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

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

The various relations postulated by Hjelmslev are indicated formally as:

| dependence | $-->$ | (going from the lateral to the central item) |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| independence | --- | $-->$ |
| interdependence | $-\infty$ | --- |

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

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

Utterances which are no more than a single formal syntactic unit may be subject to the same system of analysis. They do not invalidate the theory that a meaningful utterance is ultimately based on a relationship of interdependence. Even a minimum utterance must by intonation or some other
feature indicate its relationship to something already said or to be said. Unless it is so related it can have no meaning. Such an utterance may contract interdependent, but more probably it contracts dependent relationship with the other utterance. The formal unit and its intonation contour may, however, comprise a self-contained constitute, for example, exclamations and commands.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

1. Sentence-forming verbal constructions

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

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

### 1.1 Active verbal constructions

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

There is, however, a strong pressure to add a lateral item to this central constitute. The members substituting in this lateral slot are always particles such as dé, pelà, etc.
mipanaw $\underline{a}^{2}$ dé 'I will go/I'll move off.'
lumikù a dé 'I'll be going home now.'
kumaen ki pelà 'We'll eat now/Let's eat.'
Subclasses of active verbal constructions may be distinguished on the basis of the affixes associated with the open expression. They are designated as actor-subject constructions, non-actor-subject constructions, -en goal-subject constructions, -an constructions, and constructions with i-.

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

The actor-subject affixes are:
-um- 'future/desire/mild imperative (with first-person plural)', infixed before the first vowel of the root
eg- 'present continuous' ${ }^{3}$
mig- 'definite past'

Examples:
$\begin{aligned} & l=u m=i k u ̀ \\ & \text { go. home }=F A=\end{aligned} \quad$ a dé
I
eg=ipanawpanaw a 'I am just walking NA=walk. about I
$\mathrm{m}=\mathrm{ael} \quad$ a owong
FA=make I canoe
agulé, eg=likù dé kelupenit
then $N A=g o . h o m e ~ P R T$ small.bat
$t=u m=e n a ̀ \quad$ ma dé sunggud sa 'The father of lay. down $=F A=$ $\qquad$ also PRT bride.price DET
$\frac{\text { emà }}{\text { father }} \frac{i}{\text { DET }} \frac{\text { Dulangan }}{\text { Dulangan }}$
agulé $t=u m=u d u g$ dé sa hadi
then sleep $=\mathrm{FA}=$
PRT DET young.sibling
'Then the young brother slept.'

d=um=agpak

arrive $=F A=$$\quad$| dé |
| :--- |

$\begin{array}{ll}\text { endà dé } \\ \text { not }=u m=e m o w ~ & \text { ké dini } \\ \text { come. up }=F A=\end{array}$
$\mathrm{k}=\mathrm{um}=\mathrm{uwa}$ a tamuk, lima
get $=\mathrm{FA}=$ $\qquad$ I trade.items five
amuk endà si emà eg=haa kenaken if not DET father NA=see me
'The evil
spirit arrived.'
'We will not come up here (into this house).

```
'I will get five
trade items.'
```

'If father had not seen me (I would have died).
'I am going home.' about.'
'I am making a canoe.'
'Then the small bat listened.'
'Then the small bat went home.' Dulangan laid down the bride price.'

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

The non-actor-subject affixes are:
In <-en> Constructions

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

In <-an> Constructions
$-\underline{a n} \quad$ 'future/desire'
$\underline{e g-e n}$ 'present continuous'
$-\underline{i n-a n}$ 'definite past'

In $\leq 1->$ Constructions
$\begin{array}{ll}\text { i- } & \text { 'present/future' } \\ \text { ig- } & \text { 'definite past' }\end{array}$
The difference between the members within each of the three preceding sets seems to be more one of aspect than time. The last member of each set clearly indicates a completed action. The other members, while they may be used of an action occurring in the past, refer to a continuing action, contemporaneous with other actions in the same context. The completive affixes, however, are used only of actions that have already occurred; they never refer to a future complete action.

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

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

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

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

Example:

| humaa a keniko |  |
| :--- | ---: |
| look I you | 'I want to watch you |
| (ride bareback). |  |

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

| *mighaa kenagdi si Milug |  |
| :--- | :--- |
| see him | DET Milug |

The concept may, however, be expressed as follows:
si Milug mighaa ya kenagdi
DET Milug see DET him
'Milug saw him.'
'Milug is the one who saw him.'

## Objectifying Particles (<sa> Particles)

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

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

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

## <dé> Particles

A member of the postclitic class de usually follows the verb and the series 1 pronoun. The combination of the verb and both or one of these postclitics is referred to as a verb expression. Class <dé> particles are
dé, pa, and pelà (sometimes expanded to pelawà). These items are mutually exclusive in their distribution.

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

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

## Pronouns

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

## SERIES 1 ABBREVIATED PRONOUNS <ą

1st person
2nd person 3rd person

| Singular | Plural |
| :--- | :--- |
| a <br> $\frac{k a}{\emptyset}$ (positive) <br> di (negative) | $\frac{\text { ké }}{\text { da }}$ |

SERIES 4 PRONOUNS <kenaken>

| 1st person | Singular <br> Kenaken | Plural |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 2nd person | $\frac{\text { Kenami }}{\text { Keniko }}$ | Keniyu |
| 3rd person | kenagdi ; kenita (incl) | kenagda |

1.1.3 Goal-subject constructions (<-en> constructions)
hau=wen di sa utan

see=FO she DET utan $\quad$| 'She saw the utan |
| :--- |
| (plant).' |

agulé $d=i n=a l e n$ Kenogon sa biahan sa 'Then the young girl then put $=P O=$ DET maiden DET basket $D E T$ put the shoot in the basket.'
tugbung
shoot
agulé pana=en di sa ubal
then shoot=FO he DET monkey
'Then he shot the monkey:'

| bangun=en |
| :--- |
| raise. up=FO |
| DET old.bro |$\quad \frac{\text { ga }}{\text { DET }}$ hadi $\quad \frac{\text { di }}{\text { young.bro his }}$| 'The elder brother |
| :--- |
| raised his younger |
| brother up. |

$\frac{\text { siya }}{\text { that }} \frac{\text { tigtu }}{D E M} \frac{\text { etaw, }}{\text { honest }}$ person marry $=P 0=\ldots$ di
siya wé me=pion etaw
that $D E M$ ADJ $=$ good person

| $k=$ in $=$ uwa | di ma |
| :--- | :--- |
| get $=P O=$ | he also $\frac{\text { belagen }}{D E T} \frac{\text { rattan }}{\text { rata }}$ |

'He heard the sound of the pig.'

## 'He also got the rattan.'

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

SERIES 2 PRONOUNS <ku>

|  | Singular | Plural |
| :--- | :---: | :--- |
| 1st person | $\underline{k u}$ | $\frac{k e ́ e}{\text { (excl) ; ta }}$ (incl) |
| 2nd person | $\underline{\text { to }}$ | $\underline{d i}$ |
| 3rd person | $\underline{d i}$ |  |

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

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

A <sa> objectifying particle is optional with agent nouns.
If both subject and agent are pronouns, the subject pronoun is a series 3 form (of the series 3 <aken> pronouns). Example:

## SERIES 3 PRONOUNS <aken>

| 1st person | Singular <br> 2nd person | Plural <br> 3rd person |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| kuna | kami (excl); kita (incl) |  |

If the agent is other than a pronoun, the subject pronoun reduces to the abbreviated series 1 <a> form, taking a position immediately following the verb. The agent noun or person follows with or without a <sa> objectifying particle.
in=uwit a mangan etaw
PO=bring I spirit
eg=hemued=en ké kilat, ka
NO=bite $=0$ we lightning as
duma ta
relatives our
eg=duyuy
NA=sing

```
logke=laep 年é sa emà i Sida
```

'I have been brought (here) by an evil spirit.
'We would be struck by lightning (for such an act) since they are our relatives.'

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

### 1.1.3.1 Actor-subject constructions

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


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

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

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { agulé } h=u m=a a \\
& \text { then see }=F A=
\end{aligned} \quad \frac{\text { sa }}{\text { DET }} \quad \frac{\text { kakay; }}{\text { old.bro see }=F 0} \text { hau=wen }{ }^{5} \text { di }
$$

sa ubal
DET monkey
agulé pana=en di sa ubal; agulé then shoot=PO he DET monkey then
netebà me=nabù dé sa ubal stone.dead IFO=fall PRT DET monkey
'Then the older brother looked around. 'He saw a monkey.'
'Then he shot the monkey. It fell stone dead.'
agulé m=anà 6 ma sa hadi; pana=en 'Then the young then $\mathrm{FO}=$ shoot again DET young.bro shot $=\mathrm{PO}$
di sak kusapeng
he DET female.monkey
brother shot with his bow. He shot a female monkey.'

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

| $\mathrm{h}=\mathrm{um}=$ ated |  |
| :--- | :--- |
| take $=F A=$ | a saging Kaut ta |
| $\underline{I}$ bananas Kaut $D E T$ | 'I will take some |


| eg=sugù | a kayu keniko |
| :--- | :--- |
| $N A=$ order | I wood you |$\quad$| 'I will send you to |
| :--- |

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

### 1.1.3.2 Expanded goal-subject constructions

The following are examples of expanded goal-subject constructions:
$p=i n=e n u ̀$$\quad$ ku wayeg sa $\frac{\text { latà }}{D E T} \frac{I}{\text { fin }}$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { eg=hagtay=en ku museng } \frac{\text { sa }}{\text { emal }} \\
& \text { NO=live=OF I charcoal } \\
& \text { DET } \\
& \text { loris }
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { si } \\
\text { DET } \frac{\text { Deké } b=i n=a l b a l ~ d i ~ t i m b a k ~}{\text { Deké }} \text { strike }=P O= & \text { he rifle }
\end{array}
$$

'I filled the tin with water.'
'I keep the loris alive with charcoal.'
'Deké was struck by him with a rifle.'

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

It is usually not possible to express the foregoing concepts in actor-subject form. With at least one of the roots, hagtay, and probably all others, the second substantive presupposes the pronoun agent and cannot occur without it. The following sentence, for example, is impermissible:

| *eghagtayan museng sa emal | charcoal | loris |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| live | The loris is kept |  |

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

### 1.1.4 -an constructions

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

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\frac{\text { si }}{\text { DET }} \text { Fled eg=tulon=on i Megumpis } & \begin{array}{l}
\text { 'Fred was informed } \\
\text { Fred NR=inform=RF DET Megumpis }
\end{array} \\
& \text { (of the thing) by } \\
\text { Megumpis. }
\end{array}
$$

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

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

Group 1 roots, which combine with -en
eg=dalem=an ku palay sa
$N R=$ latà
can $=R F$
$d=i n=a l e m=a n \quad$ di babuy sa apuy put $=P R=\ldots=R F$ he pig DET fire
**endà pa in=inem=an ko duu not yet $P R=d r i n k=R F$ you NEG
'I'll put the rice in the can.'
'He placed the pig in the fire.'
'You have not yet drunk from it.'

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

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

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { eg=kagbul=en di sa walingwaling } \\
& N O=c l i m b=O F \text { he DET } \begin{array}{l}
\text { orchid }
\end{array} \quad \begin{array}{l}
\text { 'He climbs for the } \\
\text { orchid.' }
\end{array}
\end{aligned}
$$

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

```
eg=kagbul=an di aken, sa miyong 'The cat, he climbs
NR=climb=RF he me DET cat up onto me.'
```

With other roots the subject item seems to be more a goal than location, for example:
eg=temeg=en ku sa kayu
'I'll burn the wood.'
NO=burn=OP I DET wood
eg=temeg=an ku sa apuy 'I'll light the fire.'
NR=light=RF I DET fire

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

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

```
eg=daig=en di sa kuden tanà magtu pelà 'She'll bake the
NO=burn=OF she DET pot earth new still newly made earthen-
    ware pot.'
b=in=ael=an
make=PR=
```

$\qquad$

``` \(=\mathrm{RF}\)
```

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

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

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

Group 2 roots, which do not combine with $\langle-e n\rangle$ or $\langle i->$
With group 2 roots, <-an> substitutes for <-en> indicating a simple goal-subject in a two-party construction. The subject is usually a person.

| $\begin{array}{llll} \text { angat=an } & \text { ku } & \text { pa } & \text { kuna } \\ \text { wait=FR } & \text { I } & \text { still } & \text { you } \end{array}$ | 'I'll wait for you. |
| :---: | :---: |
| eg=bulig=an da aken | 'They are helping me. |
| $N R=a n g r y=R F$ they me |  |
| $b=i n=u l i t=a n \quad k u ~ k a g d a ~$ | 'I was angry with |
| angry $=P R=\ldots=R F I$ them |  |
| si Papi, eg=unung=unung=an di kuna | 'Puppy is matching |
| DET Puppy NR=watch=watch $=$ RF he you | you intently.' |
| eg=telaki=yan ku kagda | 'I'll tell them a |
| NR=folk.tale $=$ RP I them | folktale.' |
| eg=lenawen=an da kita | 'They speak Moro to |
| $\mathrm{NR}=$ Moro $=$ RF they us | us. |

An inanimate subject is indicated with the root bael 'to make/build': eg=bael=an ké sa dalesan
$N R=$ make $=R P$ we $D E T \frac{\text { 'We are building a }}{\text { house }} \quad$ house.'

