br>Naton |
| Exc, P | Kami | (Sa amon) | Namon | Kami | Amon | Namon | (Sa amon) | (Sa amon) | | Amon<br>Namon |
| b.Second, S | Ikaw | (Sa imo) | Nimo | Ikaw | Imo | Nimo | (Sa imo) | (Sa imo) | | Imo<br>Nimo |
| P | Kamo | (Sa inyo) | Ninyo | Kamo | Inyo | Ninyo | (Sa inyo) | (Sa inyo) | | Inyo<br>Ninyo |
| c.Third, S | Sia | (Sa iya) | Niya | Sia | Iya | Niya | (Sa iya) | (Sa iya) | | Iya<br>Niya |
| P | Sila | (Sa ila) | Nila | Sila | Ila | Nila | (Sa ila) | (Sa ila) | | Il a<br>Nila |
| 3. Demon. Pronouns | Ini<br>Ina\ | Sini<br>Sina\ | Sini<br>Sina\ | Ini<br>Ina\ | Ini<br>Ini | Sini<br>Sini | Sini<br>Sini | (Sa sini)<br>(Sa sina\) | Sini<br>Sina\ | Sini<br>Sina\ |

N.B. The nominals in parenthesis are, properly, marked nominal constructs and not simple pronouns.
*After may the articles are omitted; with other verbs they alternate with their own absence.

(b)1. Estoria kita. 'Let's tell stories.'

2. Pa-estoria kita. Let's cause ourselves to be told stories.' When the subject is kita/ta, it is the agent of the simple, jussive verb, but it is the reflexive goal of the causative and beneficiary of the verb root (which has another, implied, agent).

1.2 With an agent-focus sentence; verb=transitive:

(a) Maghimus ka sang paniaga.
V-jaf[1] Subj C-2

'You prepare dinner.'

(b) Magpahimus ka sang paniaga.
V-cjaf Subj C-2

'You cause the dinner to be prepared.' (Have dinner prepared.) The subject, which is the agent of the simple jussive verb, becomes the agent of the causative. The sang construct is Complement 2 of the verb root in both sentences. For the second sentence, the agent of the verb root could have been a sa construct which would occupy the following positions in the sentence: Magpahimus ka sa ila ⌜sang paniaga."

1.3 With a goal-focus sentence:

(a)1. Himusa ang paniaga.
V-jgf Subj

'The dinner be prepared (by you).' (Prepare the dinner.)

2. Pahimusa ang kabata-an sang paniaga.
V-cjgf Subj C-2

'The children be caused to prepare the dinner.'

(Have the children prepare the dinner.)

The goal which is subject in the first sentence is complement of the verb root in the second. The goal of the causative is also its subject. "You" is

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[1]V-jaf= jussive verb with agent focus. The other symbols after "V" in other examples are as previously identified.

the implied agent of the causative.

(b)1. Ihatag ang kan-on kay Inday.
V-jgf Subj C-3

'The rice be given to Inday.' (Give the rice to Inday.)

2. Ipahatag ang kan-on kay Inday.
V-cjgf Subj C-3

'The rice be caused to be given to Inday.'

(Have the rice be given to Inday.)

As in sentences with indicative verbs, a Complement 3 in the position above remains Complement 3 of the verb root of a causative verb. Similarly, putting such a construct right after the verb makes it the agent, or instrument, of the verb root, in which case another sa/sa kay construct will be needed for Complement 3.

1.4 With a beneficiary-focus sentence:

(a) Hatagi si Inday sang kan-on.
V-jbf Subj C-2

'Inday be given some rice.' (Give Inday some rice.)

(b) Pahatagi si Inday sang kan-on.
V-cjbf Subj C-2

'Cause Inday to be given some rice.'

In the first sentence, the subject is beneficiary; in the second, it is the goal of the causative and the beneficiary of the verb root. "You" is the implied agent of the causative. The sang construct is Complement 2 in both. The implied agent of the verb root would be a sa construct:

Pahatagi sa bata_/ si Inday sang kan-on.

'Cause Inday to be given some rice by/through the child.'

2.0 The sentence with a causative jussive verb can also be expanded in the ways already suggested for other sentence types.

# Part III

## Other Sentence Types

### A. The Sentence with an Absolute Construct as "Topic."

1.0 The Absolute Construct as "Topic."--Sentences like the one below justify calling the absolute construct, instead of the subject, the "topic" of the sentence:

| Si Jose, | ang kalibutan | iya. |
|---|---|---|
| Abs | Subj | Compl-S |

'Joe, the world is his.'

It is to be noted that the rest of the sentence after si Jose is a very acceptable verbless sentence--semantically, some comment about the absolute construct. The absolute construct has reference in the clause itself: the genitive pronoun iya, but it is not of the same case as the pronominal substitute of si Jose, which should be sia 'he.'

1.1 The absolute construct as topic is an ang or a si construct or, sometimes, a pronoun form in the nominative case (ako, ikaw, etc.).

1.2 The reference, in the sentence, of the absolute construct may also be an identical or equal[1] form.

1. Ikaw, nagadukoydukoy ka man sa imo obra.
   Abs V=dukoydukoy Subj Mod C-3

   'You, you also keep bending over your work.'

2. Si Inday, nag-eskwela sia kag-ina.
   Abs V=eskwela Subj Mod

   'Inday, she went to school a while ago.'

---

[1] That is, ang/si construct= nominative case forms of the pronouns.

1.3 Usually, an open juncture occurs between the absolute and the rest of the sentence.

B. The Impersonal Sentence.

1.0 The Form of the Impersonal Sentence.--When an acceptable sentence which does not have a subject does not have a jussive verb form in its predicate either, that sentence is likely to be an impersonal sentence. Such a sentence may be composed of just the subject complement; or the verb alone, or with its complement(s) and/or its modifier(s). Semantically, it is the type of sentence made about comments on general conditions or activities.

1.1 Examples of impersonal sentences are:

1. May programa karon.
   V Compl Mod

   'There is going to be a program by and by.'

2. Nagguerra sang 1941.
   V Mod

   'There was a war in 1941.'

3. Ka-init subong.
   Compl-S Mod

   'It is very warm now.'

2.0 Absolute Constructs in Impersonal Sentences.--

| | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Ina\ | ang | wa-ay | ngipon, | ma-ayo | pa | gani\ . |
| Dem | Ar | Neg V | N | Desc | Ql | Hol |
| that | the | not-have | teeth | good | yet | you-know |
| Absolute construct | | | | Impersonal sentence | | |

A sentence like the one above can be easily misconstrued to be a verbless sentence, with the first underlined constituent as the subject. In speech this type of sentence is marked by the characteristic break after the absolute (and, frequently, a rise in pitch at the final syllable at least), before the speaker gives his comment. The sentence

above therefore means: 'That, the not having any teeth at all--it is better, really.'

## Part IV

## On the Variableness of the Position Of Sentence Constituents

1.0 Emphasis and Position.--In the foregoing discussion, rationale has been given for the variableness of the positions of sentence constituents. It has been suggested that the emphasis intended by the speaker dictates his choice of position and/or form for each constituent. It has been assumed that "subject" is a more important function than "complement." It has also been assumed that front positions are more emphatic than postpositions.

2.0 The analysis thus far has tried to account for the range in position and form of the nuclear nominals, but it has not explained the rather free interchangeability of the positions of the subject and the verb. The question still to be answered is: Where or when is the subject important so that it is put ahead of the verb? And vice versa. It has been intuitively felt that the answer lay at higher levels than grammar.

The answer furnished by an investigation[1] into the relationship between type of discourse and the ordering of subject and verb is an overwhelming proof that there is a very significant correlation between type of discourse and the ordering of the two major constituents of a Hiligaynon sentence. It can be said that the choice of arrangement for subject and verb/subject complement, for beginning sentences of dis-

[1] See Appendix K.

courses, is a function of the type of discourse intended to be written.

Specifically, the investigation allows it to be said with confidence that the favorite sentence pattern of narratives is Verb + Subject and the favorite pattern of the beginning sentence of reports or discussions is Subject + Verb. However, the longer the report becomes, the more the sentences tend to the form of the "narrative" sentence.

The investigation does not preclude the idea that there may be other variables that may correlate with verb and subject position.

# CHAPTER III

## CLASSIFICATION BASED ON COMPLEXITY OF STRUCTURE

1.0 Introduction.--The sentences described in Chapter II are, for the most part, those with only one clause. The minimal constituents required for the identification of each type have been identified, their relative positions in the sentences have been shown, the kinds of forms that fulfill each function have been enumerated, and, finally, the patterns of expansion for each minimal constituent have been delineated.

The present chapter takes such sentence units and explains how, through their combinations, further expansions can be effected. Hiligaynon sentence structure differentiates between what may be called compound sentences and complex sentences.

### A. The Compound Sentence.

1.0 The Compound Sentence Defined.--A compound sentence is usually identified by the occurrence of one of the coordinators between two sentence-like constructions, none of which is introduced by a subordinator.

2.0 The Coordinators.--There are nine forms which are used as coordinators, and these nine fall into four groups. The first group has one member: kag 'and, moreover, etc.' The second group has three members: apang~pero~ugaling 'but, on the other hand, etc.' The third

group also has three members: ukon ~ o ~ kon 'or, nor.' The fourth group has two correlatives: indi` - kondi`, wala` - kondi` 'not - but.'

2.1 These types of conjunctions have special features of usage.

2.1.1 In the second group, the choice among the synonyms is a matter of style. Apang is preferred in literary (also, formal written Hiligaynon). Ugaling is usually found in formal writing or speech. Pero is the common term in present-day colloquial Hiligaynon.

2.1.2 Of the three terms in the third group, the first, ukon, is the most frequently used.

2.1.3 Indi` - kondi` is used in "non-event" sentences; wala` - kondi` is used with "event" sentences.

2.1.4 Incidentally, in any type of sentences which are expanded, the coordinators connect any size of grammatical units which are equal in rank.

3.0 Examples of Compound Sentences. --The compound sentences which are easiest to recognize are those in which any one of the coordinators stands between two full unsubordinated clauses, as in the following:

1. Gahambal / V — ka / Subj — lang / Mod — pero / Co — ikaw / Subj — nagasigi / V — man / Mod — obra. / C-2

'You only say (so), but you also are continuing (to) work.'

2. Ginhimus / V — niya / C-1 — ang lamisa / Subj — kag / Co — lumakat / V — sia / Subj — dayon. / Mod

'The table was arranged by her and she left right away.'

(She cleared the table and left right away.)

3. Seguro / Mod — si Mama / Subj — naglakat / V — ukon / Co — si Belen / Subj — nagalahug / V — lang. / Mod

Probably Mother went out, or Belen is just joking.'

3.1 The compound sentence may have an elliptical clause, as in:

1. Pati ka ukon indi\ .
   V Subj Co Neg V

   'You believe or not.' (Believe it or not.)

2. Duha lang ini ka pisos ugaling wala\ na.
   Compl-S Subj Compl-S Co Neg V Mod

   'This is only two pesos, but there are no more (copies).'

3. Isa ka bulan ina\ kag kuha-on.
   Compl-S Subj Co V

   'That (will stay on) one month; and (it) will taken off.'

4.0 Other Positions for Coordinators.--Coordinators may be found at the beginning of a sentence. This happens (1) when a speaker takes time after his last sentence and then adds the second half of what he wants to say as an afterthought, or (2) when another speaker adds a rejoinder which he makes to appear as a continuation of the previous speaker's last sentence.

In a loosely-constructed sentence a coordinator may be found at the end. Coordinators at these two positions are best considered as sentence modifiers.

3.0 Parataxis.--This type of compound sentence, being without any coordinator, is characterized by close juncture between potential sentences, and/or similar intonation over each clause in the series, and closely related thoughts in the series. Some examples are:

1. Sentence heard to have close juncture between clauses:

   Trining, ginatawag ka ni Lola, mabakal langgaw kay Usting.
   Voc V-gf Subj C-1 V-af C-2 C-3

   'Trining, you are called by Grandma, (you) will buy vinegar at Usting's (place).'

2. Heard without characteristic terminal contour at the end of the first clause:

$^{3}$Dalagan ako, $^{2}$wala kapaniaga.
V-af Subj Neg V-af

'I ran; (I) was not able to eat dinner.'

3. Sentence with similar intonation pattern over clauses in a series:

$^{2}$Tigulang $^{3}$ka $^{2}$pa, utod pa ang ti$^{3}$-il $^{2}$ta, $^{1}$na$^{2}$no
Compl-S Subj Mod Compl-S Subj Compl-S

$^{2}$na lang ato.
Mod Subj

'You are old, our feet are broken, what at all is that?'

(When one is old and one's feet are maimed, what is there to life?)

B. The Complex Sentence.

1.0 The Complex Sentence, Defined.--A complex sentence is composed of two sentence-like constructions, one of which is introduced by any of the subordinators given in the next section. The subordinate clause, except the clause introduced by nga as relative pronoun, may be considered as a modifier of the main clause.