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


A group of roots indicating direct address enter into similar goalsubject constructions with <-an> though some of them also combine with <-en> to indicate another form of goal-subject. With -an the subject is a person, the addressee. The tendency of <-an> to indicate location is indicated in the associated question or command.
eg=igsa=an ku sa etaw; miling si Kaldon $\mathrm{NR}=\mathrm{ask}=\mathrm{RF}$ I DET person like DET Kardon
eg=igsa=an ku amuk duen eg=angay=an
$\mathrm{NR}=\mathrm{ask}=\mathrm{RF}$ I if there.is $\mathrm{NR}=\mathrm{go}=\mathrm{RF}$
'I ask a person, like Kardon, if he is going anywhere.'
di in=ikagi=yan ku sa etaw, kedu=wan ko
he $P R=a s k=R F$ I DET person from=FR you
'I asked the man, "Where have you come from?"
ya eg=sugu=an ku sidò etaw anì
PRT $N R=o r d e r=R F$ I that person so.that
eg=angay dini
$N A=g o \quad$ here
'I tell the person to come here.'

Group 3 Roots, Which Combine with $\langle i-\rangle$ But Not with $\langle-e n\rangle$
A subdivision must be made within group 3 roots according to the function of the affix set <i-> with the particular root.

To the first subdivision belong the roots hated, tugkes, begay, and others. When these roots enter into combination with <i->, the subject is the goal of the sentence. <i-> evidently substitutes for the affix set <-en>, with which these roots do not combine.
duen ma ig=begay ku si Atudan, 'The thing I gave there.is also PI=give I DET Atudan
kamasita
T-shirt
sini saging $i=h a t e d$ ku si Kaut these banana $\mathrm{NI}=$ take I DET Kaut

Atudan was a T -shirt.'

1 =tagkes ku sa kudà<br>$N I=$ tether $I$ DET horse

'I'11 tether the horse.'

These and similar roots with <i-> indicate a third-party goal-subject construction in which a definite third party 18 implied even though it may not be explicitly indicated. The subject is a nonperson.

When these roots combine with -an, the third party becomes the subject (a location or recipient, etc.).
begay=an ku si Atudan sempek give=PR I DET Atudan shorts
eg=hated=an ku saging si Kaut 'I'll take the NR=take=RF I banana DET Kaut
sidò tued eg=tagkes=an ku kudà
that stump NR=tie=RF I horse
'I'll give Atudan a pair of shorts.' bananas to Kaut.'
'I'll tie the horse to that stump.'

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

```
eg=tagkes=an ku sa palay 'I bind the rice.'
NR=tie=RP I DET rice
```

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

To the second subdivision of group 3 roots belongs the root bayad 'to pay for goods'. This root does not enter into simple goal-subject constructions with the affix <i->. With -an it commonly enters into third-party goal-subject constructions in which the recipient of the payment may or may not be indicated.
bayad=an ku sa utang ku diyà keniko pay=FR I DET debt my to you
'I'll pay up my debt to you.'
eg=bayad=an ku sa manuk diyà si Mundi NR=pay=RF I DET chick to DET Mundi
'I' 11 pay Mundi for his chick.'

### 1.1.4.1 Benefaction

Most roots, irrespective of the particular group to which they belong, enter into beneficiary-subject -an constructions. In these the agent performs an action for the benefit of another party, usually a person, sometimes an animal.
eg=tueges=an ku kuna uton $N R=$ catch $=R F$ I you fish
eg=tudak=an da kami katilà NR=plant=RF they us swt.potato
kuwa=an ku tamuk emà ku diyà get=FR I item father from
keniko
you
eg=edup=an di kuna wayeg
$N R=$ heat $=R$ he you water
eg=sulu=an ku kuna
NR=1ight=RF I you
eg=lagbet=an ku me=pion kaenen di sa $N R=$ look $=R P \quad I \quad A D J=g o o d$ food his
kudà
horse
'I'll catch fish for you.'
'They' 11 plant the sweet potato for us.'
'I' ll get trade items for my father from you.'
'He'll heat the water for you.'
'I'll light the way for you.'
'I am looking for good food for the horse.'

With some roots a beneficiary may not occur except as the subject of an -an construction.
eg=tudak=an ku kuna katilà diyà sa 'I'll plant sweet
NR=plant=RF I you swt.potato in DET potato for you in my patch.'
pelusak ku
patch y
eg=tudak=an ku diyà keniko sa pelusak
NR=plant=RF I for you DET patch
'I'll plant the sweet potato patch for you.'


'I'll plant sweet potato for you.' (I'1l plant sweet potato on your land.)

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

The same distinction is made with the root tayagpes:

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

Example of benefaction:

> eg=angat=an ku pelà kuna posot
> $N R=$ wait=RF $\quad$ I still you betel.nut

> 'I'll wait and get the betel nut for you.

Example of nonbenefaction:
eg=angat=angat a posot diyà keniko
NA=wait=wait I betel.nut for you
'I'll wait for you to
come back with the
betel nut.

### 1.1.4.2 -an conditioned by a question

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

Question: keduwan ini uton
from this fish
'Where did these fish come from?'
(How did you come by these fish?)
Reply: sini uton $t=i n=u e g e s=a n \quad i \quad$ Umpit 'These fish were caught by this fish catch $=P R=\ldots=R F$ DET Unpit Umpit.'

Here -an does not seem to fit the usual usage and must be conditioned by the -an of keduwan.

### 1.1.4.3 Actor-subject and -an constructions

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

| eg=tudak=an ku katilà sa pelusak ku | 'I' 11 plant sweet |
| :---: | :---: |
| NR=plant=RF I swt.potato DET patch my | potato in my patch.' |
| $\begin{array}{ll}\text { aken, }, ~ t=u m=u d a k \\ I & \text { plant }=F A=\end{array} \quad \frac{\text { a pelusak ku }}{\text { I }} \begin{aligned} & \text { patch my }\end{aligned}$ | 'As for me, I'll plant (sweet potato) in my patch.' |
| $b=i n=e g a y=a n \quad k u$ sempek si Atudan give $=P R=\ldots=R F$ shorts DET Atudan | 'I gave Atudan a pair of shorts.' |
| m=egay a kawal si Atudan FA=give I shirt DET Atudan | - I will give Atudan a shirt.' |
| eg=sukay=an ku kulta si Gebug NR=pay=RF I money DET Gebug | 'I'll pay Gebug money <br> (if he works for me).' |
| $s=u m=u k a y$ a kulta si Gebug <br> pay=FA= $\qquad$ I money DET Gebug | 'I will pay Gebug money.' |

As for me, I'll plant (sweet potato) in my patch.'
'I gave Atudan a pair of shorts.'
'I will give Atudan a shirt.'
'I will pay Gebug money.'

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


### 1.1.5 Constructions with <i->

There are three subgroups of $\underline{i}$ - constructions. (One has already been mentioned in connection with group 3 roots in sec. 1.1.4.).
1.1.5.1 <1-> indicating goal-subject

The following are examples in context of a large group of roots which do not combine with the affix set -en, but indicate goal-subject by the affix set $\underline{i-: ~}$
$i=t u d a k$ ku sa katilà
NI=plant I DET 8wt.potato
i=begay ku sa kawal diyà keniko
NI=give $I$ DET shirt to you
** $i=$ tagù ku dutu
NI=put I there
dawat ig=tenà ku
pen $\mathrm{PI}=$ down I
**agule ig=hated i kawas dutu kenà di
then $P I=$ took swallow to place his
ig=sanggat di sa solok
PI=hang he DET basket
$i=$ taan di sa bagting
$\mathrm{NI}=$ push. in he DET arrows
i=lidung ku sa kulta
NI=hide I DET money
kalinguwan i=tagkes diyà kayu
kalinguwan NI=tie to wood
'I'll plant the sweet potato.'
'I'll give you a shirt.'
'I'll put it there.'
'I put the pen down.'
'Then the swallow took her to his house.'
'He hung up the basket.'
'He shoved the arrow (into the ground).'
'I'll hide the money.
ig=tukid ku keniyu sa bunga't kayu PI=distribute $I$ you DET fruit=LIG tree
'The kalinguwan will be tied on to wood.'
'I shared the fruit among you all.'

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

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

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

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

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

It should be noted that the subject of the verb constructions dealt with in the section on "group 3 roots which combine with <i-> but not <-en>)" (1.1.4) are usually inanimate or not a person. This is true of the great majority of roots in this class though a few may indicate a person subject. If, as seems to be the case with roots of this group, <i-> is substituting for <-en>, it is to be expected that it would behave like <-en> in indicating both person and inanimate subject. The fact, however, that most of the subjects are inanimate even with these roots stresses the bias of <i-> towards inanimate subject.
$b=$ in=uung $\quad$ di aken
throw $=P O=\quad$ he me
agulé ig=buung i kenogon sa bukay beleg then PI=throw DET maiden DET white eel

```
umownen da kuna
call=F0 they you
```

ngadan iya ig=umow ko
what that PI=call you
'He threw a stone at me.' (He hit me.)
'Then the maiden threw the white eel away.'
'They are calling you (to come, etc.).'

[^0]'I ordered Atudan to get bananas.'
sa saging ignsugù ku si Atudan DET bananas PI=order I DET Atudan

$\begin{array}{ll}\text { si } \\ \text { DET } T & \text { Atudan } s=\text { in }=u g u ̀ ~ \\ \text { Atudan } & \text { da } \\ \end{array}$
aken, endà duen lenaven igetulù ku 'As for me, I did not I not there.is Moro PI=teach I
eg=tulu=en di kita
NO=teach $=0$ she us
'They ordered Atudan (to get bananas).' teach (you) any Moro dialect.'
'She is teaching us.'
1.1.5.3 <i-> indicating instrument-subject

1- combines with many roots to indicate an instrument in subject slot.
$\frac{\text { sini }}{\text { this }}$ pencil $\mathrm{NI}=$ write I
sini manuk i=bayad ku sak in=utang ku diyà this fowl $N I=$ pay $I$ the $P O=$ debt my to keniko
you
$\frac{\text { sa }}{D E T} \frac{\text { Kesalaan }}{\text { fine }} \frac{1}{D E T} \frac{\text { Kaldon }}{\text { Kaldon }} \mathrm{NI}=$ tigut. right he
sidd kayu, $p=i n=e=t i g d e g, ~ i g=k u w a ~ b a b u y$ that wood $P O=C A=\quad=$ stand $P I=g e t$ pigs
si Mama
DET Mama
'I'll write with this pencil.'
'I'll pay my indebtedness to you with a fowl.'
'Kaldon will placate Mama by his fine.'
sini kulta i=sukay ku amuk duen
this money NI=pay I if there.is
eg=galebek diyà kenak
NA=work for me
'That length of wood, erected (over there), was set up to catch pigs.'
'I'll give this money for payment if someone will work for me.'
i=hiyup apuy sa lebuk
NI=blow fire DET bamboo
$k=i n=u w a \quad d i$ ma sa belagen; segulé get $=P O=$ he again DET rattan once
daa $t=i n=e p 1$
only split $=\mathrm{PO}=$ $\qquad$
**i=polot di sa lungun busaw
$N I=t i e$ he DET coffin spirit.being

## **Question: ngadan angay=an sini selagi what $g o=F R$ this drum

'I use a bamboo cylinder to blow the fire.'
'Once more he got rattan; he split it only once.'
'He tied up the hollow log coffin of the spirit with it.'
'Where is the drum being taken to?'

$$
\begin{aligned}
* * R e p l y: & \text { i=sunggud } \quad \text { ku sawa ku } \\
& \text { NI=bride.price } I \text { wife my }
\end{aligned}
$$

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

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

Example of instrument-subject:


Example of goal-subject:
$\mathrm{t}=\mathrm{in}=\mathrm{ayag} p e s \mathrm{ku}$ tabas sa me=doo mebenes 'I cleared the pile clear $=P O=$ _ I tabas DET ADJ=many weeds of weeds with a tabas (long bolo).'

## 1.1 .6 bael, a special case

The root bael 'make' does not combine with either <-en> or <i->. Some utterances have been recorded in which instrument seemed to be indicated by -an.

| tumbaga $b=i n=a e$ ]=an da selagi copper make=PR= $\qquad$ $=$ RF they drum | 'They used copper to make the drum.' |
| :---: | :---: |
| $\begin{aligned} & \text { ngingi } b=i n=a e l=a n \quad \text { di dalesan } \\ & \text { saliva make }=P R=\quad=R F \text { he house } \end{aligned}$ | ' It (spider) made its house from saliva.' |
| $b=i n=a e l=a n \quad k u d e n$ sa tanà make $=P R=\quad=$ RF pot $D E T$ earth | 'The pot was made from earth.' |

### 1.1.7 Summary of active verbal constructions

There is a major structural division between <-um-> actor-subject constructions on the one hand and non-actor-subject constructions on the other. This difference may be expressed by calling the former constructions a keniko constructions after such typical expression as:
$\mathrm{hxum=aa} \quad$ a keniko
see $=F A=$
'I would like to watch you.'

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

| $h=i n=a a$ |  |
| :--- | :--- |
| see $=P 0=$ | ku kuna |
| you |  |$\quad$ 'I saw you.'

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

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

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

There are other roots that combine with both <i-> and <-en> in which this distinction is restricted to the former affix, <1-> indicating an inanimate instrument in subject slot, but <-en> permitting either person or inanimate thing in subject slot.

Should a root not combine with <-en>, the function of <-en> is usually taken over by <i->. This tends to bring a third party into the central sentence structure. The subject is the goal, as with <-en>, and is usually inanimate or a nonperson (e.g., horse). A third party is implied. It may be inanimate and indicate location, or it may be a person who is the recipient of the action, etc. This party is commonly brought into subject slot by the affix <-an>.
-an may also substitute for <-en> in goal-subject constructions, which are generally two party indicating a person subject. It may also indicate a person subject even with those roots which combine with <-en>. In such constructions the person (or sometimes animal) subject is the beneficiary of the action, the recipient of the goal.

### 1.2 Stative verbal constructions

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

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

## 1.2 .1 meke- constructions

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

| neke=lowon sidò diyà siya dilsek IPA=longer that to the little | 'That is longer than the short one.' |
| :---: | :---: |
| $\begin{aligned} & \text { neke=tigdulas } \frac{a}{I} \\ & \text { IPA=skid } \end{aligned}$ | 'I skidded (on an object).' |
| neke=bulug a eg=angay sabun IPA=waste $\begin{aligned} & \text { I } \\ & \text { NA=go soap }\end{aligned}$ | ```'I made a wasted trip for soap.'``` |

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

```
**meke=uma' diyà palay
    IFA=reach to rice
```

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

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

With roots that may also enter into combination with active verbal affixes the stative nature of the constructions is not always 80 obvious.

```
kami
us
```

**lya pelà meke=gemow

```
**lya pelà meke=gemow
    that just IFA=come.up
```

```
    that just IFA=come.up
```

```

\section*{kami}
```

us

```
'He has just managed to get up (a dog trying to climb up into house).
si Tom, meke=ipanaw da dé
DET Tom IFA=travel they PRT
'Tom and the others, they are on their way.
```

amuk endà meke=tayagpes ké, bulit=an da 'If we do not clear
if not IFA=clear we angry=FR they land they'll be angry
with us.
'If we do not clear land they'll be angry with us.

```

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

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

Active examples:
\[
\begin{aligned}
& \begin{array}{l}
\text { eg=iling=an di Papi } \\
N R=i m i t a t e=R F \\
\text { she } \\
\text { Puppy } \\
\text { DET }
\end{array} \\
& \text { tugkeling eg=iling etaw } \\
& \text { tugkeling } N A=\text { initate people }
\end{aligned}
\]
'She is imitating Puppy.'
'The tugkeling bird imitates people.'

Stative examples:
```

neke=iling bekong keletiloy
IPA=imitate bekong keletiloy

```

\footnotetext{
'The keletilor is like a bekong lizard.'
}
\(\frac{\text { me }=\text { doo }}{A D J=\text { many }} \frac{\text { etaw }}{\text { people }}\) meke=iling sa linadu
'Many people have the same disease.'

An equally clear distinction 18 made by the root ledak 'to break down'. Active example:
\[
\begin{array}{lll}
\text { eg=ledak=en } & \text { ku sa } & \frac{\text { katilà }}{} \\
\text { NO=break.down=OF } & \text { I } & \text { DET } \\
\text { swt.potato }
\end{array}
\]
'I'll mash up the sweet potato.'

Stative example:
> amuk utuh=an ta sa ihi uled, meke=ledak if step=FR we DET urine snake IFA=rot
> 'If we step on snake urine, our feet will rot.' \(\frac{\text { lisen }}{\text { feet }} \frac{\text { ta }}{\text { our }}\)

When an action is indicated by the verb, this action is not premeditated by the subject but is the result of some outside agent.
meke=buung sa batu ig=buung ku
IFA=throw DET stone PI=throw I
'The stone I threw ricocheted off.'

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

Unpremeditated action is again indicated in the following use of the root hadek 'to smell'. Used in an active expression it implies a deliberate act of smelling. In the following utterance the action is by no means deliberate, since those who smell the busaw 'evil spirits' are said to die. They are said to smell the evil spirits because the odour envelops them.
meke=hadek ké nadeg busaw, me=matay ké
IFA=smell we odour spirit IPO=die we
'If we should smell the spirit we would die.'

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

Example of ability:
endà meke=layang di ka pulung tukééy
not IFO=fly it as so little

\footnotetext{
'It can't fly because it is so little.'
}

Example of inherent quality:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|}
\hline meke=hilu & sidò dalem & sobuy \\
\hline IPA=intoxicate & that inside i & it sobuy \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
'The inside of the sobuy gourd is intoxicating.'

Example of timeless fact:
amuk endà duen ngingi, endà meke=kaen 'If we had no saliva
if not there.is saliva not IFA=eat \(\quad\)\begin{tabular}{l} 
we would not be able \\
to eat.
\end{tabular}
meke- is found in both transitive a keniko constructions and intransitive constructions referred to as a+ constructions. It has been found only once in a ku kuna construction. [The meke- affixes are used with both actor/agent/experiencer focus and instrument focus; see Table 2 in Johnston 1975. R.E.]

father girl

\subsection*{1.2.2 peke- constructions}
peke- constructions closely parallel meke- constructions. All roots that combine with meke- may also combine with peke-.

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

Examples of ability:
endà egpeke=angay di diatas
not INA=go he top
endà egpeke=enaw di, ka dakel buneg di not INA=rise he as big goiter his
'He could not go to the top.'
'He could not rise because his goiter was large.'
endà egpeke=bohol a
not INA=understand I
'I can't understand it.'
endà dé egpeke=bigkat di
not PRT INA=walk he
endà egpeke=begay a keniko timus, enù
not INA=give I you salt because
ka endà dé duen di
RP not PRT there.is it
'He cannot walk.' (His foot is infected.)
'I can't give you salt as there is none.'
'It has not been lighted yet.'
'This child should not be washed (should he?).'
'The spirits had nearly reached there.'
'It is not intoxicating.'
'That is how we become sick.' (That is how we see the disease.)
'The evening breeze hurls itself into the sea and passes over (our house).' (Our house is sheltered from the wind under the crest of a hill.)
peke- is found most commonly with intransitive at or a keniko transitive constructions. It has been found only twice in a ku kuna construction.
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|}
\hline memalà a keniko e & endà duen & 'I am ashamed to see \\
\hline IPO=ashamed I you n & not there.is & you, since I have given you nothing.' \\
\hline \multicolumn{3}{|l|}{peke=begay ku keniko} \\
\hline \multicolumn{3}{|l|}{INI=give I you} \\
\hline egpeke=lapeg ku kuna e & eg=polot & 'I have tied you up \\
\hline INI=together I you N & \(N A=t i e\) & together (with the \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
(This last example was said when someone had been accidentally caught up by the rope while it was being wound around a post.)

\section*{1.2 .3 me- and ke- stative constructions}
me- and ke- stative constructions will be treated together since they enter into structurally parallel constructions. Roots that enter into combination with these affixes divide into three fairly clearly defined groups. The one group enters into a keniko constructions, the other into ku kuna constructions, and the third into at constructions.

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

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

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

Group 1 Roots
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|}
\hline \begin{tabular}{l}
mebukul a keniko mebukulan ku kuna sad \\
I you
\end{tabular} & 'I am sad for you' \\
\hline \begin{tabular}{l}
egkebukul a keniko egkebukulan ku kuna sad \\
I you
\end{tabular} & 'I am sad for you' \\
\hline melimedang a keniko afraid I you & 'I am afraid of you' \\
\hline
\end{tabular}


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

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

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

The roots lipeng 'to forget' and tiig 'to know' have been found only in stative constructions.
```

ne=lipeng=an ku sak d=in=ineg ku 'I forgot what I
IPR=forget=RF I DET hear =PO=_ I heard.'
kuna me=tiig=an ko dé siya in=ikagi ku 'You know what I said
you IFR=know=RF you PRT that PO=say I to you last night.'
egoh sigep
time night

```
endà \(1 \mathrm{me}=\mathrm{ti} \mathrm{ig}=a n\) ké imatay ungéh
not \(I F R=k n o w=R F\) we kill rat
'We don't know how to kill rats.'

These roots do not enter into a keniko constructions, only into constructions bearing a structural similarity to intransitive actor-subject constructions.
\begin{tabular}{lll}
\(m e=t i l g\) \\
\(I P O=k n o w\) & a doo \\
I & PRT
\end{tabular}
ne=lipeng \(\underline{a} \quad\) 'I forgot.' \(I P O=\) forget \(I\)

These two expressions may, however, be expanded into a keniko constructions by the addition of a secondary transitive active verb expression.
me=tiig \(\quad \underset{\text { a }}{\text { eg=kuwa't }}\) ungéh
\(I F O=k n o w ~ I ~\)
rat
ne=lipeng \(\quad\) a \(\quad\) eg=uwit manuk
IPO=forget
ne=lipeng
\(I P O=\) forget
a
I
\(N A=b r i n g ~ b i r d ~\)
'Yes, I understand.'
'I know how to catch rats.'
'I forgot to bring the bird.'

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

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

There is an interesting deviation from the norm with a very small group of roots of this class. With other roots, active or stative, an is invariably associated with ku kuna constructions. With this subgroup -an may associate with a keniko constructions.
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|}
\hline egke=mala=an a keniko INR=shame \(\quad\) RF I you & 'I am ashamed to be seen by you.' \\
\hline egke=limedang=an a keniko & 'I am afraid of you.' \\
\hline INR=afraid=RF I you & \\
\hline ne=magtu=an a keniko & 'You are new to me \\
\hline IPR=new=RF I you & \\
\hline egke=magtu=an a keniko & 'You are new to me. \\
\hline INR=new=RF I you & \\
\hline egke=dilung=an a keniko & 'You block my view.' \\
\hline INR=hide=RF I you & \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

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


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

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

egke=dilung=an a keniko iya maen di ya 'You block my view (I INR=obscure \(=R\) I you that reason it
**endà eg=hau=wen ku duu
not \(N O=\) see \(=0 \mathrm{~F}\) I NEG
have been blocked out of sight by you) so I can't see him.'

\section*{Group 2 roots}

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


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


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

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

In active constructions the root kuwa means to 'take/catch':
\begin{tabular}{ll} 
endà ne=kuwa ku duu \\
not IPO=catch I NEG & \begin{tabular}{l} 
'I was not able to \\
catch it.' (The bird \\
eluded me.)
\end{tabular}
\end{tabular}

In this utterance kuwa carries its active meaning, but the initiative would appear to lie partly with the subject.
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|}
\hline \(m e=u m a \quad k u\) sa saging IPO=reach I DET banana.tree & 'I can reach the the banana tree.' (It is within my reach.) \\
\hline egke=ambak kelamag sa
INO=collide wind & 'The tree is jostled by the wind.' \\
\hline egke=hagtay museng \(\quad \frac{\text { sa }}{D E} \frac{\text { emal }}{\text { loris }}\)
IN \(=\) live charcoal & 'The loris can be kept alive by charcoal.' \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
egke=lagang ki apuy
INO=scorch we fire
'We would be scorched by the fire.'
endà dé egke=tagped di siya kayu, ka endà not PRT INO=cut he the tree as not
'He could not cut the wood up because he had no bolo.'
```

duen gelay di
there.is bolo his

```

Most of the above utterances and others of like nature are parallel in structure with active goal-subject constructions and appear to be restricted to simple two-party constructions. There is a difference in meaning illustrated by the following contrasts which probably hold good for most of the other roots.
endà dé egke=tagped di sa kayu
not PRT INO=cut he DET wood
endà \(t=i n=a g p e d\) di sa kayu
not cut \(=P O=\) he DET wood
egke=hagtay museng sa emal
INO=live charcoal DET loris
egshagtay=en ku museng sa emal
NO=live=OF I charcoal DET loris
'He could not cut the wood.' (He had no axe.)
'He did not cut the wood.'
'A loris can be kept alive with charcoal.'
(It can be fed on charcoal.)
'I an feeding the
loris with charcoal to keep it alive.'
*eghagtayen museng sa emal is not permitted since an inanimate thing may not be the agent of an active verbal construction except as a supplementary agent to a person agent. It may be and commonly is the principal agent of stative constructions with me- and ke-.

The roots of this group have also been found in combination with -an in stative ku kuna constructions. The relationship between these and the previous ku kuna constructions is not clear, but they appear to be different, the -an construction approximating active goal-subject constructions more closely than the other.
amuk si Labu me=dapagzan di iya apuy when DET Labu IFR=near=RF he that fire
```

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

```
'When Labu would cone near to the fire (it would move off).'
'They left him behind.'
> 'I have been paid by hin.'
\begin{tabular}{ll} 
egke=besék=én \(\frac{a}{}\) \\
\(I N R=s p l a s h=R F\) & 'I have been splashed \\
& \begin{tabular}{l} 
on.' (a reduced ku \\
kuna expression)
\end{tabular}
\end{tabular}
egke=tulik=an ku sa i=begay ko kenak 'I would keep count INR=keep.tally=RF I DET NI=give you me of the things you would give me.'
\begin{tabular}{ll} 
ne=legdaw=an kuleman & \begin{tabular}{l} 
sa \\
\(I P R=1\) ight \(=R F\)
\end{tabular}\(\quad\)\begin{tabular}{l} 
"The room has been
\end{tabular} \\
& \begin{tabular}{l} 
illuminated by the \\
pressure lamp.,
\end{tabular}
\end{tabular}
luwang
room.interior

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

me=telu=wan ké daa agdaw
IPR=three=RF we only day
'We will stay only three days (at that place).'

\section*{Group 3 roots}

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

egke=genaw a
INO=cold I
egke=edup a 'I am hot.' (malarial
INO=hot I
egke=sakit sa pigsà
INO=pain DET boil
me=begat sa etaw 'The man is heavy."
ADJ=heavy DET person
(malarial chills)
fever)

```
'I am cold.'
'The boil is painful.'
'The man is heavy.'
\[
\begin{aligned}
& m e=\text { daet iya } \frac{\text { we }}{\text { ADJ }} \\
& \text { bad that }
\end{aligned}
\]
'That is bad.'