2.0 The Subordinators.--There are at least fifteen subordinators in Hiligaynon, to signal nine ways by which a minor clause may modify the predication of another clause. These subordinators, and their meanings, are:

a. purpose - agud (nga)~para 'in order that'

b. condition (provision) - basta 'provided that'

c. condition (attendant circumstances) - kon 'if, when'

d. concession - bisan 'even if, even though'

e. reason - kay (man) 'because'

1. causal reason - bangud (kay)~tungud (kay) 'because'

2. logical reason - sanglit (kay) 'for'

f. limits - tubtub (nga) hasta (nga) 'until'

g. relative to - nga 'who, which, that, when'

h. concurrence - samtang~mientras (nga) 'while'

i. result - ganiʼ (nga) 'so, so that'

2.1 Ambiguous forms. From previous discussions, it is evident that kay, kondiʼ, kon, and nga have homophones. Another kay is an article; another kon, a coordinator; another nga, a connector in a nominal phrase; and another kondiʼ, a part of a correlative coordinator. Tubtub is also a relator.

The subordinators, except for kon and kondiʼ, can be told apart from their homophones by the fact that they stand before predications. In the case of kon, only semantics will help. If it introduces alternatives (and here intonation will help),[1] it is a coordinator; if it introduces a condition, it is a subordinator. The coordinator kondiʼ is paired with a negator.

2.2 The sentences below illustrate the use of the subordinators:

1. Ginpukaw sia ni Fe agud makapamahaw sila.
   V-gf Subj C-l Sub V-af Subj

   'He was roused by Fe so that they could eat breakfast.'

2. Naglumpat sia kondiʼ nabaliʼ sia.
   V-af Subj Sub V-gf Subj

   'He jumped; so he was broken.' (He jumped and broke a bone.)

3. Ambut kon nag-ayo na sia.
   Hol Sub V-af Mod Subj

   'I don't know if he has already recovered.'

---

[1] See Chapter V, D, Section 7.0

4. Ma-obra kita tubtub (nga) matapus ina\.
   V-af Subj Sub V-gf Subj

   'We will work until that is finished.'

5. Togon ka basta binisaya\ lang.
   V-af Subj Sub Subj? Mod

   'You (give your) request provided it is only in Bisayan.'

6. Lakat kita samtang nga ginatapus ina\.
   V-af Subj Sub V-gf Subj

   'Let's go while that is being finished.'

3.0 Nga as General Connector.-- Nga is a connector at two levels. Already noted is its function as connector in a modification structure with a noun as head.[1]

3.1 As a subordinator, it may be a relative pronoun to a preceding nominal, usually a noun, and subject of the minor clause which it introduces. The position of the connected terms is significant in determining whether a noun modification structure has a word modifier or a clause modifier, as the examples below show:

1. ang ma-ayo nga bata\
   Ar Adj C N

   'the good child'

2. ang bata\ nga ma-ayo
   Ar N Sub Adj

   'the child who is good'

The minor clause may be like a Type 2 sentence:

3. ang bola nga ginhampangan naton
   Ar N Sub V=hampang C-1

   'the ball that was played with by us'

---

[1] It is also a connector of a reduplicated verb showing a type of plural action: bomba nga bomba 'pumped and pumped'; and some modifiers when attached to verbs: hinali\ nga napatay 'suddenly died'.

3.2 Nga is also used regularly as introducer of discourses:

Nagsiling sia nga, "Dali-dali ka."
V-af Subj V-af Subj

'He said, "You hurry up."'

and as general subordinator:

Wala ka kahibalo nga ang imo sugilanon nadakpan namon?
Neg Subj V-af Sub Ar GnPr N V-gf C-1
Subj

'Didn't you know that your story was overheard by us?'

4.0 The Elliptical Complex Sentence.--A partial repetition of information in the clauses of a complex sentence may result in ellipsis. Two types of construction are exemplified below. It is to be noted that the type which repeats a "key" term assumes the intonation for alternatives: the "repetition" is said on a sustained pitch which is lower than the pitch preceding it. (The "key" words in the sentences below are ila and taga-an.)

1a. $^{3}$Ti , $^{2}$basta ila, $^{1}$ila.
X Sub Compl Compl

'Well, if (it is) theirs, (it is) theirs.'

b. $^{2}$Kon gusto ka na niya taga-an, ta$^{1}$ga-an ka gid sina .
Sub Mdl Subj Compl-1 V-bf V-bf Subj Mod Compl-1

'If you are desired to be given to by him, you will surely be given by that man.' (If he wants to give you anything, he will surely give it to you.)

2. May ara nga sia no?
V Com Sub NomP Q

'There is in there that he, isn't there?' (There is a record in which he does the recording himself, isn't there?)

5.0 Embedding in Clauses. A sequence of connectors within an utterance signals embedding. Compound-complex and complex-complex

sentences[1] may result. The following are examples:

1. Nagsiling sia nga kon mag-abut ka malakat kita sa uma.
   V=siling Subj Sub Sub V=abut Subj V=lakat Subj C-2
   say he that if arrive you go we farm

   'He said that when you arrive we will go to the farm.'

2. Indi\ kay kon iya sang eskwelahan taga-an ka "discount."
   Neg Sub Sub Compl Mod V=taga\ Subj C-2
   for if its school give you

   'No, for if (it is) the school's, you will be given a discount.'

3. Ina\ ang sine nga katapusan nga nakita\ ko.
   Subj Compl Sub Compl Sub V=kita C-1
   that show that last that see (by) me

   'That was the show that was the last that was seen by me.'

4. Malayo\, pero kon obligacion moral?
   Compl Co Sub Compl

   '(It may be) far, but if (it is) a moral obligation?'

---

[1]A complex-complex sentence has more than one minor clause in it.

# CHAPTER IV

## CLASSIFICATION BASED ON ORDER OF OCCURRENCE IN DISCOURSE

### A. The "Free" Sentence.

1.0 The "Free" Sentence, a Review.--In Chapter II, Section 1.0, it was stated that all the attempted description in that chapter was to be assumed to be based on the "free" sentence. This sentence has been defined as being the starting sentence (1) of a communication situation, or (2) of a new topic for discourse. It was also defined as most likely to have expressions for both "topic" and "comment."

### B. The Sequent Sentence.

1.0 The Sequent Sentence, Defined.--All other sentences that do not fall under the definition for the "free" sentence are sequent sentences. They are likely to be replies to questions, responses, or subsequent statements by the speaker of the "free" sentence.

2.0 The Form of the Sequent Sentence.--In general, sequent sentences are likely to differ from "free" sentences in that (1) modification of a basic intonational contour is more likely to occur in them; (2) there will be greater occurrences of different types of ellipsis in them. This high incidence of ellipsis in sequent sentences can be explained by the fact that in Hiligaynon there is a strong tendency to discourage repetition of previously given or tacitly and mutually un-

derstood information.

2.1 Types of sequent sentences.

2.1.1 The independent topic as sentence. A sequent sentence is no more than a nominal, sometimes. The ang or si construct in such a use is called an "independent topic." The following examples show the independent topic as (1) response and (2) a comment which is a subsequent sentence by the same speaker.

1. Q: Sin-o ngalan mo?
Subj Compl-S

'What is your name?'

A: Si Evelyn.

'Evelyn.'

2. "Siling ya, 'Masakit gid sia ni Manuel.'
V C-1 V Mod Subj C-1

'He said, "He will really be hurt by Manuel."

"Ang kulba\ ko na man."
Ar N Mod Mod

'My fright again.' (I became frightened again.)

2.2 The predicate as sentence. The predicate alone may also stand as a statement in some responses, as shown below:

1. Q: Ti\ , ano lang ang gina-obra mo sa eskwelahan?
X QPr Mod Ar N,V=obra C-1 Ar N
what only work you school

'Well, what then is the thing that is done by you in school?'

A: Gapangwa\ bulak.
V=kuha\ C-2

'Picking flowers.' (I pick flowers.)

2. Q: Ano color ya?
QPr N Mod

'What is its color?'

A: Pula kag puti\.
red and white

'Red and white.'

2.3 A modifier as sentence. Modifiers alone may be response (sequent) sentences. Below are two such:

1. Q: San-o ka malakat?
QAdv Subj V

'When will you go?'

A: Sa buwas.

'Tomorrow.'

2. Q: Malakat ka?
V Subj

'Will you go?'

A: Indi\.

'No.'

3.0 It was noted that the latter clause of a compound or a complex sentence may also be like a sequent sentence in that it can be elliptical. The following compound sentences are presented again to illustrate this fact; examples of complex sentences with ellipsis are found in Chapter III, B, Section 4.0.

1. Dalagan ako; wala\ kapaniaga.
V Subj Neg V

'I ran; (I) was not able to eat dinner.'

2. Ginatawag ka ni Lola, mabakal langgaw.
V Subj C-1 V C-2

'You are called by Grandma; (you) will buy vinegar.'

3. Pati ka ukon indi\.
V Subj Co Neg V

'You believe or (you) don't.'

# CHAPTER V

## CLASSIFICATION BASED ON EXPECTED RESPONSE

### A. Introduction.

1.0 The Expected Response.--Fries' description[1] of the expected response that prompts a speaker's utterance is considered adequate forthe description of comparable Hiligaynon communication situations. Hiligaynon sentences may be classified according to whether they are meant to get (1) continued attention from the hearer, (2) action, or (3) verbal response. From the speaker's point of view, the sentences may (1) intend to give a report (statements), (2) ask for active compliance (jussive sentences), or (3) desire a reply (questions).

2.0 Distinguishing Features for Classification.--The three features most important in distinguishing statements, jussive sentences, and questions are (1) intonation, (2) verb inflection, and (3) the use of specialized lexical items peculiar to requests and to questions.

2.1 Verb inflection. The indicative verb[2] is mainly found in statements; the jussive verb,[3] in commands and requests (jussive sentences). Either of these verb types may be used in questions. Since

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[1]Charles C. Fries, The Structure of English (New York: Harcourt, Brace & Company, 1952), pp. 41-53.

[2]See Chapter II, Part II, B and C.

[3]See Chapter II, Part II, D and E.

the inflections for both statements and jussive sentences have already been described, only the use of these verbs in questions remains to be explained. This matter will be taken up in Part D of this chapter.

2.2 Lexical items regularly used with requests will be identified in Part C of this chapter, and those that make questions will be identified in Part D.

2.3 Two types of intonation patterns will be identified for each sentence type. The first type is here called the "neutral" pattern. It is the intonation characteristic of "neutral" sentences; i.e., sentences that simply give objective reports, or ask for active compliance, or desire a reply--without overtones that may suggest other intentions besides. Any departure from this "neutral" pattern is considered a modification of that pattern. It will be attempted here to show what modification in the basic message is signalled by a recurrent " modified" pattern.

## B. The Statement.

1.0 The Statement, Defined.--A free statement, i.e., unconditioned by previous utterances, is characterized by (a) an intonation contour that ends in either Pitch 1 or Pitch 2 with a quick fade-out; (b-1) a topic and (b-2) a comment about it; and (c) should the sentence be of Type 2, a distinctive set of verb inflections. Sequent statements like replies or subsequent statements by the same speaker may be modified in intonation contour or omit one of the features just mentioned.

5.0 The Simple, Free Statement.--Various forms of the simple, free statement are exemplified below. The pitch levels are indicated

by superscripts.[1]

1. $^{2}$Ang tambis ni Lolo (Subj) ginpangwa\ (V=kuha\) sang kabata$^{1}$-an. (C-1)

'The tambis of Granfather were picked by the children.'

2. $^{2}$Diotayan lang (Mod) kami (Subj) kag-ina (Mod) masungkit (V=sungkit) sang $^{1}$"jeep." (C-1)

'We were almost sideswiped by a jeep a while ago.'

The examples above show the subjects occurring before the verbs. A preferred arrangement for sentences that begin narratives puts the verb ahead of the subject, as in the following examples:

1. Nagapalibog (V=palibog) si Ulang A--- (Subj) ....[a]

'Dame A--- was worrying ....'

2. Sadtong isa ka tu-ig (Mod) bumaha\ (V=baha\) sing daku\ (Mod) ang Tumagbok. (Subj)

'Last year the Tumagbok greatly overflowed (its banks).'

2.1 All the examples so far are Type 2 sentences. The following examples are Type 1 sentences. In the first two the subject is ahead of the complement; in the latter two, the complement comes before the subject.

1. $^{1}$Ang $^{2}$akon nga edad (Subj) dies↓ (Compl)

'My age is ten.' (I am ten years old.)

---

[1]In accordance with popular notation, the four pitch levels which are significant in Hiligaynon are numbered from 1, the lowest, to 4, the highest. Terminal contours will be designated thus: → for the sustained pitch; ↓ for fading and slightly falling pitch which does not descend to the next level; ↑ for rising pitch which does not reach the next level.

[a](Letters will be used for superscripts in sections where numbers are used for pitch levels.) These two examples are from written data. If they were to be spoken,, they would have the given contour for statements.