The meaning of the prefixes in these expressions is best illustrated by contrast with the -an forms with the same roots.
ne=genaw=an danà di mig=angay dutu Kulaman IPR=cold \(=R F\) by he PA=go to Kulaman
egke=edup=an a't agdaw
\(I N R=\) hot \(=R F \quad I=L I G\) sun
ne=sakit=an ka, Umpit IPR=pain=RF you Unpit
egke=begat=an siya dalesan
INR=heavy=RF that house
egkerdaet=en sa kedungon
INO=bad=OF DET abaca
\({ }^{\text {'He caught malaria }}\)
from going to Kulaman.'
'I am hot from being in the sun.'
'Have you been hurt, Umpit?'
'The house was overweighted (and collapsed).
'The abaca has been knocked down.

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

A similar contrast exists between <-en> goal-subject constructions and at me- constructions. me- indicates spontaneous action; -en, the intervention of a person agent.
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|}
\hline \[
\begin{aligned}
& \text { p=in=adeng } \\
& \text { put. out }=P 0=
\end{aligned}
\] & \[
\frac{\text { ku }}{\text { I }} \frac{\text { pa }}{\text { DET }} \frac{\text { paltaan }}{\text { lantern }}
\] & 'I put out the lentern.' \\
\hline ne=padeng IPO=put. out & \[
\frac{8 a}{\text { DET }} \frac{\text { palitaan }}{\text { lantern }}
\] & 'The lantern has gone out.' \\
\hline \[
\begin{aligned}
& t=i n=e p i \\
& \text { split }=P 0=
\end{aligned}
\] & I \(\frac{\text { ku }}{\text { DET }} \frac{\text { kayu }}{\text { wood }}\) & 'I split the timber.' \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
```

ne=tepi sa kayu

```
'The timber is split.'

The contrast between me- and <-en> does not always parallel the foregoing, for example:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|}
\hline \[
\begin{aligned}
& \begin{array}{l}
\text { s=in=agpeng } \\
\text { close }=P O=
\end{array} \text { I su } \frac{\text { satà }}{D E T} \text { can }
\end{aligned}
\] & 'I closed down the lid of the tin.' \\
\hline \[
\begin{aligned}
& \text { ne=sagpeng si } \\
& \text { IPO=shut }
\end{aligned} \frac{\text { Papi }}{D E T} \frac{\text { Puppy }}{\text { Pup }}
\] & 'Puppy has been shut out.' (from the house) \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

But the me- form refers to the result of the action whereas the -en construction stresses the action.

These at constructions should not be confused with formally similar constructions which are a reduction of ku kuna constructions by the omission of the agent.
```

egke=dilek a
INO=spear I

```
'I have been speared.'
(by someone, the agent being implied)

There are two forms of the prefix me-: me- and ne-. As far as can be determined the difference between these forms is a time factor, which parallels the time factor involved in the active verbal affixes. neindicates a past or achieved state, me \({ }^{-}\)a present or future state.
ke- does not indicate time, but time may be indicated in a+ constructions when ke- combines with the <-ume> affix set:
```

segepalay pa $k=u m=e=d a k e l$ sini tuyang 'In a year's time this
one.year yet $\mathrm{DRV}=\mathrm{FA}=$ __big this dog dog will become very
big.

```
mig=pelaguy sa langit egoh di
PA=flee DET sky time it
mig=ke=hagtaw
PA=DRV=high
'The sky fled away at the time it became very high.'
at constructions are the only constructions in which ke- has been found in combination with -um- and sig-. The stative function of ke- overrules the active function of - und mig- to produce a stative utterance.

\subsection*{1.2.4 Expanded ke- constructions}
ke- has occasionally been found in constructions more expanded than those so far described. These constructions resemble in their complexity active constructions rather than stative. In one utterance, the only one of its kind recorded, ke- is found in combination with the affix ig- to produce a distinctly third-party construction.
\[
\begin{aligned}
& \text { ig=kehidu ku keniko sini ig=begay ku The thing I gave you } \\
& \text { PI=love I you this PI=give } I \text { was to show my } \\
& \text { affection for you.' }
\end{aligned}
\]

This example again stresses the essentially third-party role of the affix set \(\langle\underline{i}->\) and its consistent indication of nonperson subject.

> egke=limun=an ku kelatas sa dawat INR=cover=RF I paper \(\quad\) 'I have covered the DET

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

\subsection*{1.2.5 ku kuna constructions}

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

sini atep mesambi=an libi
this roof IFR=replace=RF libi
egke=hagtay museng sa emal
INO=live charcoal DET loris
egke=ambak kelamag sa kayu
INO=collide wind DET tree
dogo buyu ne=uma't apuy siya dalesan near almost IPO=reach fire the house
langun sini sugudsugud ne=sangkap wayeg all these plains IPO=inundate water
'This roof will be replaced with libi palm.'
'The loris is kept alive with charcoal.'
'The tree is being jostled by the wind.'
'The house was very nearly reached by the fire.'
'All these plains were inundated with water.'

The relationship of the item substituting in agent slot may occasionally be indicated overtly by danà.
ne=pelé a danà keluwen
IPO=wet I by grass
'I was soaked by the (wet) grass.'

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

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


\subsection*{1.3 Verbal question constructions}

Though most questions are expressed in equational form (see sec. 2.5), questions may be verbal constructions. In these the question particles function as close attributes of the open verbal expression, occurring sentence initially and taking as clitics those items normally following the verb.
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|}
\hline nengan di m=angay dini when he FA=go here & & 'When will he come here?' \\
\hline nengan ko \(t=u m=u l u ̀\) when you teach \(=\mathrm{FA}=\) & kenami us & 'When will you teach us.' \\
\hline nengan ko \(h=i n=e m u e d\) when you bite \(=P 0=\) \(\qquad\) & & 'When were you bitten?' \\
\hline \begin{tabular}{l}
kenà ko \(t=i n=e b e k\) \\
place you inject \(=P 0=\)
\end{tabular} & & 'Where were you injected?' \\
\hline \begin{tabular}{l}
maen ko eg=angay dini \\
reason you NA=go here
\end{tabular} & & 'Why did you come here?' \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
ngadan has not been found in verbal constructions.
It should be noted that series 1 <a> pronouns never occur as clitics to the question particles. It seems that the series 2 ku pronouns substitute for the series 1 pronouns in this position.
kena ko tinebek is presumably derived from kenà ka tinebek, ka being the subject of the verbal tinebek.

\subsection*{1.4 Active pe- constructions (causative constructions)}

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

\subsection*{1.4.1 egpe- Constructions}
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline \[
\frac{\text { si }}{D E T} \frac{\text { ema }}{\text { Pather }}
\] & \[
\begin{aligned}
& \text { eg=eked } \\
& \text { NA=dislike }
\end{aligned}
\] & \[
\begin{aligned}
& \text { eg=pe=tebek } \\
& \text { NA=CA=inject }
\end{aligned}
\] & 'Pather dislikes being injected.' (Father refused to be injected.) \\
\hline meeked & a \(\mathrm{eg}=\mathrm{pe}=8 \mathrm{a}\) & a & 'I dislike being \\
\hline FA=dislike & I \(N A=C A=h o\) & & held.' (I avoided being caught.) \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

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

A similar relationship is implied in the following sentences with a single verb. The second party performs the action reflecting back on the subject who initiates the action.
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|}
\hline pe=bulung a kenagda CA=medicine I them & 'I will get them to give me medicine.' (I will get them to medicine me.) \\
\hline eg=peababa a keniko & 'I' 11 get you to \\
\hline NA=CA=carry.on.back I you & carry me. \\
\hline eg=angay a eg=pe=tebek keniko & \({ }^{\prime}\) I am going to get \\
\hline NA=go I NA=CA=inject you & you to inject me. \\
\hline eg=pe=gudgud a keniko & 'I get you to rub me \\
\hline \(\mathrm{NA}=\mathrm{CA}=\) rub. down I you & down. \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

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

\author{
eg=pe=uwit a sulat keniko 'I get you to take a NA=CA=take I letter you \\ pe=kuwa a kayu kenagdi \\ CA=get I wood him
}

In the foregoing sentences the goal obligatorily precedes the performer of the action. The subject initiator becomes the beneficiary of the action. This was confirmed by the language helper, who equated the following two sentences (the second being the command form of a beneficiary -an construction):
pe=kuwa a kayu keniko CA=get I wood you
kuwa=i ko pa aken kayu get \(=\) IMP you PRT me wood
'Get wood for me.'
'Get wood for me.'