2. $^{2}$Ina\ iya obligacion mo$^{1}$ral.
Subj Compl

'That in itself is a moral obligation.'

3. $^{2}$Diri $^{1}$man na\ sia kag-ina.$^{1}$
Compl Mod Subj Mod

'That person was also here a while ago.'

4. $^{2}$Inocente ka imo si$^{1}$na\.
Compl Subj Compl(cont'd)

'You yourself are innocent of that.'

(You yourself do not know what it is all about.)

2.2 Examples of negative statements are:

1. $^{2}$Indi\ ko galing kaba$^{1}$lo.
Neg Subj Mod V

'Only, I do not know (how to tell a story).'

2. $^{2}$Wa-ay na ako sing inogtogon,$^{2}$ $^{1}$ah.
Neg V Mod Subj Compl Hol

'It is true, I do not have any more request(s).'

3.0 Modifications in the Intonation of a Simple Statement.--
When an extended discourse is anticipated by the participants in a communication situation, the statement is likely to end on Pitch 2 and quickly fade out. Below are statements taken from such a discourse:

1. $^{2}$Ang idu\ nagaka-on sang bukog.$^{2}\downarrow$
Subj V C-2

'The dog is eating fishbones.'

2. $^{2}$Duha ka pisos lang ini.$^{2}\downarrow$
Compl Mod Subj

'This is only two pesos.' (This costs only two pesos.)

3.1 The intonations described above may be the only distinguishing mark of a statement. The contrast between them and that of the question is explained elsewhere. Any non-final rise to Pitch 3 is

usually intended for emphasis, and may occur over a syllable, or a longer stretch of utterance.

1. $\underset{\text{Voc}}{{}^{3}\text{Ne}\searrow}$, $\underset{\text{Compl-S}}{{}^{2}\text{kadaku}\searrow}$ $\underset{\text{Subj}}{\text{sang imo bu}{}^{3}\text{kol}.\downarrow}$

'Dear, how big your boil is!'

2. $\underset{\text{V}}{{}^{3}\text{Na}{}^{2}\text{bayaran}}$ $\underset{\text{Mod}}{\text{na}.\downarrow}$

'(It) has been paid already.'

3. $\underset{\text{Hol}}{{}^{3}\text{Ay}}$, $\underset{\text{Neg}}{\text{indi}\searrow}$ $\underset{\text{V}}{\text{kabalo}.\downarrow}$

'Oh, see, (he) does not know (how).'

4.1.1 A common signal, in all kinds of sentences, of a change of speakers is an initial Pitch 3 over an attention-getter like ti\, hala, abi, ay, ah, etc.

1. $\underset{\text{Hol}}{{}^{3}\text{Ay}}$, $\underset{\text{V=isip}}{{}^{2}\text{gina-isip}}$ $\underset{\text{C-1}}{\text{ya}}$ $\underset{\text{Mod}}{{}^{3}\text{pa}.\downarrow}$

'Oh, look, (it) is still being counted by him.'

2. $\underset{\text{Hol}}{{}^{3}\text{Ti}\searrow}$, $\underset{\text{QAdv}}{{}^{2}\text{di-in}}$ $\underset{\text{Subj}}{\text{kamo}}$ $\underset{\text{V}}{\text{gakuha}\searrow}$ $\underset{\text{C-2}}{\text{sina}\searrow\ \text{iya}?{}^{2}\downarrow}$

'In that case, where do you get those (ones)?'

Sometimes it is the pitch at the beginning of the main clause itself that is raised to catch attention for the speaker.

1. $\underset{\text{Neg}}{{}^{3}\text{Indi}\searrow}$ $\underset{\text{Mod}}{{}^{2}\text{pa man}}$ $\underset{\text{Subj}}{\text{kami}}$ $\underset{\text{V}}{\text{ma-ano}}$ $\underset{\text{Hol}}{{}^{3}\text{ah}.\downarrow}$

'We will not yet suffer, to tell the truth.'

2. $\underset{\text{V}}{{}^{3}\text{May}}$ $\underset{\text{Compl}}{{}^{2}\text{hinablus}}$ $\underset{\text{Mod}}{\text{pa}}$ $\underset{\text{Subj}}{\text{ako}}$ $\underset{\text{Mod}}{\text{diri}.\downarrow}$

'I still have a nephew here.'

4.1.2 Two other important final contours among statements are: (1) the reversal of the objective, basic 2--1 into a 1--2, used in giving instructions or explications in a familiar manner; (2) a final

3-2 usually on the last two syllables, which implies an obviousness of the idea , as if to say, in addition, "Oh, yes, no doubt about that." Below are two sets of minimal sentences which differ only in intonation, where the use of the 3-2 contour is well illustrated:

1. A: $^{2}$Re$^{1}$-u$^{4}$ma? 'Rheumatism?'

   B: $^{2}$Re$^{3}$-u$^{2}$ma. '(That's what I said.) Rheumatism.'

2. A: Ay bisan malayo-layo\ ka dakpan ka gid mo.
   Hol Sub Compl Subj V Subj Mod Hol

   'It's true, even though you are quite far, you will really be overheard, I tell you.'

   B: $^{2}$M$^{3}$hm? 'Is that true?'

   A: $^{2}$M$^{3}$hm$^{2}$. 'That's right.'

Examples of explanation or admonition given in a familiar manner are:

1. $^{2}$Ne\, $^{1}$tigulang ka $^{2}$na. $^{1}$Indi\ na\ bagay sa $^{3}$i$^{2}$mo.
   Voc Compl Subj Mod Neg Subj Compl Mod

   'Dear, you are already old. That is not fit for you (and you know it).'

2. $^{2}$Kay $^{3}$man $^{1}$tug$^{2}$naw.
   Sub Hol Compl

   'Because, you see, (it is) cold.'

## C. The Jussive Sentences.

1.0 Features of a Jussive Sentence.--The sentence which asks for compliance from the hearer(s) is formally marked by three features: (1) a sustained intonation as a basic pattern; (2) a distinctive set of verb inflections; and (3) reference to the hearer(s) as the overt or implied agent(s) of the action of the verb.

2.0 Intonation in a Jussive Sentence.--There is what may be called the neutral intonation for this type of sentence. Variants of

it occur with modifications of the general jussive idea.

2.1 The neutral intonation. Short commands are usually given with a sustained Pitch 3.

1. $^{3}$Hambal, Apio$\backslash$.$^{3}$ 'Speak, Apio$\backslash$.'
2. $^{3}$Sigi na.$^{3}$ 'Go ahead now.'
3. $^{3}$Tawgon mo sia.$^{3}$ 'He be called by you.' (You call him.)

2.2 In close company--in the sense of close proximity of participants and also in the sense of familiarity or kindly relations--the peremptoriness of a command may be softened by giving it a sustained Pitch 2 instead. (Introductory expressions may have their own, and different, intonation.) Below, the jussive verbs are underlined.

1. $^{3}$Apio$\backslash$,$^{3}$ $^{2}$<u>hambal</u> gani$\backslash$.$^{2\rightarrow}$ 'Apio, suppose (you) speak.'
2. $^{2}$<u>Sigi</u> na.$^{2}$ 'Go ahead now.'
3. $^{3}$Ti$\backslash$, $^{2}$<u>tago-a</u> lang anay.$^{2\rightarrow}$
   'Well, (it) be just kept in the meantime.'
   (Well, just keep it awhile.)

3.0 <u>The Request</u>.--This form differs from a command in that Pitch 2 is sustained only until the penultimate syllable; then the pitch rises to 3. The rise may occur earlier. If it does, the distinctive verb inflection and the use of the hearer(s) as agent(s) of the verb of request distinguish this 2--2--3 pattern from similar ones elsewhere.

1. $^{2}$<u>Kap$^{3\rightarrow}$ti</u>. '(It) be held (by you).' (Hold it, please.)
2. $^{2}$<u>Sigi</u> $^{3\rightarrow}$na. 'Please go ahead now.'

3.1 Request particles. The 2--2-3 intonation of requests is reinforced by some forms that frequently accompany these requests. In

the examples below these particles are underlined:

1. $^{2}$Dali-a $^{3}\underline{\text{man}}\rightarrow$. 'Please it be hurried up.' (Please hurry it up.)
   V

2. $^{2}$Tawga $\underline{\text{anay}}$ to $^{3}\underline{\text{sia}}\rightarrow$. 'Please he be called.' (Please call him.)
   V Subj

3. $^{2}\underline{\text{Palihug}}^{a}$ ko sang tubi$\searrow$, $^{3}$Neng.$^{2}\rightarrow$ 'May I ask for some water, Neng?'

3.2 The use of these particles allows variations on the 2--2-3 pattern, as Sentence 3 above exemplifies. Other examples are:

1. $^{2}$Dali-$^{3}$da$^{2}$li$\searrow$ $^{3}\underline{\text{ay}}\rightarrow$. 'A little faster, please.'
   V

2. $^{3}$Sigi $^{2}$na $^{3}\underline{\text{ho}}\rightarrow$. 'Go ahead now, please.'
   V Mod

3.2.1 Ending with Pitch 2 on the particle ah implies pleading.

1. $^{2}$Estoria $^{3}$ta, $^{2}\underline{\text{ah}}\rightarrow$. 'Come on, let's tell stories, please.'
   V Subj

2. $^{2}$Ka-on a$^{3}$nay $^{2}\underline{\text{ah}}\rightarrow$ 'Eat first, won't you?'
   V Mod

4.0 Verbless Jussive Sentences.--All of the examples given so far have jussive verbs. Sometimes only intonation (and particles) carry the jussive idea:

1. ...$^{2}$diri lang subong na$\searrow$, ho.$^{2}\rightarrow$
   Dir Ql Rel Dem Hol
   here only like that you-see

   '... (put it) just here, like that, see?'

2. $^{3}$Ikaw man, Day.$^{3}\rightarrow$
   NomP Ql Voc
   you also

   'You too (say it), Dear.'

---

[a] Palihug is a general request verb. It can be followed by a more specific verb of request, thus: "Palihug ko pasa sang tubig, Neng." 'Please pass me the water, Neng.'

5.0 Long Utterances with Jussive Ideas.--Long jussive utterances usually do not sustain the initial pitch. With such utterances, there are two common variations on the basic pattern.

5.1 A command may begin with a 3--3 and finish with a 2--2.

1. $^{3}$Hatag da$^{3}$ $^{2}$kay Manang mo Lisa, oh.$^{2}\rightarrow$
   V Mod. C-3 Hol

'Give (it) there to your Manang Lisa. Here.'

5.2 Explanatory parts after a command or a request may have the intonation characteristic of statements; i.e., a drop to Pitch 1 or a quick fade-out from Pitch 2, as in:

$^{3}$Bakli si Mama ergaperin,$^{3}$ sa botica dira lang sa Bur$^{1}$gos.
V Subj C-2 Mod

'Mother be bought ergaperin from the drugstore just there on Burgos.' (Buy Mother some ergaperin from the drugstore just there on Burgos Street.)

6.0 The Inflection of the Jussive Verb.--This matter has been discussed in Chapter II, Part II, Sections D and E.

D. The Questions.

1.0 Distinguishing Features of the Question.--The question can be told apart from the statement and the jussive type of sentences by three features: (1) a distinctive neutral intonation pattern, and the use of (2) interrogative expressions and (3) question-reiterating particles.

1.1 The neutral intonation pattern can be symbolized thus: 2--2-1-4. The distinctive ending has Pitch 1 on the penultimate syllable and a rise to Pitch 4 on the last, as exemplified by a minimal question like "$^{1}$Na$^{4}$no?" 'What?' Usually the initial pitch is Pitch 2. "Neu-

tral pattern" also means basic pattern. Variations on this pattern are discussed in the following section.

1.2 The need for specific information is signalled by interrogative expressions like ano 'what' and sin-o 'who.' These are taken up in Section 3.0 below.

1.3 There are some particles in the language which, in a way, echo the question posed by the interrogative expressions. Their function is taken up in Section 4.0.

## 2.0 Intonation in Questions.

2.1 Sentences contrasted by intonation. Many utterances could change from one type of sentence to another simply by change of intonation. Some can be either statements or questions; some, either jussive sentences or questions.

### 2.1.1 Statements and questions contrasted

1a. $^{2}$Na$^{1}$du$^{4}$la\ ? '(Was it) lost?'

b. $^{2}$Nadu$^{1}$la\. '(It was) lost.'

2a. $^{2}$Husto$^{1}$i$^{4}$na\ ? 'Is that right?'
Compl Subj

b. $^{2}$Husto ina\.$^{2}$ 'That is right.'

3a. $^{2}$Ga-eskwela $^{1}$i$^{4}$kaw? 'Do you go to school?'
V=eskwela Subj

b. $^{2}$Ga-eskwela i$^{1}$kaw. 'You go to school.'

### 2.1.2 Jussive sentences and questions contrasted

1a. $^{2}$Ti$^{1}$law $^{4}$ka? 'Would you like to taste (it)?'
V Subj

b. $^{3}$Tilaw ka.$^{3\rightarrow}$ 'Taste it.'

2a. $^{2}$Dal-on mo $^{1}$i$^{4}$na\ ? 'Will that be taken along by you?'
V=dala C-1 Subj

b. $^{2}$Dal-on mo ina\.$^{2\rightarrow}$ 'That be taken along by you.'

2.2 Any variations on the 2--1-4 pattern just described carry attitudinal implications. The first modification is a sustained Pitch 1 before the final syllable. This variation may mean 'asking with surprise.'

1. $^{1}$Nabayran $^{4}$na? 'Was (it) already paid?' (I didn't know it!)
   V=bayad Mod

2. $^{2}$Nag$^{1}$kaladunot ang tul$^{4}$-an? 'The bones were all crushed?'
   V=dunot Subj

Or, it may mean 'asking with intent to persuade':

3. $^{1}$Kanami $^{4}$no? '(It is) very good, isn't it?'

4. $^{3}$Neng, $^{1}$tilaw ka si$^{4}$ni? 'Neng, wouldn't you like to try this?'
   Voc V Subj C-2

2.2.1 The wheedling question has the 1-4 inflection on the last syllable instead.

3.0 Interrogative Expressions as Signals.--A review of the examples presented so far shows that the questions (except "Nano?") are answerable by "yes" or "no." Seven types of specific information can be asked for by the use of appropriate interrogative expressions. These forms are usually found initially, but they may appear elsewhere.

3.1 Ano 'what.' This form has a variant, nano. Ano, however, is a more general word in that it can be verbalized by inflection, i.e., by affixation. For other usages, the two are interchangeable.

3.1.1 Ano, as a nominal, has reference to nonpersonal nouns. It may occur with or without the nominalizing articles. Some of its uses are:

3.1.1.1 A subject

Ano ihampangon mo?
    V=hampang C-1

'What will be played by you?'

3.1.1.2 As complement of a Type 1 sentence

Nano ang balay nio to sa America?
Subj

'What is your house (like) there in America?'

3.1.1.3 As object of a relator

Para sa ano ina\?
Rel Subj

'For what is that?'

3.1.1.4 As independent topic

Ang ano? 'The what?'

3.1.1.5 As an absolute expression

Ano, si Edak gadul-ong da\ "star apple"?
Subj V Mod C-2

'What, is Edak taking star apples there?'

3.1.1.6 As second complement of a Type 2 sentence

Naghatag ka sang ano sa iya?
V Subj C-2 C-3

'You gave what to him?'

3.1.2 When adjectival in function, ano has two optional positions. (1) It may occur immediately before a nominal (which is usually unmarked):

Ano clase ina\ iya?
Compl Subj

'What kind is that (particular) one?'

Or, (2) ano may occur in the modification structure: ano + nga + N.

Ano nga color ang gusto mo?
Compl Subj

'What color is your choice?'

3.1.3 When adverbial in function, the form occurs in the construct: ano + ka + Descriptive.

Nano ka alam ang kabata-an diri?
Compl Subj

'How bright are the children here?'

3.1.4 When verbalized, ano becomes a substitute verb in a question asking for specific information about action, as in:

Nag-ano sia dira kag-ina?
V Subj Mod Mod

'What did he do there a while ago?'

3.2 Sin-o 'who' refers to personal nouns. It may occur with or without an article. Its functions closely parallel those of ano. Some examples are:

3.2.1 As subject

1. (Si) sin-o ikaw?

'Who are you?'

2. Ang imo "classmate," sin-o?

'Who is your classmate?'

3.2.2 As a verb complement

Sa kay sin-o ginhatag ang balay?
C-3 V Subj

'To whom was the house given?'

3.2.3 As adjectival

1. Kay sin-o balay ina?
Compl Subj

'Whose house is that?'

2. Sin-o nga tawo ina?
Compl Subj

'Which man is that?' (Who is that?)

3.3 The use of nga-a 'why' is exemplified below:

1. Nga-a subong sini? 'Why (is it) like this?'
Compl

2. Nga-a wala\ ninyo pagdal-a di ang bata\ ?
Neg C-1 V Mod Subj

'Why was the child not brought here by you?'

3.3.1 The form nga-a nga carries the meaning that the question is needlessly asked because the point raised need not have arisen.

1. Nga-a nga subong?
Sub Rel

'Why (is it) that (it is) like (this)?'

2. Nga-a nga gusto ka pa gid isip sang madamu\ nga kwarta?
Mdl Subj Mod V C-2

'Why (is it) that you still would like to count plenty of money?'

3.4 Di-in 'where' introduces specific questions about "place."

1. Di-in kamo to gapuyo\ ?
Subj Mod V

'Where do you live there?'

2. Di-in ka naghalin, Sabel?
Subj V Voc

'Where did you come from, Sabel?'

3. Di-in ka?
Compl Subj

'Where are you?'

3.5 San-o 'when' asks about "time" of event.

1. San-o, Day, "program" nio?
Voc Subj

'When is your program, Dear?'

2. San-o ka malakat, Nang?
Subj V Voc

'When are you going, Nang?'

3.6 Asking about countable things is signalled by pila 'how many.'

1. Pila ang "duckling"?
   Compl Subj

   'How many are the ducklings?' (How many ducklings are there?)

2. Pila ka Sabado wala kamo katienda?
   Mod Neg Subj V

   'How many Saturdays were you not able to sell?'

3.7 Quantities are asked about by questions introduced by isa ka ano 'how much/many' (literally, 'one of what').

1. Isa ka ano nga bugas hulamon mo?
   Subj V C-1

   'How much rice will be borrowed by you?'

2. Isa ka ano sang mga estudiante naglakat?
   Subj V

   'How many of the students went?'

4.0 The Syntax of the Specific Question.--It was already observed in Section 2.0 that the word order for a statement can be the word order for a yes-no question. The specific question differs from these two other sentence types in that the interrogative expression is usually in initial position. The freedom of arrangement of the other constituents in the sentence is restricted only (1) at phrase level (arrangement of phrase modification structures being tighter) or (2) by the occurrence of clipped pronominal forms.[1]

5.0 Modifications in Intonation of the Specific Question.--Although the specific question may have the neutral intonation, it also admits of more variation in intonation than the yes-no question does. It may have the intonation usually associated with statements,

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[1]It is to be recalled that a clipped pronominal form tends to occur immediately after the head of its construct.

or the one with jussive sentences. In all these latter cases the interrogative expression becomes the distinctive signal of the question; the intonation then implies attitudes about the question.

5.1 Intonation: (3) -2--1. This "statement" pattern is used with a specific question when it interrupts the discourse of somebody giving an extended account, to ask for pointed information.

$^{3}$Di-in $^{2}$kamo nag"blowout" da$^{1}$yon?
Subj V Mod

'Where then did you have the big party?'

5.2 Intonation: (3)-2--3; or, 3--3. These intonation patterns are associated with jussive sentences. With questions they add urgency to the request for information, amounting to a demand for an answer.

1. $^{3}$Ano to kono? →
Compl Subj Hol

'What was that, according to them?'

2. $^{2}$Nga-a wala ninyo pagdal-a $^{3}$di?
Neg C-1 V Mod

'Why was (it) not taken here by you?'

5.3 Less frequently used patterns are 1--2 which seems to go with playful questioning or rhetorical questions, and the 3-2 contour over the last two syllables of an utterance which, as it was already shown with statements, implies obviousness of the utterance--in the case of questions, possibly because the utterance is a repetition of an original one that was not properly heard.

6.0 Question-reiterating Particles.--There are four particles, usually found in final position, which reinforce the previously discussed features of questions. These are man, haw, ha, and no. Each

carries a distinctive attitude toward the question it reinforces.

6.1 Man[1] is the neutral question-reiterative.

1. Di-in da ang sapatos ko man?
   QCompl Mod Subj Q

   'Where are my shoes (which were placed) there?'

2. Nga-a man ginpatoslok ninyo dayon?
   QMod Q V C-1 Mod

   'Why was (he) caused by you to be (given a) shot right away?'

6.2 Haw gives a more demanding tone to the question.

Nano sayoron ina haw?
QMod V Subj Q

'How is that to be understood, may I ask?'

6.3 No is a "tag" question asking for confirmation of the preceding statement.

Kanami kay Inday magsugilanon, no?
Compl-S Subj Compl(cont'd) Q

'Inday is very good in telling stories, isn't she?'

6.4 Ha as a tag question is a sign of persuasion.

Makadto ka diri buwas, ha?
V Subj Mod Mod Q

'You will come here tomorrow, won't you?'

7.0 The Question with Alternatives.--This type of question is distinguished by (1) a distinctive final intonation pattern, which accompanies (2) an ellipsis that carries the alternative.

7.1 The final intonation pattern is a sustained pitch usually

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[1]An interesting question concerning this particle is whether it is a specialized use of the qualifier man 'also' or whether it is an entirely different morpheme, {man$_2$}.

a step lower than the last pitch over the main question. (The highest pitch is reduced from 4 to 3.)

7.2 The elliptical construction is difficult to comprehend under one structural description, and is better defined by exemplification. It may or may not be preceded by the connector showing alternation.

1. $^{3}$Naga$^{2}$paniendahan ka$^{3}$mo, $^{2}$wa-ay$^{2}$?→
   V Subj Neg

   'Do you go to market, or not?'

2. $^{3}$Ho-o eh,$^{3}$ $^{2}$nga-a indi`?→
   "yes" Hol QAdv Neg

   'Yes, of course; why not?'

3. $^{1}$Dulum $^{3}$to, $^{2}$indi` $^{2}$?→
   Compl Mod Compl

   'Was (it) dark there, or not?'

4. $^{2}$Pamangkut $^{3}$na`, $^{1}$ukon gasugid.→
   Compl Subj Co V

   'Is that asking or telling?'

8.0 The Verb in the Question.--There are no inflections distinctively for verbs in questions. However, both indicative and jussive verb forms are found in questions. It seems that the verb of the question is inflected according to whether the question is about a report (in which case the verb is indicative) or about a request or command (in which case the verb is jussive).

1a. Jussive sentence: Bakli si Mama bulong.
    V=bakal Subj C-2

    'Mother be bought some medicine.'

    (Buy some medicine for Mother.)

b. Question: Wala` mo pagbakli si Mama bulong?
   Neg C-1 V Subj C-2

   (Didn't you buy some medicine for Mother?)

2a. Statement: Wala' (Neg) sia (Subj) nagbakal (V) sang bulong. (C-2)

'He did not buy any medicine.'

b. Question: Wala' (Neg) sia (Subj) nagbakal (V) sang bulong? (C-2)

'Did he not buy some medicine?'

9.0 The "Indirect" Question.--This sentence shows a type of embedding which has not been discussed among the complex sentences (in Chapter III). The indirect or reported question is exemplified by the following:

1. Namangkut (V) sia (Subj) kon (Sub) nga-a (Sub) kadugay (Compl) sa aton. (Subj)

'He asked if why we were very late.'

(He asked why we were very late.)

2. Gusto (Mdl) niya (C-1) mahibal-an (V) kon (Sub) di-in (QCompl) ang balay. (Subj)

'(It is) desired to be known by him if where the house is.'

(He wants to know where the house is.)

3. Magsugid (V) ka (Subj) kon (Sub) san-o (QMod) malakat (V) ikaw. (Subj)

'You tell if when you will go.'

(Do tell when you are going.)

9.1 To be noted in this construction is the use of a connector, kon, between the main clause (which introduces the question) and the embedded question. The intonation for this type of sentence is the one for the statement.

# CHAPTER VI

# CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

## A

## Conclusions

1.0 The Nature of the Language.--The purpose of this chapter is to attempt to trace out the larger patterns that can be discerned from all the detailed analysis of the data that have been used in this investigation. What can be said about the role of intonation in the language? of morphology? of syntax? Which of the patterns are fixed? What are the options--among forms? among positions? Of what significance are they?

1.1 The place of intonation. The basic sentence patterns have distinctive intonation patterns which mark the statement from command, from request, from question. These intonation patterns can be the only distinguishing signals. Modifications of these, accompanied by other features that identify types, usually imply a change of attitude toward the utterance. Occasionally, they also signify a change in sentence structuring.

1.2 The place of morphology. Much use is made of affixation and reduplication in building up and distinguishing verbs, nouns, and descriptives. The language uses prefixation, infixation, and suffixation for inflection and derivation. Reduplication may affect either a part of a base word or the whole of it. These synthesizing forms are readi-

ly attached to base or root words so that these themselves easily change their grammatical identity.

The declension of deictics show their relationship to their semantic referents and also to their syntactic functions.

1.3 The place of word order. Phrasal constructs have relatively fixed word order as compared to clause or sentence structures. The language allows much freedom in the arrangement of constituents in a clause or sentence. The only exception is the Subtype 2 sentences of the verbless sentence type. However, if any of the constituents is a construct (whether plrasal or clausal), arrangement tends to be fixed in cases where two constituents have the same or equivalent forms. Clipped pronominal forms tend to occupy fixed positions in relation to the words to which they are closely related. These tendencies in structuring can be discerned from the models given below in Section 2.0.