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

**1. eg=pe=belabag diyà sebang
NA=CA=straddle at river.mouth

```
2. takà eg=pe=baluk awang dò sa constantly \(N A=C A=\) throw air LOC DET
eabung
porpoise
3. \(e g=p e=h a g t a m\) sa dalit \(N A=C A=h i g h \quad D E T\) eagle
4. eg=pe=belagtay ki diyà me=doo buluh \(N A=C A=1\) ie.over we on \(A D J=\) many floor
'It (the crocodile) straddles the river mouth.'
'The porpoises constantly throw themselves into the air.'
'The eagle lifts itself in flight.'
> 'We stretch ourselves over the numerous floor bearers.
5. eg=pe=batung sa \(\left.\begin{array}{l}\text { emal } \\ N A=C A=l i f t\end{array} \quad \begin{array}{l}\text { DET } \\ \text { loris }\end{array}\right)\)
'The loris hauls itself up.'
6. eg=pe=tuntun sa kopoh
\(N A=C A=l o w e r ~\)
\(D E T\)
spider
'The spider lowers himself (by his thread).'

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

\author{
81 Papi egzpelaway \\ DET Puppy. NA=jump \\ 'Puppy leapt down.' (hurled himself after another dog)
}

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

egpe- constructions may also be formed with stative roots to indicate a state of the subject actively conditioned by the subject as in the following example, which closely parallels the preceding one.
amuk aken mig=pe=daet dutu, endà
if I \(P A=C A=b a d\) there not
meke=angay a dutu
IFA=go I there
'If I had been bad there, I would not go there (for fear of revenge).'

In all the pe- constructions dealt with so far the reflexive element seems to be a common feature. This is not the case in such expressions as:
\begin{tabular}{ll}
\begin{tabular}{l} 
eg=pe=delug a owong \\
\(N A=C A=s l i d e ~ I ~ c a n o e ~\)
\end{tabular} & 'I slide the canoe \\
along.' \\
eg=persawa a sa anak ku & 'I marry my child \\
\(N A=C A=m a r r y ~ I ~ D E T ~ c h i l d ~ m y ~\) & off.'
\end{tabular}

In these cases, especially the first, the action in no way reflects back on the subject. The action implied by the verb root is, however, performed by something or someone as a result of intervention by another initiating party, the subject. If the canoe were to slide spontaneously, the expression would be dumelug sa owong.
pe- also enters into constructions with the affix series <-en>, -an, and \(\langle\underline{1}->\).

With many roots there is a clear distinction of various combinations.
uwit 'bring/take':
function between the
'I'll get you to take a letter to the coast for me.'
'I'll get you to take
some rice to Kaut.'
'I sent salt to Kaut by Mundi.'
diyà si Mundi.
to DET Mundi
kuwa 'get':
eg=pe=kuwa a kayu keniko
\(\mathrm{NA}=\mathrm{CA}=\) get I wood you
eg=pe=kuwa=en ku kuna kayu
\(N A=C A=g e t=0 F\) I you wood
ig=pe=kuwa ku keniko sa felaselait PI=CA=get I you DET torch
' I want you to get wood for me.'
'I'll get you to get wood for me.'
'I got you to get me
the flashlight.'

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

With roots that are transitive in simple actor-subject constructions, <pe- -en> and <ipe-> produce three-party constructions involving an initiating agent, an intermediate third party who performs the action implied by the verb root, and a second party which is the ultimate goal of the action. With en the intermediate party becomes the subject of a transitive expression. With \(\underset{i}{ }\) - the ultimate goal becomes the subject.
-an used with certain roots produces a four-party construction in which the intermediate party performs an action for the benefit of the fourth party.

\subsection*{1.4.2 pe- constructions with <-en>}

With stative roots and roots that are constructions, <-an> produces a simple intermediate party. (Stative roots are constructions with me-, never into ku kuna constructions with me-, including all those roots which function as simple descriptives of noun, either as free roots or prefixed by me-.) The first-party agent performs the action. The second party, which fills the subject slot, bears the same relationship to the verb that the subject of the equivalent simple actor-subject construction or stative construction bears to its verb. If the verb root of the pe- construction is an active root, the subject functions as the performer of the action. If the verb root of the peconstruction is stative, the subject equates with the quality or state indicated by the root. There is no ultimate goal of the action, which is essentially intransitive. In all cases, however, the subject is the goal of the activity of the first-party agent.
'I cut the rattan down line.'
'This rattan is small.'
'They are putting the hens up to roost.'
'The hens will roost.'
'If the rope is blackened, it will not break.'
'That rope is black.' ADJ=black that DEM rope
endà eg=pe=susu=wen di sa anak di, ka not \(N A=C A=s u c k=0\) she DET child her as
magtu pelà eganak
new still NA=born
\(s=u m=u 8 u\)
\(\underline{\text { suck }}=\mathrm{FA}=\)\(\quad\)\begin{tabular}{l} 
sa \\
\(\mathrm{DE} T\)
\end{tabular}\(\frac{\text { anak }}{\text { child }} \frac{\mathrm{di}}{\text { her }}\)
eg=pe=angay=en ku dini lima kedoo etaw \(N O=C A=g o=0 F \quad I\) there five number people
um=angay a dutu dagat do
FA=go I to sea LOC
eg=pe=delug=en ku sa owong
\(\mathrm{NO}=\mathrm{CA}=\mathrm{slide}=0 \mathrm{~F}\) I DET canoe
\(d=u m=e l u g \quad\) sa owong slide \(=F A=\quad\) DET canoe
'Her offspring will suck.'
'I'll send five people here.'
'I am going to the coast.'
'I'11 slide the canoe (down to the sea).'
'The canoe is sliding
(of its own accord).'
<pe- -en> associates most commonly with stative or intransitive active roots to produce simple two-party constructions.
1.4 .3 pe- constructions with <i->
<ipe-> is most commonly associated with roots that are transitive in actor-subject constructions. This produces three-party constructions with an initiator, performer of the action, and ultimate goal. The goal always fills subject slot.

ig=pe=lengon ku eg=pe=kuwa keniko sa
\(\mathrm{PI}=\mathrm{CA}=\mathrm{all} \quad \mathrm{I} \quad \mathrm{NA}=\mathrm{CA}=\) get you DET
lebuk
bamboo
ig=pe=lomò di kenaken Papi ya
PI=CA=feed he me Puppy DET
'She will hand over her necklaces to her young sister.'
'I got you to get all the bamboo (I needed).
'He got me to feed Puppy (during his absence).'
\(\begin{array}{ll}\text { ig=pe=gatuk } & \text { di kenaken } \\ \text { PI=CA=name } & \text { she me }\end{array}\)
'She got me to name it."
duen memdoo \(\quad \frac{k a y u}{} \mathrm{ig=pe=kedan} \mathrm{di} \quad\) 'He got me to move a
there.is ADJ=many wood PI=CA=remove he \(\quad\) lot of wood.'
kenaken
me
i=pe=baba di kenaken sa batà, amuk
\(\mathrm{NI}=\mathrm{CA}=\) carry she me
minild if
FA=wanaw \(\frac{\mathrm{ke}}{\mathrm{We}}\)
'She will give me the baby to carry if we go walking.'

The intermediate performer of the action is not always explicit.
\[
\begin{gathered}
\text { ** endà i=pe=sagbay ku i duu } \\
\text { not NI=CA=borrow } I \text { PRT NEG } \quad \text { borrow it.' }
\end{gathered}
\]
<ipe-> may combine with stative roots. But whereas seqpe- -en> with stative roots always produces a two-party construction with no intermediate performer, <ipe-> generally produces a three-party construction with an implied or explicit intermediate performer of the action.
\[
\begin{aligned}
& \mathrm{i}=\mathrm{pe=}=\mathrm{diisek} \text { ku kenagdi sa belagen } \\
& N I=C A=1 i t t l e \quad I \quad \text { him } \quad \text { 'I'll get him to cut } \\
& \text { rattan }
\end{aligned} \quad \text { the rattan down fine.' }
\]
<ipe-> may, however, combine with a stative root to produce a two-party construction with no intermediate party. Only one example of this type has been found:
endà ig=pe=sugat di diyà sidò ig=sekeg not \(P I=C A=s t r i k e ~ i t ~ t o ~ t h a t ~ b r a c e ~\)
'It (the nail) was not driven into the brace.'

Where <-en> combines with a stative root, the subject of the <pe- -en> construction equates with the root. In the preceding <ipe-> example it is the nonsubject which equates with the root, as seen from the following usage of the root sugat:
\[
\begin{aligned}
& \text { egatilò } \frac{a}{a} \text {, ani endà mexsugat } \frac{a}{I} \quad \begin{array}{l}
\text { 'I dodge so that } I \\
N A=\text { dodge } \\
I \\
\text { so.that not } I P O=s t r i k e ~
\end{array} \quad \text { will not be hit.' }
\end{aligned}
\]
<ipe-> has also been found (but only occasionally) with intransitive active roots to produce two-party constructions. A distinction can again be made between <pe- -en> and <ipe-> two-party constructions. In the former the subject becomes the actor with reference to the verb root. With the latter the subject may not function as the actor of the same root used in simple actor-subject constructions.
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|}
\hline \(g=p e=1\) y \({ }^{\text {g }}\) & di sa belad di & He put his hands \\
\hline & he DET hands his & behind his back.' \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
ig=pe=tugkolò ku diyà iyug i Papi sa 'You perched the form
PI=CA=perch you on back DET Puppy DET
\({ }^{\prime}\) He put his hands behind his back.'
bauku
form
liyu 'go behind/outside' and tugkolo 'to perch (on a drum, etc.)' require active subjects when used in simple actor-subject constructions.

As with simple active constructions <i-> may be used with pe- to indicate inanimate instrument-subject.


\section*{1.4 .4 pe- constructions with -an}

While <pe- -an> may enter into constructions indicating beneficiarysubject, it is more commonly found in constructions which appear to be two-party goal-subject with no intermediate actor. The construction may, however, indicate location, either in the subject or by implication in the total sentence structure.

Simple goal-subject
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|}
\hline \[
\begin{aligned}
& \text { eg=petuyuh=an di kiyu } \\
& N R=\text { watch=RF he you }
\end{aligned}
\] & 'It (the snake) is keeping you under observation. \\
\hline eg=pe=duwa=an ku eg=saba sa bubun ku & 'I an holding my \\
\hline \(N R=C A=t w o=R F\) I \(N A=\) hold DET thigh my & thigh with both hands.' \\
\hline  & 'Balut was adopted by \\
\hline \(\underline{C A}=P R=\) _orphan=RF DET Malayu Balut DET & Malayu.' \\
\hline eg=pe=unut=an da siya timul & 'They are following \\
\hline \(N \mathrm{R}=\mathrm{CA}=\) accompany \(=\mathrm{RF}\) they the south.wind & up the south wind. (in the canoe) \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
Question: \begin{tabular}{l} 
kedu=wan ini kudà \\
from=FR this horse
\end{tabular}

Reply: **p=in=e=sunggud=an i \(\mathrm{CA}=\mathrm{PR}=\) ___bride.price \(=\) RF \(\quad \mathrm{DET}\)

Mama diyà si Gotun
Mama for DET Gotun
eg=pe=legdawzan ku sini luwang
\(\mathrm{NR}=\mathrm{CA}=1 \mathrm{lgh} \mathrm{t}=\mathrm{RF}\) I this roon

Location implied (-an indicating location)
Question: kenà i Palul

Reply: **p=in=e=sugu=an sidd amelikano ** \(P R=C A=\quad=o r d e r=R F\) that Anerican
'Where did this horse come from?'
'It was obtained as a bride price item by Mama for Gotun (his daughter).'
'I'll light up the room.'
'Where is Palul?'
'He has just been told to come here by the American.'
'I married my sister off at Melatunol.'
<pe- an> may also combine with stative roots to produce two-party goal-subject constructions.

81 Mali, \(p=i n=e=p o k o=n\) di sa lisen 'Marie shortened the DET Marie \(P R=C A=\quad=\) short \(=R F\) she \(D E T\) leg trouser legs.'
seluwel
trouser

\subsection*{1.4.5 Sumary of pe- constructions}
pe- functions for the most part to produce three-party constructions but may comonly be used with stative or intransitive roots to produce transitive constructions.

The active affixes with which pe- combines behave in much the same way as they do in simple active constructions. The non-actor-subject affix sets <-en>, <i->, and -an most commonly indicate goal-subject. This parallels the situation in simple active constructions where <-en> most comonly
indicates goal-subject, though <i-> especially, and <-an> less commonly, may substitute for <-en> to indicate goal-subject.
pe- goal-subject constructions with <-en> differ from goal constructions with <i->. This difference again parallels the situation in simple active constructions, where <-en> generally indicates two-party constructions, and \(\langle\underline{i}>\) (for the most part) three-party goal-subject constructions.

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

\section*{\(1.5 \underline{b}\) and \(p\) class verbs}

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

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

```

Roots with Initial do not take the infix -
mamà 'betel nut mixture'
manà -un- (actor-subject form) 'to chew betel nut'
The \(\underline{b}\) and \(p\) forms of the root indicate command and occur with affixes other than -um-.
mayad a bayad ka
bayadan ku kuna
ibegay ku sa kawal egpanaen di sa ubal
'I will pay ...'
'Pay up!'
'I'll pay you.'
'I'll give the shirt.'
'He shot a monkey.'

Roots with initial \(h\) may sometimes behave the same way:
angayen ku humaa sa manuk ---> angayen ku maa sa manuk
go I see DET chicken

\subsection*{1.6 Reduced verbal constructions}

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


Similar abbreviations occur with ke- and me- constructions.
\[
\begin{aligned}
& \text { egke=kuwa=an } \frac{a}{I} \\
& \text { INR=get=RF }
\end{aligned}
\]
'I have been taken from.'

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

egke=mala=an $\quad$ a $e g=h a a$ keniko
INR=embarrass=RF I NA=see you
egke=bayat a eg=haa keniko
INO=laugh I NA=see you
egke=lepay a eg=haa keniko
INO=see=first I NA=see you

```
'I am embarrassed at being seen by you.'
'I an forced to laugh when I watch you.'
'I have seen you for the first time.'
(You are new to me.)

Not all a keniko constructions of the ne- and ke- + -an type can be interpreted as reductions, at least as reductions in which the implied second verb is eghaa or one of its forms. Further investigation may show that some other verb is implied.
egkemagtu=an a eg=edà implanu
INR=new=RF I NA=ride plane
'Flying in a plane would be a novel experience for me.' (while flying on a plane)

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

\subsection*{1.7 Commands}

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

\subsection*{1.7.1 Actor-subject commands}

Actor-subject commands derived from simple active constructions consist of the verb root and the series 1 second-person pronoun singular or plural.
angay ka
go
you
you
lengag ka 'Look up!'
look.up you
gaté ka dé
hurry you PRT
na, likù ka dé
now, go.home you PRT
temeg ka apuy
'Hurry up!'
light you fire
luwit yu pa siya wé 'Strip those (poles).'
bark you PRT those DEM
egpe- constructions in command form consist of the root plus pe- and the series 1 second-person pronoun.
\(\begin{array}{lll}\text { pe=siyapat } \\ \text { CA=fast } & \text { ka } & \text { dé } \\ \text { you } & \text { PRT }\end{array}\)
'Hurry up (with what you are doing).'

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

This is identical with the simple narrative construction 'you are fast.' The form tétéel ka! 'hurry up!' was recorded once under circumstances that suggested identity with metéel ka de.
1.7.2 Goal-subject commands

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

```

me=téél ka dé
ADJ=fast you PRT
ADJ=fast you PRT

```
'Hurry up!'

\subsection*{1.7.3 <-i> commands}

No distinction is made between commands derived from -an and <i-> non-actor-subject constructions.
\begin{tabular}{ll}
\begin{tabular}{l} 
begay=i ko aken \\
give=IMP you me
\end{tabular} & 'Give (something) to \\
sini \(\frac{\text { kawal }}{}\)\begin{tabular}{l} 
ko, begay=i ko kenaken
\end{tabular} & 'This shirt of yours,
\end{tabular}

The first of the preceding two sentences is a third-party recipientsubject construction, corresponding to such a construction as the following in narrative:
\[
\begin{array}{lllll}
\text { begay=an ku gatas } & \text { sa } & \text { miyong } \\
\text { give=FR I milk } & \text { DET } & \text { cat }
\end{array}
\]
'I’ll give milk to the cat.'

The second sentence is a goal-subject construction, corresponding to such a narrative sentence as:
\begin{tabular}{ll} 
Duen ma i=begay ku si Atudan, & 'I will give some- \\
there.is also NI=give I DET Atudan & \begin{tabular}{l} 
thing to Atudan, \\
\end{tabular}
\end{tabular}
kamasita
shirt
<igpe-> and egpe- -an narrative constructions also lose their formal identity in command constructions, both becoming pe- -i constructions.
```

**pe=batas=i ko sa wayeg 'Carry (it) over the
CA=cross=IMP you DET river
$\mathrm{i}=\mathrm{pe}=$ batas ku sa tuyang
$\mathrm{NI}=\mathrm{CA}=$ cross I DET dog
eg=pe=uwit=an ku kuna bulung
NR=CA=bring=RF I you medicine
pe=uwit=i ko aken bulung diyà si
CA=bring=IMP you me medicine to DET

```
'Carry (it) over the river.'
'I will carry the dog over the river.'
'I will send medicine to you.'
'Send me the medicine by Umpit.'
```

Umpit
Umpit

```
1.7.4 The root uma in commands

The stative root una gives interesting comand forms:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline \[
\begin{aligned}
& \text { in=uma } k \\
& \text { PO=reach }
\end{aligned}
\] &  & \begin{tabular}{l}
aken \\
me
\end{tabular} & \begin{tabular}{l}
dagat \\
sea
\end{tabular} & dò
LOC & & 'Catch me up at the sea!' \\
\hline \[
\begin{gathered}
* * \text { in }=\text { una } \\
P 0=\text { reach }
\end{gathered}
\] &  & kawà reach. & & & & 'Reach up for it.' \\
\hline \[
\begin{aligned}
& \text { ** ne }=\text { uma } \\
& \text { IPO }=\text { reach }
\end{aligned}
\] & ko you & pa PRT & & & & 'Reachl' \\
\hline \[
\begin{aligned}
& \text { ne=una } \\
& \text { IPO=reach }
\end{aligned}
\] & ko you & pa PRT & \begin{tabular}{l}
Undia \\
Mundi
\end{tabular} & duu, DET & Umpit Umpit & 'Umpit, catch up to Mundi!' \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

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

Order: ne=uma ko pa Undia Umpit 'Umpit, catch up INO=reach you PRT Mundi Umpit to Mundi.

Reply: m=ikagi Umpit, nexuma ku doo PA=say Umpit INO=reach I indeed
"Umpit will say, "Indeed, I will catch up to him."

\subsection*{1.7.5 Double commands}

Double commands are not common, but their existence is confirmed by the following examples:
\begin{tabular}{ll} 
** uwit ko angay dini & 'Bring (it) here!' \\
bring you go here & \\
\begin{tabular}{ll} 
angay ko temag=i sa apuy \\
go you light=IMP & DET \(\frac{\text { fire }}{}\)
\end{tabular}\(\quad\)\begin{tabular}{l} 
Go and light up the
\end{tabular}
\end{tabular}

\subsection*{1.7.6 Reduced commands}

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

bayad=an a manuk, Umpit 'Pay me with a
pay=FR me chicken Umpit
angat=an a pelà
wait=FR me still

```
'Pay me with a
chicken, Umpit.
'Wait a while for me.'