Quite as important is the finding that the arrangement of verb and subject has significant relationship to the type of discourse that is employed.

1.4 Dichotomy in Hiligaynon. The language also exhibits an intricate system of dichotomies: (1) two general types of sentence structures; (2) two types of "action"; (3) two systems of conjugation according to types of "action"; (4) two types of focus; (5) two tenses; (6) two types of verbs according to complements related to them; (7) two aspects.

1.5 Grammar and emphasis. Hiligaynon seems to have formal signs for showing gradation in emphasis on an entity or action. The degree of importance accorded an entity can be shown by the hierarchy

of positions it may occupy, outlined below in descending order of importance: 1. Subject of a Type 1 sentence;

2. Subject of a Type 2 sentence, initial position;

3. Subject of a Type 2 sentence, position after the verb;

4. Complement of the verb;

5. "Negated" position: not mentioned at all; the opposite "pole" of Order 1 above.

These five positions may be extended to nine in the case of the expression of agency.

2.0 Syntactic Structures in Hiligaynon.--Two types of syntactic structures are outlined here. The first are at the phrase level, where word order tends to be fixed. These are mostly modification structures of nouns, and of modifier heads. The second group exhibits models of sentence types, where freer word order is found. The options in position of constituents are indicated.

2.1 The noun modification structure

2.1.1 Phrase structures

(a) ± Article[1] + Descriptive/Indefinite/Ordinal + nga + Noun

(b) ± Article + Cardinal Numeral + ka + Noun

(c) ± Article + Noun + Directive

(d) ± Article + Genitive Pronoun + Noun

(e) ± Article + Noun + Agentive Pronoun/Objective Demonstrative

(f) ± Article + Noun + Sa/Sang Construct

(g) ± Article + Noun + Relator Construct

(h) + indi ± ang + Noun/Nominative Pronoun

[1]The article is optional when the noun is either second verb complement or subject complement (of a verbless sentence).

2.1.2 Clausal structures

(a) ± Article + Noun + nga + Adjectival[1]

(b) ± Article + Noun + nga + Predicate

2.2 Structures with intensifiers

(a) With iya: + Head + iya

(b) With gid: + Head + gid

(c) With demonstrative: + Nominative Demonstrative + Head

(d) With Genitive form: + Nominative Form + corresp. Genitive

2.3 Structures with pronominal complements or modifiers

(a) + Genitive form + Head

(b) + Head + Agentive Form

2.4 Modification structures of modifiers

(a) + Relator Construct + ka + Descriptive Head

(b) + Descriptive Head + Intensifier/ka-ayo

(c) + indi\ ± Qualifier(s) + ma-Descriptive Head

(d) + todo/masiado ± Qualifier(s) + ka + Descriptive Head

(e) + mas + Descriptive Head

(f) + Descriptive Head/Verb Head + nga + "da-an"[2]

2.5 Models of sentence types, showing nuclear constituents

2.5.1 Verbless sentences (Type 1)

2.5.1.1 Subtype 1

(a) + Subj_/⁻Compl-S

(b) + Compl-S + Subj + Compl-S (cont'd)

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[1] "Adjectival" stands for (1) a single modifying word or (2) any appropriate modifying construct suggested in Section 2.4 above.

[2] "Da-an" stands for certain other adverbial forms in this position.

2.5.1.2 Subtype 2 (a & b)

(a) + Compl-S + Subj

(b) + Compl-S + Subj + Compl-S*

2.5.1.3 Negative forms of verbless sentences. These are really negations of Subtype 1; Subtype 2 does not have negative forms.

(a) Negating the subject

+ indi\ + Subj + "ang"[1] complement

(b) Negating the complement

(1) + indi\ + Subj + Compl-S

(2) + Subj + indi\ + Compl-S

(3) + Subj + wala\ + Directive

2.5.2 Sentences with verbs (Type 2)[2]

2.5.2.1 Agent focus: intransitive verb

(a) + V_/ + NN

(b) + V + NomP

2.5.2.2 Agent focus: transitive verb, one complement

(a) + V + NomP + C-2

(b) + NN_/ + V + C-2

(c) + V + C-2 + NN

2.5.2.3 Agent focus: transitive verb, two complements

(a) + NN_/ + V + C-2_/ + C-3

(b) + V + NomP + C-2_/ + C-3

(c) + V + C-2_/ + C-3 + NN

2.5.2.4 Goal focus: one complement

(a) + NN_/ + V + C-1

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*Asterisks mark discontinuous subject complements.

[1]"Ang" marks a complement nominalized by ang.

[2]These models give the positions only of the nuclear constituents. It is to be recalled that every "+" is a potential position for a verb or sentence modifier.

(b) + V + C-1 + NomP

2.5.2.5 Goal focus: two complements, non-pronominal forms[1]

(a) + NN + V + C-1_/ + C-3

(b) + NN + C-3 + C-1 + V

(c) + V + C-3_/ + C-1 + NN

(d) + V + NN + C-3 + C-1

(e) + V + C-1 + NN + C-3

(f) + C-3 + V + C-1 + NN

(g) + C-3 + C-1 + V + NN

(h) + NN + V + C-1 + C-4

2.5.2.6 Beneficiary focus: two complements

(a) + NN/NomP_/ + V + C-1 + C-2

(b) + V + C-1 + NomP/NN + C-2

(c) + V + C-1 + NomP/NN

2.5.2.7 Instrument focus: one complement

(a) + NN/NomP + V + C-2

(b) + V + NN/NomP + C-2

2.5.2.8 The negative sentence with a verb

2.5.2.8.1 Add indi\ to "non-event" tense forms. Add wala\/wa-ay to "event" tense forms.

2.5.2.8.2 The position of the negator is directly before the verb or sentence-initially (before the subject and the verb).

B

Some Implications of the Study for Teaching

1.0 This study has been solely of Hiligaynon structure, and no effort has been expended on any formal comparison between this language

[1] With C-1=pronoun, omit the option in (a); omit (d).

and English, for example. However, from her experience as a teacher of English, and of teachers-in-training, the writer presents certain observed and reported difficulties of Hiligaynon students with English, directly stemming from the influence of their first set of language habits.

2.0 Difficulties with Intonation.--It seems that the basic difficulty of Hiligaynon students with English is with its intonation. This inability to render the speech melody of English correctly, so it has been averred by native speakers of English who visit the Philippines, is the one great cause of the unintelligibility of the so-called "Filipino English." Some of the specific troubles can be pinpointed.

2.1 Difficulties with the intonation of statements. In Hiligaynon, the pitch may be raised towards the end of a statement if some word there is to be emphasized, instead of dropping down to Pitch 1 from an onset of Pitch 2. Such an intonation pattern may then approximate the normal English intonation for statements (2--3-1). This coincidence has led even some teachers to believe that Hiligaynon and English intonations for statements are the same, and that they expect facilitation in the learning of English statement patterns of intonation. This error in observation has prevented teachers from giving due attention to this feature in their teaching; so one is quite likely to hear "English" statements with Hiligaynon intonation in the speech of the average Hiligaynon student.

2.2 Difficulties with the intonation of questions. When a typical Hiligaynon student asks a question, his intonation is likely to have the final 1--4 characteristic of Hiligaynon questions of the neu-

tral type, instead of (1) the sustained Pitch 3 beginning with the last stressed (or emphasized) syllable, or (2) the 2--3-1 intonation for the specific question. Not only this. He also is likely to express his attitude toward his question in the decidedly Hiligaynon way of modifying the question intonation.

2.3 Difficulties with the intonation of jussive sentences. The improper habits of speech just described have parallels in the spoken commands and requests of the typical Hiligaynon student. Of course, the impression created in the native speaker of English upon his hearing such an "English" jussive sentence (with sustained pitch) is that the speaker is not through speaking.

The persistence of the difficulty with intonation up to college level tends to show that the importance of this speech signal has not been very well appreciated and stressed at the grade level where emphasis on its mastery would have been most rewarding.

3.0 The Influence of Hiligaynon Word Order.

3.1 The influence of the statement patterns. The commonness of the use of the absolute construct as "topic" in Hiligaynon speech influences the typical Hiligaynon student's English adversely. The substandard English sentence of the type, "Jose, he is my friend." is the undesirable result of that unconscious tendency.[1] To the writer's knowledge no other outstanding difficulty with statement word order has been reported from the field. It would seem that ease instead of diffi-

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[1] This is going to be given detailed discussion in the report of Adorada Z. Dichupa, on the investigations she has conducted for her Master's thesis, done at Central Philippine University, Iloilo City, Philippines.

culty should and can be expected when a student studies a language with fixed word order after having learned one with a relatively more free word order. (The reverse order of study would be expected to have the opposite results.)

3.2 Except for difficulty with intonation, the learning of the jussive-sentence pattern should be as easy as the learning of statement word order as a whole.

3.3 The fixed ordering of items in modification structures in Hiligaynon should, and apparently does, prepare the student for the same tendency in English. If the Hiligaynon student of English has difficulty with English phrase structures, it is not because of word order primarily.

3.4 The influence of the question patterns. Hiligaynon students are apt to be careless about word order in their questions in English because they depend heavily on intonation to carry the signal for this type of sentence. Thus, the difference in meaning between a yes-no question with inverted word order and one with normal word order is not very well understood by many. It is probable that many teachers are not sensitive to this difference either.

3.5 The influence of Hiligaynon elliptical constructions. The tendency of Hiligaynon speakers to make elliptical second clauses in sentences of more than one clause may be predicted as a probable source of quite some difficulty. The influence of this feature of the language has not been given extensive attention yet, although its adverse effects come to the attention now and then. Most student work studied so far tends to be simple in construction; hence, the problem has not been

given occasion to display itself.

4.0 The Influence of Other Grammatical Features.

4.1 The concept of number in Hiligaynon. The greatest difficulty of the Hiligaynon student when he studies this concept in English lies in the fact that he has to practically re-order his outlook on the matter.

4.1.1 Commonly observed is his difficulty with the verb to be. Not only is he asked obligatorily to put such a form in, where, to him, juxtaposition of the items being related is sufficient signalling for what he wants to convey, but he is also forced to select a form that serves no more use than to echo the number of the subject.

4.1.2 This problem is partly repeated in the learning of sentences with other verbs. The opinion held by some so far is that the student's trouble with number here is due to the fact that number is not indicated in the verb in Hiligaynon. A study of the morphology of the Hiligaynon verb will show that plurality is a feature of the Hiligaynon verb, just as it is of the Hiligaynon noun in particular, and of all Hiligaynon nominals in general. But, in Hiligaynon, plurality is not necessarily an obligatory formal concept, which concord in English is. In Hiligaynon, one chooses a plural verb when one wants to talk about a truly plural action, whether it is done by one person repeatedly or by several persons, in definite ways provided for by certain morphemes in the language. If such is not the intention, a Hiligaynon sentence may have a plural subject, but the verb will not bear inflection for number. It is suggested that explaining the working of the language in this way is something different from saying that, unlike English, the Hiligaynon verb is not inflected for number to agree with

the subject. The implications for teaching may not be the same.

There are other small patterns involving number which are sources of student difficulty.

4.2 The concept of tense. Reports from the field and the writer's own investigations on the learning of the concept of tense in English confirm the belief that this is one of the most difficult concepts for a Hiligaynon student, if not the most difficult. It seems that the problem derives equally from the nature of each of the languages in contact. The number of tense forms in English, alone, is difficulty enough to one who is used to a two-tense system. The formation of each tense form and the richness of the vocabulary in verbs are added difficulties. More profound in effect, perhaps, is the significance attached to each of the forms, whether in Hiligaynon or in English, for here are two widely divergent ways of looking at and interpreting phenomenon.

4.3 The use of anaphora. Reports from the field tend to show that the discrimination in gender in the third person of the personal pronouns in English creates difficulty for the Hiligaynon student. His own language has only one form for she/he in English. The same is true with the distinction between some and the others; one and the other. The concept of number inherent in the demonstratives is also another source of difficulty for him. His difficulty here is compounded by indifference to vowel distinction between this and these.

4.4 The use of the articles. The difference in significance of the English articles from the Hiligaynon articles has been reported by teachers in Hiligaynon areas to be another source of great diffi-

culty. The regular use of the articles in Hiligaynon to signal syntactic functions does not prepare the Hiligaynon student of English for the highly semantic value of the English articles, and their usefulness in making references clear in discourse.

4.4.1 Another difficulty in the use of the articles is the fact that the Hiligaynon articles sometimes equate with the use of the English articles, sometimes with the absence of any article, and at other times with the use of English prepositions. The confusion of the student who mentally translates his Hiligaynon into English is evident in the difficulties Hiligaynon students are reported to have with the use of the English prepositions.[1]

4.5 The use of connectors. Many teachers have reported the persistent use of expressions like <u>if when</u>, <u>if how</u>, <u>if what</u>, etc., in student speech and writing. It is obvious from the examples of Hiligaynon indirect questions that this is a Hiligaynon language habit carried over into English.

4.6 The freedom with which Hiligaynon nominalizes any expression may give the Hiligaynon student of English difficulty with such expressions as "the brave," "the fair," etc. For him, a nominaliz ed descriptive usually refers to a <u>single</u> individual; in English, a comparable form is <u>collective</u> in meaning.

C

Recommendations for Further Research

1.0 To test the productivity and inclusiveness of the models

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[1] See previous footnote.

given in the conclusions, it is recommended that a study be conducted, attempting to abstract syntactic patterns from an ample sampling of Hiligaynon utterances.

2.0 The study has revealed many homophonous structure indicators. Some suggestions have been given about the ways by which native speakers distinguish them. A more thorough investigation seems necessary.

3.0 It has been observed, in the course of the investigation, that certain verbs are selective in taking on inflection. For example: (1) hatag 'give' takes /-i/ for 'immediate jussive' but not /-un/ for 'deferred jussive,' for which meaning it selects /i-/; (2) agi 'pass' selects the same items as hatag does when it functions as a T-2 verb, but it takes /-un/ instead of /i-/ when it functions as a T-1 verb; (3) bayad 'pay' has the same form for both beneficiary and goal focus.

What further classification of verbs do such types of "behavior" imply?

4.0 Sometimes, a verb inflection is affixed to a modifying word instead of the "action" word, as in:

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| Unahan | mo | kadto | ang Manila. |
| "Mod" | C-1 | V | Subj |
| first | you | go | |

which is equivalent to:

Una mo kadto-an ang Manila.

'The city of Manila be first gone to by you.'

(Go to Manila first.)

How often is this freedom taken? What more does it tell about the nature of the language?

5.0 Stress has not been given the systematic treatment that is due it. Here it has been mentioned as a feature of a word, but not of the sentence. What little has been said about sentence stress was in connection with the raising of the pitch in order to show emphasis. Is there any relation between word stress and sentence stress?

6.0 The lists of distinctive affixation in deriving nouns, verbs, and descriptives are not complete. How many more will an intensive study of this feature of Hiligaynon grammar add to them? Will another researcher come up with the same groupings given here?

7.0 Among the items that are at the core of Hiligaynon grammar are some borrowed forms like mas which is used as a qualifier, gusto which is used as a modal, and pareho which is used as a relator. These being borrowed from Spanish, this question naturally arises: How deeply has Spanish (or any other language in contact with Hiligaynon) affected this speech system?

8.0 It was suggested that the placement of the subject before the verb is a favorite pattern of objective reports, while in narrative writing the verb is introduced first. What preferences will a survey similar to the one conducted for this study show? What other factors than type of discourse correlate with sentence arrangement?

9.0 Mention was made of grammatical devices to denote the semantic importance of a grammatical feature (exemplified by the positions and forms of the "agent of action"). What is the relation between these grammatical options and style? or between these and coherence in discourse?

10.0 A study of the grouping of nouns according to how they show evidence of gender has shown instead that many words cluster around culture patterns which the writer knows are vital to Filipino life. The items which show what semantic components are "vitally functional" in a culture pattern are finely distinguished by the "naming." Conversely, items that are at the periphery of these culture patterns are not finely distinguished in the naming but get more "general" or "type" designations. How does Hiligaynon reflect the concerns and the values of the culture which it expresses?

11.0 In leafing through written texts, especially those which do not purport to be "records" of conversations, the writer was struck by the frequent occurrences of words with many layers of affixes. But conversation tends to favor the simpler words. Is there some " pattern" of synthesizing that distinguishes speech from writing, casual expression from literary effort?

12.0 Another curious fact that has been observed by the writer is the use of intonation patterns in the reading of texts, which are not like characteristic intonations of comparable sentences in conversation. Is there, really, an <u>oral reading</u> style different from a <u>speaking</u> style?

These questions, from structure to style to culture, are only suggestive of the numerous others that await investigation. They simply indicate the depths of the ignorance of the native Hiligaynon speaker about how much of his speech community's history has been "written" into the language, and how his language may determine much of what his way of life and thought is to be.

## APPENDIX A

## HILIGAYNON PHONEMES AND THEIR EQUIVALENTS

The table of equivalents given here shows how the written examples represent the significant sounds in Hiligaynon, and what the nearest equivalent in English is. This is not proposed as the complete inventory. For example, stress is not mentioned here.

Hiligaynon has seventeen consonantal phonemes and three simple vowel phonemes. The status of the three diphthongs mentioned below is not certain.

All stops are fortis, unaspirated. /r/ is trilled. /t/ and /d/ are dental stops.

⌈i⌋ and ⌈u⌋ are tense; ⌈e⌋ and ⌈o⌋ are lax. Although the tense allophones tend to occur in accented syllables, the allophones of a phoneme must be considered free variants; this is evidenced in writing by a lack of consistency in the spelling of words, in a language which has relatively good correspondence between writing and speech.

The diphthongs are of the rising type.

| Phoneme | Written symbol | English equival. | Examples | Gloss |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| /p/ | p | spill | papel<br>hikap | 'paper'<br>'touch' |
| /b/ | b | boy | bana<br>sulab | 'husband'<br>'knife blade' |
| /m/ | m | man | mama | 'mommy' |
| /w/ | w | water | wala<br>talaw | 'left'<br>'cowardice' |
| /t/ | t | stay | potot | 'short' (person)' |
| /d/ | d | day | ladlad | 'spread' |
| /n/ | n | night | nonoy | 'dear (boy)' |
| /s/ | s | so | santos | 'effigy of a saint' |

APPENDIX A--Continued.

| Phoneme | Written symbol | English equival. | Examples | Gloss |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| /ts/ | ts/ch | cats | tsa<br>China | 'tea'<br>'China' |
| /l/ | l | kill | lala<br>kudal | 'weave'<br>'fence' |
| /r/ | r | ____ | lugar<br>sugiran | 'place'<br>'was told' |
| /k/ | k | skill | kulang<br>amimilok | 'lacking'<br>'eyelashes' |
| /g/ | g | good | gugma<br>bilog | 'love'<br>'whole' |
| /h/ | h | hat | hinigugma | 'beloved' |
| /n/ | ng | sing | ngalan<br>singsing | 'name'<br>'ring' |
| /ʔ/ | - /ˋ | ____ | da-ug<br>bataˋ | 'win'<br>'child' |
| /y/ | y | boy | yamo<br>baboy | 'complaint'<br>'pig' |
| /i/ | i / e | big | diri<br>negosyo | 'here'<br>'business' |
| /a/ | a | box | pala | 'spade' |
| /u/ | o / u | cooperate<br>put | tudloˋ | 'finger' |
| ie | ie / ye | yes | Biernes | 'Friday' |
| iu | iu / io | ...,do you? | diotay | 'small' |
| ia | ia | fiasco | sia | 'he/she' |

APPENDIX B

THE FORM OF DERIVATIVE NOUNS

In the following schematization of the structure of derived nouns, two methods are used. In the first, the nature of the stem is described. A base belonging to any class will be identified simply as "root" or "stem." If a specific form is needed, it is so described. In the second, the stem is represented by an expression in parenthesis, which is usually given as follows: (Sa...Sn), where S="syllable"; Sa=first syllable; Sn=last syllable; Sm=penultimate syllable, etc. Where the addition of an accented affix has affected the accentuation of the stem, the new accent pattern is indicated, and this observation takes effect: the originally accented vowel is lengthened; the new accented syllable is raised in pitch and "loudness." If the accent of the base is not moved, the second description is not given.

1. "thing"/"action" word + -an ⌈(Sa...Śn) + -an⌋

   eskwela '(go to) school'; eskwelahan 'schoolhouse'

   asin 'salt'; asinan 'salt farm/factory'

2. "action" word + -Vl- + -an ⌈-Vl-(Sa...Śn) + -an⌋

   sakay 'ride'; salakyan 'usual vehicle'

   bulong 'medicate'; bululngan 'hospital; clinic'

3. "action" word + -Vl- + -on ⌈-Vl-(Sa...Śn) + -on⌋

   kanta 'sing'; kalantahon 'favorite/popular/customary song'

   hampang 'play'; halampangon 'favorite game'

4. passive verb + -an

   hampangan 'be played with'; hampanganan 'toy'

   hukman 'be judged'; hulukmanan 'courtroom'

5. descriptive + -on ⌈(Sa...Śn) + -on⌋

   manggadan 'rich'; manggaranon 'a wealthy person'

   sugidan 'talkative'; sugilanon 'story; conversation'

6. ka- + "thing" word + -an ⌈ka- + (Sa...Śn) + -an⌋

bata' 'child'; kabata-an 'children'

saging 'banana'; kasagingan 'banana clumps/plantation'

(N.B. This affixation may be considered inflectional instead of derivational.)

7. ka- descriptive + -in-$_2$[1]

katuhay 'quite different'; kinatuhay 'uniqueness'

kabudlay 'very difficult'; kinabudlay 'difficulty'

8. characteristic + -in-$_2$

tonto 'untractable (person)'; tinonto 'foolishness'

tamad 'lazy'; tinamad 'laziness'

9. ka- + "quality" word + -on ⌈ka- + (Sa...Śn) + -on⌋

limpio 'clean'; kalimpiohon 'cleanliness'

tadlong 'straight'; katadlongon 'straightness'

10. ka- + (ha-)[2] + root

gugma 'love'; kahagugma 'lover/sweetheart'

ingod 'neighboring'; ka-ingod 'neighbor'

11. ka- + si- (N⟨- C-) + root

banwa 'town'; kasimanwa 'townmate'

12. maNV-[3] + root

sulat 'write'; manunulat 'writer'

isda' 'fish'; mangingisda' 'fisherman'

13. pa- + root

---

[1]{-in-$_2$} is the pluralizing infix.

[2](ha-) is optional.

[3]NV= homorganic nasal of the initial consonant of the stem + reduplicate of the initial vowel.

libut '(go) around'; palibut 'vicinity'

aman 'extra measure'; pa-aman 'extra measure as bargain'

14. mag- + kinship term

paka-isa 'first cousin'; magpaka-isa 'first cousin, each of the other'

15. pa- + (N⟨- C-) + root + -on

edad 'age'; pangidaron 'state of one's age'

ayo\ 'plea(d), beg'; pangayo-on 'request for gift or favor'

16. pani- + (N⟨- C-) + "thing" word

baho\ 'odor'; panimaho\ 'distinctive smell'

balay 'house'; panimalay 'family'

17. paŋ-$_1$ + "action" word

hambal 'speak'; panghambal 'manner of speaking'

18. paŋ-$_2$ + "thing" word

hapin 'wrapper'; panghapin 'something purposely for wrapping'

aman 'extra measure'; pangaman 'precaution'

19. i- + position

dalum 'deep' idalum 'the place below'

babaw 'top;above'; ibabaw 'a place above'

20. place + -on /⁻(Sa...Śn) + -non_7

bukid 'mountain'; bukidnon 'mountain folk'

Ilog (a town); Ilognon 'native(s) of the town of Ilog'

21. pag- + stem

ka-on 'eat'; pagka-on 'eating; food'

panutod 'burn things'; pagpanutod 'the burning of things'

22. tig- + (N⟨- C-) + root

ulan 'rain'; tingulan 'rainy season'

23. tig- + -Vl- + root

tanum 'plant'; tigtalanum 'planting season'

APPENDIX C

A COMPREHENSIVE TABLE OF HILIGAYNON DEICTICS

| Deictic classes and their cases | I. Speaker or near him | II. Person spoken to, or away from I | III. Any other(s) remote from I |
|---|---|---|---|
| **A. Personal Pronouns** | | | |
| Singular | | | |
| nominative . . . | ako∼ko 'I' | ikaw∼ka 'you' | sia 'he/she' |
| genitive . . . | akon | imo | iya |
| agentive . . . | nakon∼ko[1] | nimo∼mo | niya∼ya∼nia |
| Plural, inclusive[2] | | | |
| nominative . . . | kita∼ta 'we' | kamo 'you' | |
| genitive . . . | aton | inyo | |
| agentive . . . | naton∼ta | ninyo∼nio | |
| Plural, exclusive[2] | | | |
| nominative . . . | kami 'we' | | sila 'they' |
| genitive . . . | amon | | ila |
| agentive . . . | namon | | nila |
| **B. Demonstrative Pronouns** | | | |
| nominative . . . | ini∼ni | ina`∼na` | yadto∼ato∼to |
| objective . . . | sini∼ni | sina`∼na` | sadto∼sato∼to |
| | 'this' | 'that' | 'that yonder' |
| **C. Complementives** . | ari | ara` | ato |
| | '(is) in here' | '(is) in there' | '(is) in there yonder' |
| **D. Directives** . . | diri∼di | dira`∼da` | didto∼to |
| | 'here' | 'there' | 'yonder' |

[1]The terms "exclusive" and "inclusive" pertain only to the first person. The false attribution to other persons is the result of trying to make a compact table.