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

The usual comand forms with these roots are:
\begin{tabular}{ll}
\begin{tabular}{l} 
bayad=i ko aken manuk, Umpit \\
pay=IMP you me chicken Umpit
\end{tabular} & \begin{tabular}{l} 
'Pay me with a chick- \\
en, Umpit.'
\end{tabular} \\
\begin{tabular}{ll} 
angat \(=i\) ko pelà aken & 'Wait a while for me.' \\
wait \(=I M P\) you still me
\end{tabular}
\end{tabular}

The parallel statement forms of the expressions are:
```

eg=bayad=an ko aken manuk
NR=pay=FR you me chicken
wait=FR you still me

```
angat=an ko pelà aken 'You will wait awhile
'You will pay me for the chicken.'
'You will wait awhile for me.'

It will be seen that the -an affix of these unusual commands is retained from the statement construction.

\subsection*{1.8 External relationship}

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

    ne=ubus 
    ne=ubus 
    meke=hilu sidò dalem di, sobuy
    IFA=intoxicate the inside its sobuy
    endà mi=iyap di eg=pe=tulù, sa sawa ku
    not IFO=want she NA=CA=teach DET wife my
    'I have finished.'
'The flesh of the sobuy is intoxicating.'
'My wife, she does not want to be taught.'
duen ma busaw wa daya, bayi 'There is a female There.is also spirit DET there woman

```
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|}
\hline \[
\frac{\text { duen }}{\text { there.is also }}
\] & i=begay ku si Atudan, NI=give I DET Atudan & 'I will give something to Atudan, namely, a shirt.' \\
\hline \multicolumn{3}{|l|}{\begin{tabular}{l}
kamasita \\
shirt
\end{tabular}} \\
\hline \[
\begin{aligned}
& l=\text { in=ohot } \\
& \text { follow=PO }=
\end{aligned}
\] & di Igid da, sa tuyang he Igid DET DET dog & 'The dog followed Igid.' \\
\hline aken, endà due I not the & \begin{tabular}{l}
\(t=u m=u l u ̀\) \\
teach \(=P A=\) \\
kenaken
\(\qquad\) me
\end{tabular} & 'There is no one to teach me.' \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

diyà kenagdi
to him

A structurally "external" substantive may stand within the sentence:
\begin{tabular}{ll} 
amuk endà me=legà di, ludeng, & 'If the taro is not \\
if not \(I P O=\) cook & it taro \\
cooked, it will cause
\end{tabular}

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


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

amuk duwa ké, si Sida, mi=iyap a doo
if two we DET Sida IPO=like I

```
si etom, meke=ipanaw da dé
DET Tom IPA=travel they PRT
'If there are two of us (Sida and I), I would like (to go).'
'They have gone, Tom among them.'

\section*{2. Sentence-Forming Equational Constructions}

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

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

However, when one of the nuclear immediate constituents is a time or location expression, difficulty arises. If such an expression is interpreted as an open expression, the total construction is verbal. If the time or location expression is identified as an object expression, the construction 18 equational. (See secs. 2.3 and 2.4 for examples.)
2.1 Objectified expression --> <--- objectified expression
bébé di, aken
grandmother his I
si kuna, épé di
DET you master his
iya ke=sabà, iya wé
that DRV=hold that DEM
épé di tuyang, iya wé
master his dog that DEM
kesalaan, ini i
fine this DEM
ini, ke=dineg ku, umzukit
this DRV=hear my FA=pass.thru place DET
Ubing
Ubing
'I an his grandmother.'
'You are his master.'
'That is the may to bold it."
'Who is the omer of this dog?'

This is the fine (for the crime).'
'This is what I heard; it will pass through Ubing's place.'
2.2 Objectified Expression ---> <-- Series 5 Poseessive Pronoun hagdi iya we kudà
"That is his horse.'
his that DEM horse
naken ini \(i\)
mine this DRM
'This is mine.'
-
2.3 Equational constructions with time expression
lima agdaw ke=bayad ku sini kawal
five day \(. D R V=p a y\) this shirt
pila gebulan sa ke=tebow duma ko 'How many months to how.many month DET DRV=arrive friend you
dini
here
'It will take me five days to pay for this shirt.' the arrival of your friend here?'
2.4 Equational constructions with location expression dahedò dalesan emà ku there house father my
'There is the house of my father.'

Such words as dahedd 'there (at a distance)', dahiya, daya 'there (no particular distance)', and dahini, dini 'here' seem to function as objectified expressions in such contexts as the preceding. The roots of these words, edò, iya, and ini respectively, when used in typical stative verbal constructions are prefixed by ka- (possibly a variant of ke-). Examples:
\[
\begin{aligned}
& \text { kaini a } \text { 'I'm here.' } \\
& \text { **kaedó } \frac{\text { 'There it is.' }}{} \quad \begin{array}{l}
\text { 'There }
\end{array},
\end{aligned}
\]

However, the expressions dini and dava have been found as the nuclear open expression of verbal utterances.

'There they were, Telaki among them.'

Simple time expressions have also been found functioning as nuclear open expressions.
sekepadiyan ka dutu kenà ko dò, one.week you to place your LOC
nematay inay ku
IPO=die mother my
'You had been gone one week on your way home when my mother died.'

It may therefore be best to interpret all expressions with time or location indicators as a central immediate constituent, that is, as verbal expressions rather than as equational.

The subject substantive of equational constructions may precede or follow its complementary nuclear immediate constituent in the clause or sentence. If it is a pronoun, it is usually preceded by si in sentenceinitial position. si does not seen to be used if the pronoun occurs sentence finally. The forms ini 'this' or iya 'that' may substitute in subject slot. If they occupy sentence- or clause-final position, they are usually followed by \(\underline{i}\) or wé respectively, for example, ini \(\underline{i}\) iya wé. The complementary nuclear immediate constituent often stands without an objectifying expression, but may sometimes be preceded by the objectifier iya.
iya used as an objectifier with either the subject or nonsubject IC may be expanded to iya wé.

\subsection*{2.5 Questions}

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

Questions are introduced by nengan 'when', kenà 'where', ngadan 'what', enù 'how', maen 'why'.
nengan ke=tulù ko kenami eg=sulat
when \(\quad \begin{aligned} & \text { kRV=teach you us } \\ & N A=w r i t e\end{aligned}\)
 when \(D R V=g o\) you to that \(N A=s i c k\)
enù ke=kuwa ko uton
how DRV=get you fish
ngadan bael=an ko ya
what do \(=\) FR you PRT
agulé un=igsà, maen ko dini, guwaen i then PA=ask reason you here said DET
> 'When are you going to start teaching us to write?' (When is your teaching us to write?)

'When are you going to the sick person?'
'How do you catch fish?' (How is your catching fish?)
'What are you doing?'
kelupenit
small.bat
ke- in the above expressions converts an open verbal expression into an objectified expression.
kenà ko dé \(\quad\) 'Where are you?'
place you PRT

This last sentence is particularly interesting. If it is regarded as a complete sentence consisting of two interdependently related nuclear immediate constituents, the primary break in the sentence is made between ko and de. The structure can be indicated as follows:
kenà ko ---> <--- dé
The particle dé substitutes as a predicate item interdependently related to the other imediate constituent kenà ko. The break might, however, occur between kenà and ko:
kenà ---> <--- ko dé

Or, it might occur between kenà ko dé and a zero implied location:
\[
+---><--- \text { kenà ko dé }
\]

The first interpretation is the most obvious. The occurrence of de might suggest that kenà ko is an open expression and the whole sentence verbal rather than equational.

Equational constructions are also formed without such explicit question indicators as nengan, ngadan, etc. The following sentences are used with great frequency as a comon form of greeting. They resemble the ngadan-type questions.
1. \(\begin{array}{ll}\text { angay } & \text { ko } \\ \text { go=FR } & \text { you } \\ \text { gat }\end{array}\)
2. kedu=wan ko ya
from=RR you PRT
'Where are you going?'
'Where are you from?'

The next four sentences are clearly equational constructions. One of the nuclear objectified expressions in each case is the question indicator ngadan. In examples 3 and 5 the complementary nuclear IC is an objectified open expression in which the objectifying role of the suffix -an is reinforced by the objectifying postclitic particle ya. In example 4 the complementary IC is the pronominal expression iya we. In example 6 iya we functions as an objectifying lateral of the expression kijyapan. Comparison of these examples with 1 and 2 shows that the postclitic ya is merely a displaced lateral objectifier.
\[
\begin{aligned}
& \text { 3. ngadan bael=an ko ya } \\
& \text { what doaPR you PRT }
\end{aligned} \begin{aligned}
& \text { 'What are you doing } \\
& \text { (making)?' }
\end{aligned}
\]
4. ngadan lya wé what that DEM
5. ngadan \(k i=i y a p=a n ~ k o ~ y a ~\) what DRV-want=RF you PRT
6. ngadan iya wé \(k i=i y a p=a n ~ k o\) what that DEM DRV=want-RF you
'What is that?'
'What do you ment?'
'What do you want?'

The role of ya in the first two of the preceding sentences is different. If they follom the pattern of the other sentences, two nuclear ICs must be identified. Several interprotations may be suggested. angayan ko ya and keduwan ko ya may be regarded as nuclear objectified eapressions and the complementary IC a zero implied location, or perthaps the question Intonation contour. It seems, however, that the primary break is between ya on the one hand and the rest of the senteace on the other. This mould elevate ya to the status of a nuclear IC.

This parallels the interpretation of kenk ko de in mhich a mormally lateral item, de, is elevated to nuclear status.

\subsection*{2.6 Verb <--- verb constructions}

Manner expansions equivalent to the Bnglish I ran guickly do not follow the expected pattern of verb <--- manner descriptive. The construction seems rather to be double verbal form.
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|}
\hline me=teel
ADJ=fast
a
egA=pelaguy & 'I rua fast.' \\
\hline \begin{tabular}{l}
me=lugay a eg=dineg bobtail \\
[FO=long I NA=heer bobtall
\end{tabular} & 'I have beard "bebtail" for a loag time nom.' (Our bouse boy kept asking ws what we moent by the mord.) \\
\hline enda iseg ki egpeke-tudug not very we IMA=eleep & 'We are not able to sleep so mell.' \\
\hline tibubu da pela eg-kaen still they still ma-eat & 'They are still eating.' \\
\hline \[
\begin{aligned}
& \text { muna ulu } \frac{\text { di }}{} \text { ergulu } \\
& \text { firat head he NA=climb. down }
\end{aligned}
\] & 'He climbe dam heod firet.' \\
\hline \[
\begin{aligned}
& \text { buyu a di egntobow } \\
& \text { almogt I PRT MA-arrive }
\end{aligned}
\] & 'I heve neerly arrived.' \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

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

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


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

The verb <--- verb construction is also apparent in such an expression as:
ini a pelà eg=tebow
'I have just arrived.'
this \(\bar{I}\) just \(N A=a r r i v e\)

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

There is another such construction in which a stative verb normally used intransitively becomes the nuclear verb of a transitive construction.
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|}
\hline ne=lipeng a egruwit manuk IPO=forget I NA=bring hen & 'I forgot to bring the hen.' \\
\hline mi=iyap a eg=kuwa timus & 'I want to get some \\
\hline IPO=want I \(\mathrm{NA}=\) get salt & salt. \\
\hline me=tiig ka dé eg=ikagi Menubù & 'You know how to \\
\hline IPO=know you PRT NA=speak Manobo & speak Manobo \\
\hline amuk endà me=gaga ku duu maitiyalà & 'if I am not able to \\
\hline if not IPO=able I NEG FA=dispute & dispute the matter' \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