[2]Wherever, in this table, alternants are given, the first form is the full form; the others are clipped forms.

## APPENDIX D

## PRONOMINAL INTENSIVES

I. Type 1: The genitive case form as an appositive to its corresponding nominative case form:

| | |
|---|---|
| ako akon 'I myself' | ikaw imo 'you yourself' |
| kita aton 'we ourselves' | kamo inyo 'you yourselves' |
| kami amon 'we ourselves' | sia iya 'he himself/ |
| sila ila 'they themselves' | she herself' |

II. Type 2: A demonstrative with a personal pronoun:

ina sia 'that he' (that person)

ina sila 'those they' (those persons)

iya sina 'his of that' (his, that person's)

ila sina 'their of that' (theirs, those persons')

III. Type 3: iya after a nominal

1. With personal pronouns

   ako iya 'I myself'; akon iya 'as for me'

   sia iya 'he himself'; iya iya 'as for him'

   kita iya 'we ourselves: aton iya 'in pur case', etc.

2. With directives:

   dira iya 'in that very place'; etc.

3. With demonstratives:

   ina iya 'that very thing'; sina iya 'that very thing'

4. With nouns:

   akon dalan iya 'my own lane'

## APPENDIX E

## INDEFINITES, QUANTIFIERS, AND NUMERALS

1.0 The Indefinite Pronouns.--There are four indefinite pronouns in Hiligaynon: (1) sin-o 'who, whose, whom' is used in place of a personal nominal; (2) anano/nano/ano 'what' stands for non-personal nominals; (3) di-in$_1$ 'which' refers to choice involving any kind of nominal; (4) liwan 'other' also refers to any kind of nominal.

1.1 These forms can be used as substantives or modifiers. Di-in, sin-o, ano/nano/anano are also used as interrogative expressions. As substantives, they usually are found before a nominal construct or its equivalent. As modifiers, these forms usually appear in modification structures with nga as connector. As interrogative expressions, they usually introduce the question.

2.0 The Quantifiers.--The common items are:

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| tanan | 'all' | bilog | 'whole' | laban | 'most' |
| iban | 'some/others' | tunga\ | 'half | kapin | 'more' |
| wala\ | 'none, etc.' | pihak | 'half/ | damo\ | 'many' |
| tagsa(tagsa) | 'each' | | the other' | diotay | 'few/little' |

Like the indefinites, these can be substantives or modifiers. As substantives, they appear either solely introduced by the articles or followed by a sang- or a sa- construct.

3.0 The Numerals.--Hiligaynon has cardinal and ordinal numbers. The numerals can be made substantives or modifiers under the same con-

ditions as those described for indefinites or quantifiers.

3.1 Examples of cardinals

| | |
|---|---|
| isa 'one' | napulo\ 'ten' |
| duha 'two' | duha ka pulo\ 'twenty' |
| tatlo 'three' | ka(ta)tlo-an 'thirty' |
| napulo\ kag siam 'nineteen' | isa ka gatus 'one hundred' |

isa ka libo, isa ka gatus, napulo\ kag isa 'one thousand, one hundred eleven'

3.2 Examples of ordinals

| | |
|---|---|
| naha-una 'first' | ikanapulo\ 'tenth' |
| ikaduha 'second' | ikasiaman 'ninetieth' |
| ikasiam 'ninth' | ikanapulo\ kag siam 'nineteenth' |
| ika-isa ka gatus 'one hundredth' | |

## APPENDIX F

## MODIFIERS

1.0 Classes of Modifiers.--Among the items that modify, in Hiligaynon, distinction is made, as to form, among the sa- and sang- constructs, the deictics, the indefinites, the quantifiers, the numerals, the descriptives, the temporals, and the qualifiers. As to function, these can be regrouped according to whether they function adjectivally or adverbially.

2.0 Numerals and Quantifiers.-- See Appendix E.

3.0 The Deictics.--Two of the three cases of the personal pronouns have forms that are usually modifiers in function. These are the genitive and the agentive case forms. As modifiers, the genitive forms precede the word modified; the agentive forms follow the word being modified. The complementives and the directives are also modifiers usually. (For deictic forms, see Appendix C).

4.0 The Temporals.--These are modifiers which are descriptive but non-inflective. They are limited in number but common in usage. They also tend to be simple in structure, usually disyllabic.

4.1 Temporals with reference to time of action are: (1) kag-ina which refers to some indefinite past period and may be glossed 'a while ago'; (2) subong$_1$ which refers to current time, 'now'; (3) karon which may be glossed 'later' and refers to some indefinite non-past time.

4.2 Temporals with reference to frequency of intervals are: (1) hinali'$_1$ 'suddenly'; kis-a 'sometimes, once'; anay 'sometime ago, meanwhile.'

4.3 Temporals with reference to sequence are dayon and dason. The first refers to the occurrence of events at close intervals, which may be considered as co-occurrent; the second expresses mere sequence.

5.0 The Qualifiers.--The six qualifiers are:

1. Gid 'very, truly, quite, etc.' (Gid is an intensifier.)
2. Lang 'only, just, merely, simply, etc.'
3. Man 'also, either'
4. Mas 'more, most'
5. Na 'already, any more'
6. Pa 'yet, also, still, more, etc.'

All these occupy positions following the expression they modify. When two qualifiers occur together, however, the first tends to modify the second, and, together, they become a compound modifier of the item immediately preceding them. In combinations of three's, it seems that the first two enter into a compound to which the meaning of the third is added. These particles may modify a verb, another modifier, a relator, a nominal, or the whole sentence or clause.

The following are combinations of qualifiers: man lang, na lang, pa lang, na man lang; pa man, na gid man; na gid, pa gid, na lang gid.

6.0 Descriptives.-- There are two subclasses of descriptives: (1) those that can be inflected for degree and (2) those that cannot be. All the members of the first subclass can take on the inflection {ka-$_a$}; many of them can also take on the marker for the positive degree {ma-$_a$}. (The marker {ka-$_a$}, in contrast to {ma-$_a$}, may be consid-

ered inflection for the "intensive" degree.) Those that do not take on ma-$_a$ but are inflected by ka-$_a$ are usually partly assimilated loan words from either Spanish or English.

The second subclass of descriptives is for the most part made up of derivatives from verbs, and loan words which have not been assimilated enough into the language to take on even just the ka-$_a$ inflection. Descriptives are an open class.

6.1 Examples of descriptives.

A. Words that are inflected

1. With both ka- and ma- inflection

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| ma-ayo | 'good'; | ka-ayo | 'very good' |
| maluya | 'weak'; | kaluya | 'very weak' |
| mabakud | 'strong'; | kabakud | 'very strong' |
| mahinay | 'slow'; | kahinay | 'very slow' |

2. With ka- inflection only

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| ka"weak" | 'very weak'; | ka"fuerte" | 'very strong' |
| kapuno\ | 'very full'; | kabali\ | 'very badly broken' |

B. Words that are non-inflecting

1. Verb derivatives

balbag (V=twist,pound) 'twisted, broken'

utod (V=cut,sever) 'broken, cut apart'

liwat (V=repeat) 'again'

patay (V=kill) 'dead'

2. Loan words

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| calmante | 'palliative' | stateside | 'foreign, foreign-made' |

## APPENDIX G

## DERIVATION OF DESCRIPTIVES

1. Culu-[1] + root descriptive =somewhat; a little like

   sadya 'gay'; sulusadya 'a little gay'

   (ma)sakit 'painful'; masulusakit 'somewhat painful'

   (ka)tipolon 'very round'; katulutipolon 'greatly tending to be round'

2. Reduplication of the root + accent on the first syllable of the reduplicate . Meaning = intensification.

   damo' 'many'; madamo-damo 'numerous'

   ayo 'good,well'; ma-ayo-ayo 'beautiful; very well'

   da-an 'old'; da-anda-an 'very old'

3. Reduplication of the root + accent on the last syllable of the reduplicate. Meaning = pejoration; meaning intended is the opposite of that of the first reduplication.

   ma-ayo-ayo 'fair' madamo-damo' 'quite a few, but not numerous'

   da-anda-an 'a little old' dalumdalum 'somewhat deep'

4. "quality" word + -an$_a$ + accent moved to penultimate syllable

   aslum 'sour'; asluman 'characteristically sour (like fruit)'

   puti' 'white'; puti-an 'characteristically white (like some shrimp)'

5. "action" word + -án$_a$

   kawat 'steal'; kawatan 'thieving'

   lagaw 'roam'; lagawan 'nomadic'

   hulag 'move'; hulagan 'restless'

---

[1] C=reduplicate of the initial consonant of the root.

5. "thing" word + -on + accent moved to the next syllable

tubi\ 'water'; tubi-on 'watery'

abo 'ash'; abohon 'ash-covered'

The suffix -on has a correlative, a pluralizing infix, when it derives a descriptive from an action word:

"action" word + -in-$_2$ + -on + accent on the penultimate syllable.

Like -an, this affixation implies characteristic behavior; -an, however, implies a way of life and -on implies a likely behavior.

onong 'be loyal to'; inonongon 'faithful'

dugsing 'playfully tease'; dinugsingon ' given to teasing'

A change of pluralizing infix from -in- to -Vl- changes the "focus" of characterization:

dugsing 'tease'; dulugsingon 'likely to be teased; subject to teasing'

utod 'cut'; ulutoron 'likely to be cut; subject to cutting'

All these derived forms can be inflected by ka-. Only the forms in (5) can freely attach ma-.

6. ka- + mga + root descriptive = "plural" descriptive

kata-as 'very tall'; ka mga ta-as 'all very tall'

kanubo\ 'very short'; ka mga nubo\ 'all very short'

To emphasize the plurality of a nominal being modified by a ka- descriptive, that descriptive may also be pluralized as shown above.

7. Two common descriptives have other "plural" forms: daku\ 'big'; dalagku\ 'all very big' (also, ka mga daku\/dalagku\). Gamay 'small'; gagmay 'all very small' (also, magagmay or kagagmay or ka mga gamay).

APPENDIX H

SAMPLE HILIGAYNON VERBS AND THEIR AFFIXATIONS

| ITEMS AND THEIR GLOSSES | | PREFIXES | | | | | | FORMATIVES | | | | INFIXES | | | STEMS | SUFFIXES | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Number of Order: | | -11 | -10 | -9 | -8 | -7 | -6 | -5 | -4 | -3 | -2 | -1 | 1 | 2 | 3 | | +1 | +2 |
| 1. mati` | 'listen' | | | | | | | | | | | | m | | | (b)ati` | | |
| 2. lumuto` | 'cooked' | | | | | | | | | | | | | um | | luto` | | |
| 3. ikanta | 'will be used in singing' | | i | | | | | | | | | | | | | kanta | | |
| 4. binakal | 'was bought' | | | | | | | | | | | | | in | | bakal | | |
| 5. pamati` | 'listen' | | | | | | | | | | pa | | m | | | (b)ati` | | |
| 6. ikantahon | 'will be sung' | | i | | | | | | | | | | | | | kanta | (h)on | |
| 7. pakantahi | 'cause (him) to be sung to' | | | | | | | | pa | | | | | | | kanta | (h)i | |
| 8. kantahanay | 'sing to each other' | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | kanta | (h(an | ay |
| 9. mapaManila | 'will go to Manila | | ma | | | | | | | | pa | | | | | Manila | | |
| 10. ipakanta | 'will be caused to be sung' | | i | | | | | | pa | | | | | | | kanta | | |
| 11. pakulukanta | 'have (it) sung some' | | | | | | | | pa | kulu | | | | | | kanta | | |
| 12. binigugma | 'is/was,etc. loved' | | | | | | | | | | | hi | | in | | gugma | | |
| 13. kabibalo | 'knows,(is/was,etc.) able to know' | | | | | | | ka | | | | hi | | | | balo | | |
| 14. kantakantaha | '(it) be sung some/now and then' | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | kanta | (h)a | |
| 15. pinahambal | 'was caused/allowed to speak' | | | | | | | | pa | | | | | in | | hambal | | |
| 16. mabati-an | 'will be heard' | | ma | | | | | | | | | | | | | bati` | an | |
| 17. magkinanta | 'will (all) sing' | | ma | | g | | | | | | | | | | in- | kanta | | |
| 18. magsigkanta | 'will each sing' | | ma | si | g | | | | | | | | | | | kanta | | |
| 19. inogkanta | 'is about to be used in singing' | | i | no | g | | | | | | | | | | | kanta | | |
| 20. gakulukanta | 'is/was,etc. singing some/sort of singing' | | | | g | | a | | | kulu | | | | | | kanta | | |
| 21. pakig-impon | 'incline(d) to gregariousness' | | | | | | | | | | pa | kig | | | | impon | | |
| 22. pangaluyagan | 'will be courted' | | | | | | | | | | pa | | ŋ | | | (k)aluyag | an | |
| 23. nagapalakat | 'is causing (X's) walking; is causing (X) to move' | | na | | g | | a | | pa | | | | | | | lakat | | |
| 24. mangimma-estra | 'will become a teacher' | | ma | | g | in | | | | | | | | | | ma-estra | | |
| 25. (indi`) pagpakantahon | 'be not allowed to sing' | pag | | | | | | | pa | | | | | | | kanta | (h)on | |
| 26. manogbisita | 'is/are about to visit' | | ma | no | g | | | | | | | | | | | bisita | | |
| 27. ipabati-on | 'will be caused/allowed to hear' | | i | | | | | | pa | | | | | | | bati` | on | |
| 28. ginpakantahan | 'was/were caused to be sung to' | | | | g | in | | | pa | | | | | | | kanta | (h)an | |
| 29. nagkaladunot | '(all) became rotten/rotted' | | na | | g | | | ka | | | | | | al | | dunot | | |
| 30. makapakulukanta | 'will be able to have some singing done' | | ma | | | | | ka | pa | kulu | | | | | | kanta | | |
| 31. ginpakalanta | 'were (all) caused to sing' | | | | g | in | | | pa | | | | | al | | kanta | | |
| 32. ginahigugma | 'is being loved' | | | | g | in | a | | | | | hi | | | | gugma | | |
| 33. nagkalipatan | 'had been forgotten' | | na | | g | | | ka | | | | | | | | lipat | an | |
| 34. makapapamangkut | 'will be able to allow questioning' | | ma | | | | | ka | pa | | pa | | m | | | (p)angkut | | |
| 35. ginakilinanta | 'is being sung (by them but not in chorus)' | | | | g | in | a | | | | | | | il | in | kanta | | |
| 36. nagapalamuti` | 'has been/is getting very pale' | | na | | g | | a | | | | pa | | m | al | | (p)uti` | | |
| 37. manginpinapatinubo-tubo-an | 'be considered as being caused to be grown in many times, now and then' | | ma | | ŋ | in | | | pa | | pa | | | in | in | tubo` | | |
| 38. magmabinongahon | 'be very fruitful' | mag | | | | | | | | | | | | | | mabinongahon | | |

N.B.: The caret marks the position of the infix.

## APPENDIX I

## AFFIXES OF VERBS

I. Prefixes

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| 1. | {pag-$_1$}[1] | 'immediate jussive, agent focus' |
| 2. | {mag-$_1$}[1] | 'deferred jussive, agent focus |
| 3. | {i-$_1$} | 'passive (non-agent focus), non-event tense' |
| 4. | {i-$_2$} | 'passive (non-agent focus), deferred jussive' |
| 5. | {ma-$_v$}[2] | 'action as non-event' |
| 6. | {na-} | 'action as event' |
| 7. | {nu-} | 'action as impending' |
| 8. | {si-} | 'plural action, individual responsibility' |
| 9. | {G-} | 'agent' |
| 10. | {a-} | 'imperfective aspect' |
| 11. | {ka-} | 'potential' |
| 12. | {pa-$_2$} | 'causative' |
| 13. | {pa-$_1$} | (stem-formative): 'directed towards' |
| 14. | {Culu-}[3] | (stem-formative): 'action somewhat like that of the stem' |
| 15. | {hI-} | (stem-derivative): 'verbalized noun' |
| 16. | {ki-} | (stem-formative): 'have a bent for' |

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[1] pag- and mag- also mark verbals.

[2] {ma-$_a$} is an inflection of descriptives

[3] C=reduplicate of the initial consonant of the stem

APPENDIX I--Continued

II. Infixes

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| 1. | {N<- C-} | 'collective, plural action, transitive; cognate goal implied' |
| 2. | {-in-$_1$} | 'passive (non-agent focus), event tense' |
| 3. | {-in-$_2$} | 'collective, plural action, intransitive' |
| 4. | {-V1-}[1] | 'plural, distributive action' |
| 5. | {-um-} | 'active (agent focus), event tense' |

III. Suffixes

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| 1. | {-an$_1$} | 'indicative goal focus' |
| 2. | {-an$_2$} | 'deferred jussive, goal focus' |
| 3. | {-an$_3$} | 'indicative beneficiary focus' |
| 4. | {-an$_4$} | 'deferred jussive, beneficiary focus' |
| 5. | {-i$_1$} | 'immediate jussive, goal focus' |
| 6. | {-i$_2$} | 'immediate jussive, beneficiary focus' |
| 7. | {-ay} | 'reciprocal action' |

[1] V=reduplicate of the initial vowel of the stem.

## APPENDIX J

## CONNECTORS

I. The coordinators

A. Addition: kag 'and'

B. Contrast: apang~pero~ugaling 'but'

C. Alternation: ukon~o~kon 'or, nor'

D. Correlation: indi` - kondi`; wala` - kondi`: 'not - but'

II. The subordinators

A. Purpose: agud (nga)~para 'in order that'

B. Contition (provision): basta 'provided that'

C. Condition (attendant circumstances): kon 'if, when'

D. Concession: bisan 'even if, even though'

E. Reason: kay (man)

1. causal reason: bangud (kay)~tungud kay 'because'

2. logical reason: sanglit (kay) 'for'

F. Limits: tubtub (nga)~hasta (nga) 'until'

G. Relative to: nga 'who, which, that, when'

H. Concurrence: samtang~mientras (nga) 'while'

I. Result: gani` (nga) 'so, so that'

III. The relators

A. Identity: amo 'same'

B. Similarity: katulad~pareho~subong 'like'

C. Origin: halin 'from, since'; gikan 'from (a place)'

APPENDIX J--Continued.

C. Origin (cont'd.): sugod 'beginning from'

D. Destination: tubtub 'until (general objective)'

kutub 'until (a "place")'

E. Direction: pakadto 'towards (a location in place or time away from a focal point'

padulong 'towards (a focal point, probably the location of the speaker)'

batuk 'against'

dampig 'in favor of, for'

F. Instrument: pa-agi 'through'

G. Purpose: para 'for'

H. "Reference": sunoˋ 'according to'

tuhoy 'about, concerning'

tungud 'because of'

sandig 'after (i.e., take after)'

I. Inclusion: pati 'including'

maski(n) 'even, also including'

## APPENDIX K

## SOLVING FOR THE PROBABILITY OF RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN SYNTACTIC ARRANGEMENTS AND TYPES OF DISCOURSE

A. The Hypothesis: There is no relationship whatsoever between the type of discourse and the way the subject and the subject complement/verb are arranged in the beginning sentence of a discourse.

B. Factors Correlated: (1) Arrangement of subject and subject complement/verb and (2) beginning sentences of two general types of discourse--"reports" and "narratives."

C. Data: The beginning sentences of sixty-nine articles and news items (the "reports") and twenty-three stories of fiction (the "narratives"), from samples of two weekly magazines: one, defunct; the other, still popular. Seven issues were used: (1) Yuhum, October 10, 1962; (2) Hiligaynon, six issues of the following dates--(a) June 26, 1957, (b) June 17, 1959 (Supplement), (c) June 3, 1959, (d) August 24, 1960, (e) August 5, 1964, and (f) December 22, 1965. The total given below of 93 instead of 92 accounts for a sentence with two clauses having different verb and subject arrangements.

D. Statistical Method Used: Derivation of Phi coefficient

E. Level of Significance Sought: .01

F. Introductory Explanations:

(1) On the hypothesis--Since syntactic analysis did not yield anything to explain the obvious variableness of the positions of the subject and the verb/subject complement, some rationale for the variableness has been sought at higher levels. The choice of correlates was dictated by two considerations: (1) an intuitive feel that the relationship between subject-verb arrangement and type of discourse must be greater than the relationship the first factor above may have with any other likely correlate; (2) the greater possibility, in the use of the chosen data, of putting under control extraneous factors which may "infect" the analysis.

The null hypothesis is used, with the added condition that a phi value with significance at .01 level should be obtained before the hypothesis could be rejected and some relationship between the factors being correlated be recognized.

(2) On the choice of the data--Presently, only Hiligaynon has

a sizable and widespread distribution in the Philippines, among the periodicals in Hiligaynon which have been published. In fact, hardly any other is found in the newsstands. Six copies of this weekly are used here, with a copy of the defunct Yuhum thrown in for good measure. This limited number is made up for by the number of selections obtained and the number of writers involved. Also, the range of the years of publication (1957-65) ensures a wide sampling of current usage.

Only selections that are "new" have been used; i.e., no continuations of serials have been included. This caution has reduced the sampling of fiction but has also prevented the intrusion of conditioning by previous context. Thus, it is possible to say that the conditions for the analysis have been fairly set. We can now ask: How is a writer likely to begin if he intends to tell a story? or give a report or a discussion? Obviously, at this point in the discourse, the two types of arrangement of subject and verb have equal chances of being chosen.

(3) On the choice of statistical method--When two factors are suspected to be related and their occurrences are measurable, it is possible to derive some estimate of this relatedness by solving for a coefficient of correlation. A coefficient of correlation, according to Guilford, "is a single number that tells us to what extent two things are related; to what extent variations in one go with variations in the other."[1] The use of the phi coefficient here, in preference to other correlation coefficients, is prompted by the nature of the data. It is the pertinent coefficient "when the two distributions correlated are really dichotomous."[2]

G. The Analysis: The phi coefficient is computed from the following distribution:

TABLE 4

THE DISTRIBUTION OF FREQUENCIES FOR THE CORRELATED FACTORS: S,V ARRANGEMENT OF BEGINNING SENTENCES AND TYPE OF DISCOURSE

| | S-V Arrangement | | V-S Arrangement | Both | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| "Report" | 46 (.495) | a | b 24 (.258) | 70 (.753) | (p) |
| "Narrative" | 3 (.032) | d | c 20 (.215) | 23 (.247) | (q) |
| Both | 49 (.527) | (p') | (q') 44 (.473) | 93 (1.0) | |

[1] J.P. Guilford, Fundamental Statistics in Psychology and Education (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1942), p. 198.

[2] Ibid., p.245

The phi coefficient is computed from the following formula, based on the above table:

$$\phi = \frac{ac - bd}{\sqrt{pqp'q'}}$$

where:

(1) a,b,c,d represent the quadrants so labeled in the table and, more specifically, the proportions (in parenthesis) to which the frequencies recorded for each quadrant have been transmuted.

(2) p = the sum of the proportions for "report"
q = the sum of the proportions for "narrative"
p'= the sum of the proportions for "S-V arrangement"
q'= the sum of the proportions for "V-S arrangement"

(3) Total number of cases = 93 = 1.0

To solve:

$$\phi = \frac{(.495)(.215) - (.258)(.032)}{\sqrt{(.753)(.247)(.527)(.473)}}$$

$$\phi = \frac{(.106425) - (.008256)}{\sqrt{.046462}}$$

$$\phi = \frac{.098}{.216} = .454$$

To interpret the significance of the obtained phi coefficient of .454, Guilford suggests the conversion of the phi coefficient to chi square with the use of the formula:[1]

$$X^2 = N\phi^2$$

To solve: $X^2 = 93(.454)^2 = 19.16$

H. Interpretation: For a chi square to be significant at .01 level with one degree of freedom (a condition deriving from the 2x2 nature of the distribution of the data), it has to have the value of at least 6.635,[2] according to the table of values for chi square prepared by Fisher.[2] The chi square derived from phi just obtained is

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[1] Ibid., p. 246.

[2] Ibid., p. 325.

way above the required figure, so that the figure can be interpreted as overwhelming evidence of the very significant relatedness of the two factors. Considering the relation of the two in the hierarchy of linguistic forms, it can even be said that the choice of arrangement for subject and verb or subject complement, for beginning sentences, is a function of the type of discourse intended to be written.

I. Other Observations:

(1) When the computations were based on data narrowed down to include only verbs and not the subject complements, the $X^2$ value derived from the phi coefficient rose to 35.08.

(2) Of the sixteen so-called "reports" here which had V-S arrangement, nine were really feature articles, which type of journalistic writing oftentimes is written like "narratives." So, had the analysis included purely news reports and stories of fiction, as representing polarities in discourse, the degree of correlation obtained would have been higher still.

(3) The frequency counts for three other sentence positions reveal more interesting tendencies:

TABLE 5

FREQUENCY COUNTS FOR TWO SENTENCE ARRANGEMENTS AT DIFFERENT POSITIONS IN DISCOURSES

| | Opening Paragraph | | Second Paragraph | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | First sent. | Second sent. | First sent. | Second sent. |
| A. "Report" | | | | |
| S-V | 46 | 22* | 32 | 20* |
| V-S | 24 | 19* | 37 | 40* |
| B. "Narrative" | | | | |
| S-V | 3 | 3 | 2 | 3* |
| V-S | 20 | 20 | 21 | 18* |

*These low figures are due to the fact that some paragraphs had only one sentence.

The table indicates that the longer the "report" becomes, the more it tends to the form of the "narrative."

Finally, the investigation allows us to say with confidence that the favorite sentence pattern of narratives is Verb + Subject; and the favorite pattern of the beginning sentence of reports or discussions is Subject + Verb.

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