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

egaangaymen di eg=balbal sa anak di 'He is going to beat
NO=go=OF he NA=beat DET child his his child.'

```


With few exceptions the second eg- verb takes the actor-subject affix series -un-.

Where the total construction is non-actor-subject the first verb takes the non-actor-subject inflection and the second takes <-un-> actor-subject inflection.
in=angay ku eg=haa kuna
\(P O=g o \quad I \quad N A=s e e\) you
eg=teleseb=en di eg=buung siya manuk 'He hurled a stone to NO=flush. out \(=O\) he \(N A=\) throw the hen
ig=pe=lengon ku eg=pe=kuwa keniko sa
\(P I=C A=a l l\) I \(N A=C A=g e t\) you \(D E T\)
lebuk
banboo
'I went to look for you.' flush out the hen.'
'I got you to get all the banboo for me.'
\[
\begin{aligned}
* * & \text { legayday }=\text { en ké pelà } t=u m=e l a l a g \\
& \text { complete }=F 0 \text { we just roof.cross }=F A=
\end{aligned} \quad \begin{array}{ll}
\text { "We will soon finish }
\end{array}
\]

The object of the double verb combination most commonly follows the second verb, but it may stand between the two verbs.
\begin{tabular}{lll} 
eg=taka=an & da \(\quad\) kita eg=suntuk \\
\(N R=f r e q u e n t=R F\) & they & us \\
\(N A=s t r i k e ~\) & They (the Moros)
\end{tabular}

Sentences have been recorded in which the first verb is stative and the second a non-actor-subject active verb. In most cases such constructions have been intransitive.
me=tegas pelawà eg=hugut=en sa badung ADJ=hard still NO=withdraw=OR DET bolo
'The bolo is still a bit hard to withdraw (from the sbeath).'
endà mi=iyap di eg=tulu=en, sa sawa ku not IFO=want she NO=teach=OF DET wife my

\footnotetext{
'My wife does not want to be taught.'
}
```

**me=ubus t=in=adtad, egrdalem=en kuden 'When it has finished
IPO=finish cut.up=PO=_ NO=into=OR pot
beting cut np, it will
be put in the pot.'

```

Multiple open expression constructions have been recorded. for exanple:
```

endz iseg ka me=siyapat eg=sulat 'You are not so fast
not very you ADJ=fast NA=write
kagi='t Menubù
language=LIG Manobo

```
2.7 Double verb constructions with different actors

Verb <--- verb constructions with different actors occur, but they are infrequent.
eg=unung=unung=an ku kuna eg=sulat 'I an matching you NR=watch=watch=RE I you NA=write write.'

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


\subsection*{2.8 Existential duen}
duen 'there is .../he has ...' is a very commonly used naclear open ex-
 is characteristic of this expression that the associated nuclear substantive is never marked by a <sa> class objectifying particle. It may occasionally be marked by a reduced form of the objectifying particle ini:
```

yak duen ini kawal amuk not there.is this shirt if

```

There moald not be this shirt if....'

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

'Do you have a wife?'
'Do you still have any matches?'
'There is none.'
'I'1l get another nail again.' (He had lost his thumb nail.)
'He got it again.' (a yaws infection)
'See if there is anyone with sweet potato.'
'Is there anything you called me about, that you want me to get?'

Expressions headed by duen very comonly substitute for simple substantives.
endà duen in=uwit ku me=begat
not there.is \(\mathrm{PO}=\) bring I ADJ=heavy
ini goh endà pa duen ig=begay di this time not yet there.is \(\mathrm{PI}=\mathrm{give}\) he
'I brought nothing heavy.'
'Up to now he has given me nothing.'
kenak
me

'If someone chops up (a person) he will be imprisoned.'
```

duen mextig eg=kuwa't ungéh
there is IFO=know NA=get rat

```


\section*{3. Negation}

There are three negative expressions in Cotabato Manobo: endà yak, and beken. A possible fourth is yaka, which may be related to yak.
beken is used as a negative of substantives.
amuk beken \(\frac{\text { kuna }}{\text { if }}\)...
if not you
amuk dakel, beken duu langus
if big not NEG praying.mantis
beken \(m\) =iling sak si Polok lobing not PA=like the DET Polok dress
'If it had not been
for you ...'
'If it is large, it is not a praying mantis.'
'Not one like Polok's dress.'
endà is a negative of verbal expressions. In the great majority of sentences endà immediately precedes the verb.
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|}
\hline \begin{tabular}{l}
endà \\
not
\end{tabular} & ni=iyap a eg=ugpà diyà keniko IPO=want I NA=stay with you & 'I do not want to stay with you.' \\
\hline amuk & endà unow=en yu duu aken & 'If you do not call \\
\hline if & not call=pO you NEG me & me \\
\hline endà & meke=layang di ka pulung tukéey & 'It cannot fly \\
\hline not & IFA=fly it as very little & because it is very \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
endà sometimes functions as a close attribute of the open verbal expression. In such cases it precedes the verb and is followed by the <de> particle, which normally follows the open expression. It is not followed by the pronouns clitic to the verb. This is particularly common with the open expression duen 'there is'.
```

endà dé duen di 'There is none.'
not PRT there.is it

```

'We will not come upstairs tomorrow.'
'Up to now he has given me nothing.'
kenak
me
**endà pa inemen=an ko duu
not yet drink=RF you NEG
'You have not yet drunk fros it.'
endà is distinguished from all other verb attributes by the unusual deviation from the norm when the subject of the verb expression is the third person singular pronoun. In all other constructions this pronoun is a zero feature. With endè the third person singular forn di of series 2 nonsubject pronouns is substituted immediately following the nuclear open expression.
endà pa iseg di me=doo neke=sunggud not yet very it ADJ=many IPI=bride.price
endà egpeke=hilu di , bugan
not INA=poison it bugan
endà dé duen di
not PRT there.is it
ani endà mexutuh=an di
so. that not \(I P R=s t a m p=R F\) it
simag endà pa \(t=u m=u d a k \quad\) di katilà
tomorrow not yet plant \(=F A=\) ___ he s.potato
'Not so very many bride price items were handed over.'
'Bugan is not poisonous.'
'There is none.'
'... so that it will not be stamped on.'
'He will not plant sweet potato tomorrow.'
yak is used as a strong negative of verbal expressions. It occupies a position imediately preceding the verb.
amuk endà unow=en yu duu aken, yak if not call=FO you NEG me not
um=angay a dini
FA=go I here
yak duen ini kawal anuk beken kedu not there.is this shirt if not from
'If you do not call me, I will not come here.'
'I would have no shirt but for you.'
keniko
you
yak \(k=u m=e=l a n i \quad\) kunul ko ya, amuk not \(D R V=F A=\ldots=8 m o o t h\) skin your \(D E T\) if
duen bugis
there.is skin.disease
```

yak t=um=udug sa batà ... The child will not
not sleep=PA=

```
\(\qquad\)
``` DET child
```

'Your skin mould not be smooth if you had skin disease.'

In at least two of the preceding examples yak functions as a conditional negative.
yak has mostly been found with actor-subject constructions. It has been found once with a non-actor-subject construction:

```
yak l=in=enga=an i Papi sa usa 'Puppy would not
not release=PR=___RF DET Puppy DET animal release his hold on
    the animal.'
ig=hemued
PI=bite
```

yaka is of ten used in isolation as a general negative command, "Don't do it." Also it is of ten used, in cases of real urgency, in a rapidly repeated expansion, yaka yaka yaka.

With negative commands the full form is typically as follows:

| yaka egrenaw kenak | 'Don't wake me up |
| :--- | :--- |
| not $N A=$ wake me |  |
| yaka pa egaangay ya dini simag |  |
| not yet $N A=g o \quad$ NBG here tomorrow |  |

In normal speech, however, there is the usual elision between the two contiguous vowels resulting in the following form:

> yaka eg-enaw kenak ---> yagenaw kenak

A clitic \{ya\} is frequently postposed to the verbs of negative commands.

| yag=angay ya dutu not=go NEG there | 'Don't go there.' |
| :---: | :---: |
| $\begin{aligned} & \text { yag=gemen na } \\ & \text { not=laugh NEG } \end{aligned}$ | 'stop laughing.' (Don't laugh.) |
| $\begin{array}{ll} \text { yag=sinegaw } & \text { wa } \\ \text { not }=\text { cry } & \text { NEG } \end{array}$ | 'Don't cry.' |

On the basis of a rather limited number of examples it would seem that negations of goal-focus commands are indicated by the negative form yoko. If this is so, it is almost certain that yaka and yoko may be broken down into two units with vowel harmony between the vowel of the negative morpheme ya- and the vowel of the particular pronoun used, ka actor-subject or ko goal-subject. ${ }^{7}$
4. Non-Sentence-Forming Constructions

### 4.1 Attribution of Nouns

Constitutes consisting of noun head words with lateral attributes that are open expressions are not very common.

There are two principal forms of attribution. In the first the descriptive (usually a me- expression but occasionally a free root such as dakel 'big') precedes the noun. If there is an associated objectifying particle, the descriptive occurs between it and the noun.
un=angay da dé dutu sidò me=diyù
FA=go they PRT to that ADJ=distant
tanà
land

There is no contrast between me- and ne- open expressions in this slot. Only me- expressions may function as descriptives of nouns.

A few words, notably langun 'all', may precede the objectifying particle, though it may also substitute in the same slot as me- expressions.
'They are going to a distant place.'

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { langun sini sugudsugud ne=sangkap wayeg } \\
& \text { all All these plains } \\
& \text { these } \frac{\text { Alains }}{\text { IPO=inundate water were inundated with }} \\
& \text { water. }
\end{aligned}
$$

In the second type of noun attribution, the open expression follows the noun and is separated from it by a slight pause.

| $k=u m=u w a$ <br> get $=P A=$$\quad \frac{\text { a tamuk, lima }}{\text { I }}$ items five | 'I will get five |
| :--- | :--- |
| trade items.' |  |

Noun expressions attributive to other nouns (other than possessive nouns) may occasionally substitute in the same slot as me- type attributes.
apiya me=bau sak diyà béleng ko
even IPO=healed the on

cheek your $\quad$| 'Even if the yaws on |
| :--- |
| your cheeks is healed, |
| come here tonorrow.' |

katel mangay ka doo dahini simag
yaws $\quad$ yogo $\quad$ here tomorrow

### 4.2 Possession

### 4.2.1 Pronominal possession

Pronominal possession may be indicated by either of two sets of pronouns. The most commonly used set has already been identified as series 2 <ku> pronouns lateral to verbs in non-actor-subject constructions. This clitic pronoun series always immediately follows its substantive head word.


Possession may also be indicated by a series of possessive pronouns referred to as series 5 <naken> pronouns.

## SERIES 5 PRONOUNS <naken>

|  | Singular <br> 1st person <br> 2nd person | naken <br> 3rd person |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| niko | nita (incl); nagi (excl) |  |
| hagdi | niyu | hagda |

These pronouns are free roots and occur most comonly with substantives of equational or stative verbal constructions. The possessed IC generally follows the open expression or nonpossessed complementary IC.
labi sak naken ke=sakit half the my DRV=pain
mexdiyù niko dalesan ADJ=distant your house
me=doo naken
ADJ=many my $\frac{\mathrm{eg}=\mathrm{bael}=\mathrm{an}}{\mathrm{NR}=\text { make }=R \mathrm{R}}$

Bagobo, hagdi sawa
Bagobo his wife

'It only hurts half as much as my pain.'
'Your house is a long way off.'
'I have made many things.'
'His wife is a Bagobo.'
'They went to a
distant place.

The series 5 pronoun invariably precedes the head noun. In most constructions of the above type the possessed expression is not marked by a sa objectifying particle. Examples have been recorded in which the objectifying particle iya or the particle $i$ stands between the possessive pronoun and its head word.

| me=diyù naken 1 kedu=wan | 'I come from a |
| :---: | :---: |
| ADJ=distant my PRT from=PR | distant place.' |
| $\begin{aligned} & \text { angay }=e n \text { ta nami } \\ & \text { go }=F 0 \end{aligned} \text { we } \frac{\text { iya }}{\text { our }} \frac{\text { tebay }}{\text { sister }}$ | 'We will go and get our sister (if the bride price is not paid).' |
|  | 'It (rabbit) makes good eating.' |
| niko iya kenà, ostelaliya your that place Australia | 'Australia is your country. |

### 4.2.2 Noun possession

Possession of one noun by another is indicated by juxtaposition of the two nouns, the nuclear noun taking first position. Where the lateral possessing noun is a person, the relationship is further indicated by the particle 1 between the two nouns.
$t=i n=e b e k \quad d i$ sa inay $i$ Limbey 'She injected
inject $=P O=$ she DET mother of Limbey Limbey's mother.'

When both are nonperson substantives and the final syllable of the first noun is open, the particle $t$ occurs as a clitic to this noun.
balu't ulu 'hair of head' balu 'hair'
kutu't miyong 'fleas of the cat' kutu 'flea' flea cat

The clitic $t$ following a consonant has been observed only once. In this case, it was following 1 in the expression epol $t$ belad 'tattoo of the arm'. The $t$ is, however, of ten onitted with this expression.

There is an interesting possessive construction in which personal possession is indicated in a manner very siailar to the series 5 pronoun possession. The possessing person occurs between the objectifying particle and the nuclear possessed substantive and takes the personal objectifying particle si:
beken mailing sak si Polok lobing
not FA=like the DET Polok dress
'Not one like Polok's dress.'

### 4.2.3 Ligature t

The ligature $t$ is very comonly used between a verb expression (consisting of a verb and a series 1 and 2 pronoun) and a following substantive. Since all series 1 and 2 pronouns are single open syllables, the use of the ligature in this slot parallels its occurrence in noun possession. The phonemic-syntactic conditioning factors can be formulated as follows:

A
B verb expression...CV $\frac{t}{t}$ noun
The final noun of both constructions is never marked by a sa objectifying particle or any other class of objectifying particle.
egxbael a='t owong
NA=make $I=L I G$ canoe
**p=in=enù $k u={ }^{\prime} t$ wayeg
fill $=P 0=\quad I=$ LIG water
$\begin{array}{ll}t=u m=e p i\end{array} \quad \begin{aligned} & a=\prime t \\ & \text { split }=F A=\end{aligned} \quad I=L I G$ wood
... danà di eg=haa='t legleg by he NA=see=LIG light
'I an making a canoe.
'I have filled it with water.'
'I will split the wood down the middle.'
-... from his seeing the light (of the fire).

$$
\begin{aligned}
& m=a l u k \\
& \text { PA=rush } a=' t \text { dalesan ku dò } \\
& I=L I G \text { house my LOC }
\end{aligned}
$$

'I will rush to my house.'
$t$ may also occur as a ligature following verb expressions closed by a <dé> particle the members of which are also vowel final.

> eg=angay $\frac{\text { da }}{\text { pa='t }} \quad$ Melatunol dò NA=go they still=LIG Melatunol LOC $\quad$ Melatunol.

Noun subordination seems to be the feature common to both uses of the ligature. In $A$ the noun is subordinate to another noun. In $B$ it is subordinate to a nuclear verb.
4.3 Subject markers [glossed as DET in the examples]

### 4.3.1 sa

Most subject expressions when marked take an objectifying <sa> class particle. But since members of this class may optionally mark nonsubject item, position rather than objectifier usually indicates the subject.

## 4.3 .2 i

Postclitic particles may mark subject expressions. One of the most common is the particle $\underline{i}$, a rather versatile item indicating in other constructions person, possession, etc. This particle is postposed to the subject of $a+$ or $a^{\text {a }}$ keniko verbal constructions or equational constructions.

```
m=ipanaw dé kenogon 1
FA=walk PRT maiden DET
aken i emà di, Menubù
I DET father his Manobo
kuna i Kunsiyal Kulaman
you DET Councillor Kulaman
N\mp@code{NA=smear meb 年}
\_=ubus
agulé t=um=ebow dé busaw i dutu {
sidò dalesan
that house
```

'The maiden went off.'
'I an his Manobo father.'
'You are Councillor from Kulaman.'
'Our hands are covered with grease.'
'I have finished.'
'Then the spirit arrived at the house.'

## 4.3 .3 i duu

The particle $\underline{i}$ (sec. 4.3.2) may be involved in the compound clitic expression 1 duu, which seems in general to substitute for an objectifying particle. (See sec. 4.5 on sentence particles.)


## 4.3 .4 ya

A particle of the allomorphic series \{ya\} is often postposed to a subject noun or person equational construction (a+ or ku kuna constructions). The allomorph ya follows expressions ending in a vowel. Substantives ending in closed syllables take a particle whose first consonant reduplicates the final consonant of the substantive. (This form of clitic occurs with all constructions.)

'I saw Puppy a while ago.'
'Mison was warned off by Labu.'
'There is a female spirit there.'
'In what land was he born?'
'The child is crying.

A similar clitic is used with verbs in comands, presumably to inply particular emphasis:

| yaggemen na | 'Don't laugh.' <br> yagsinegaw wa <br> yagdaya ya |
| :--- | :--- |
| yaka pa eg=angay ya dini simag  <br> not yet $N A=g o$ 'Don't cry.' <br> 'Don't stand there.'  |  |

### 4.4 Nonsubject markers

Some nonsubject substantives may be marked by \{ya\} particles in the same way as subject nouns. (These particles never occur with subject substantives in preverb position, only with substantives in postverb position.) The conditions under which nonsubject items may be marked are so far quite unpredictable as seen from the following:
kuwa a lepò ya 'I will get coconuts.'
get I coconut DET
elê 'kunal grass' may substitute for lepò in this construction, but walingwaling 'very valuable orchid', batà 'child', kayu 'wood', manuk 'chicken' may not. These words cannot be marked by such a particle in the context kumuwa a.... But one of these words, manuk, may be 80 marked though it is not the subject:

> uwiti ko aken manuk ka bring you me chicken PRT
'Bring me a chicken.'

Whether or not a particular word may be so marked seems to depend on the verb root used and the verb construction. (There is no evidence for the existence of noun classes.)

Similar marking of nonsubject items is seen in the following constructions:


In such cases the nonsubject item may receive additional emphasis by its association with the $\{y a\}$ clitic.

### 4.5 Sentence particles

### 4.5.1 duu and doo

No definite meaning can be assigned to either of the particles duu or doo, which are two among many similar sentence particles. They do not seem to relate to any one immediate constituent of the sentence in which they occur but rather to the sentence as a whole. They are treated apart from other particles since they represent a clear contrast in function, the former associating with negative sentences, the latter with positive sentences.
duu is more frequent in its occurrence than doo. They indicate a particular emphasis on the negative and positive aspect of the sentence respectively. They may occur in reduced form: du and de do respectively.
duu occurs with a wide range of sentence types and takes a position immediately following the verb or the series 2 agent pronoun should one be present.

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

With yaka 'don't' in commands:

| yag=pe=bagel duu <br> not $=C A=s$ trong NEG | 'Don't tense up.' <br> (Don't tense your <br> muscles.) |
| :--- | :--- |
| yag=selepan duu wé | 'Don't play about.' |

With endà 'not':

```
**endà eg=hau=wen ku duu 'I can't find him.'
        not NO=see=OP I NEG
**amuk endà i=begay da duu diyà kenami ... 'If they do not give
    if not NI=give they NEG to us (our sister) to us'
```

With inday 'to not know':

| inday ta duu ne=matay dé iya <br> not.know we NEG IPO=dead PRT that | 'We don't know <br> whether our young <br> brother is dead.' |
| :--- | :--- |
| egoh ya |  |
| appearance his young.brother DET |  |

egoh di, Hadi ya
appearance his young.brother DET
'We don't know whether our young brother is dead.'
duu has not yet been found with negative actor-subject constructions.
doo associates with positive statements and follows the nuclear open expression:


| $\begin{array}{rll} \text { ** uwit }=\text { en } & \text { da doo } \\ \text { take }=\text { PO } & \text { they indeed } \end{array}$ | 'They will take.' <br> (in reply to: 'Will <br> they take the dog with them? ${ }^{\prime}$ ) |
| :---: | :---: |
| $m=i l i n g$ doo apus, tamelang FA=like indeed apus tamelang | 'Tamelang is like the apus bamboo species.' |
| palan doo tamuk <br> all indeed trade.items | 'They are all trade items.' |
| duen doo <br> there.is indeed | 'There is.' (reply to: 'Is there any salt?') |
| egpeke=tudug doo Isot ta | ${ }^{\prime}$ Isot is able to |
| INA=sleep indeed Isot DET | sleep all right.' |
| dutu doo, dalesan ku there indeed house ny | 'My house is over there.' (in reply to: 'Where is your house?') |

doo followed by the particle gaa ('relayed speech') reduces to do as in duen do gaa 'There is, she says'.

### 4.5.2 duu with positive constructions

duu preceded by another clitic $\underline{i}$ commonly enters into positive constructions in which the combination i duu seems to substitute for an objectifying particle of class ssa> or for the postclitic objectifying particle \{ya\}.

```
angay=an ko (or koya) i duu 'Where are you going?'
go=FR you PRT PRT
kenà kawal ko i duu 'Where is your shirt?'
place shirt your PRT PRT
'Where are you going?'
'Where is your shirt?'
```


geléh ko pa diyà kenak palay ku i duu pound you PRT for me rice my PRT PRT i=pe=bulung ku pelà palì ku i duu 'I am about to get my NI=CA=medicine I still wound my PRT PRT
'Sweet potato.'
'What does it eat?')
'Pound my rice for me, will you?' wound medicined.'
'This is yours.'
duu has also been found in unusual equational constructions in which it is hard to differentiate two nuclear ICs.
kelu ko ya duu
bolo your PRT PRT
niko kelu ya duu
your bolo PRT PRT
> 'Where is your bolo?'
> (May I have your bolo?)
> 'Where is your bolo?' (Let me have it for a while?)

These constructions are questions and parallel the angayan ko ya questions dealt with under equational constructions (sec. 2.5).

In the foregoing sentences duu is probably best interpreted as a predicate item probably in association with the particle ya. Ya may be regarded as pronominal in this context, rather than an objectifying particle.
duu is also found in other minimal sentence constructions with only a single nuclear open expression:
langun dé duu 'They are all (his).' (In reply to 'Are they all his?') all PRT PRT

There is an interesting parallel between duu and endà. It is common for someone replying to a question to open his reply with the negative particle endà.


In such cases endà, used elsewhere as a negative, is purely a sentenceopening particle. It may be that sentence-final duu, used in such questions as the following, acts similarly to a sentence-closing particle, though elsewhere it has a negative connotation.
angayan ko i duu 'Where are you going?'
go you PRT PRT

### 4.5.3 wé Particle

Like duu and doo the particle wé functions as a clitic, related to the sentence as a whole rather than to any one imediate constituent. It may indicate particular emphasis. In all examples recorded it occurred sentence finally, taking priority over duu, dé, and pa for this position.
yagselapan du wé
angayan yu wé
météél ka dé wé
angayan ko dé wé
hiyupi ko wé
duen pa kugit ko wé
there.is PRT matches your PRT
'Don't play about!'
'Where are you going?'
'Hurry up!'
'Where are you going?'
'Blow up (the fire)!'
'Have you any matches?'
wé has been found only in command and question constructions.
The objectifying particles siya and iya are of ten found in the expanded form siya wé and iya wé. No particular meaning can be assigned to wé in either of these cases. It may indicate particular emphasis of the following objectified expression. It is not known whether there is any correlation between this wé and the sentence-final wé already dealt with. (The objectifying particle sidò may expand in a slightly similar fashion to sidòé.)

### 4.5.4 Distribution of Sentence Particles ${ }^{8}$

### 4.5.4.1 Group 1: dé and pa

dé and pa are mutually exclusive in their distribution and must be classed together. They occur with a wide range of constructions: actor-subject and non-actor-subject, negative and positive.

### 4.5.4.2 Group $2:$ duu and doo

duu and doo are mutually exclusive in their distribution. duu associates for the most part with negative constructions. doo associates with positive constructions. They are rather restricted in their distribution and occur immediately following the central open expression of the utterance or the nuclear substantive of the utterance if there is no open expression. The same is true of group 1 (sec. 4.5.4.1). Group 1 may, however, occur following endà in preverb position; group 2 is never found in this position.

There have been only two recorded utterances in which a member of both groups have occurred together.

```
**langun dé duu
    all PRT PRT
```

'They are all his.' (reply to: 'Are they all his cattle?')

```
**endà dé egke=tuleng=an ta duu enù ka
    not PRT INR=recall=RF we NEG as RP
    ne=lipeng ké
    IPO=forget we
```

'We cannot recall it, because we have forgotten.'

### 4.5.4.3 Group 3: pelà and endà

pelà is less restricted in its distribution than groups 1 and 2 and may occur elsewhere than immediately following the central open expression or endà though it occurs most commonly in these positions. It has never been found with pa (to which it seems to be semantically related), but has been found with dé.
$\begin{array}{lll}\text { makù } \\ \text { FA=return } & \text { ki dé pelà } \\ \text { we } & \text { PRT still }\end{array}$
endà pelawà duen sawa di
not yet there.is spouse his
'Let's go home now.'
'He has no wife yet.'
pelà is commonly associated with iya and ini in compound expressions indicating immediacy:
ini a pelà egtebow 'I have just arrived here.'
**iya pelà igtebow dini
ini a pelà egdineg
**iya pelà umangay dini
'He has just arrived here.'
'I have just heard (the news).'
'She' ll come here soon.'

### 4.5.4.4 Group 4: wé

wé may occur with members of groups 1 and 2. The expanded form pelawà may be the result of the combination pelàwé followed by vowel harmony. Neither pelà nor pelawà has ever been found in combination with wé.

### 4.5.5 Speech Particles gaa and guwaen di

Speech relayed from a speaker to a hearer by yet another person is always closed by the particle gaa. Speech so relayed may be command, statement, or question. gaa 'relayed speech particle' and is used only when the original message is immediately relayed.

| **duen | dé gaa |
| ---: | :--- |
| there.is | PRT reportedly |

** me=sakit pa gaa
ADJ=ache still reportedly
'There is, she says.'
'Does it hurt, she says.'

```
angay ka pa dini gaa
go you still here reportedly
```

Speech reported some time after the event is indicated by the verbal expressions guwaen di 'he/she says'. This expression may be defined as reported speech indicator. It is interpolated with a very high frequency in reported speech, unlike gaa which is used only utterance finally, usually with very short utterances. guwaen di may be interpolated several times within the one sentence. (It is of value in defining word boundaries in the language.)

It has been impossible to record free conversation owing to the length of utterances and the speed of articulation. But from general observation it seems that guwaen di may be interpolated between any of the major ICs of a sentence (but not within a verbal expression). In dictated story text material, usage of the expression is greatly reduced. It precedes or follows the speech. Occasionally it occurs within the speech when it is preceded by the sentence-opening expression endà or some similar expression.

```
agulé um=igsà, maen ko dini, guwaen
then FA=ask reason your here said
i kelupenit
DET small.bat
endà, guwaen i Kenogon, in=uwit a
no said DET maiden PO=bring I
mangan etaw
spirit being
DET small.bat
endà, guwaen i Kenogon, in=uwit a
no said DET maiden PO=bring I
mangan etaw
spirit being
```


### 4.5.6 Sentence-Final Particle 1

Questions are commonly formed by the closing of a statement-type construction with the particle $\underline{i}$ (sometimes expanded to hih or hai depending on dialectical differences). The particle seems, however, to indicate more commonly a rhetorical query or deference on the part of the speaker.

**hated=i ko kani i
take $=$ IMP you soon PRT
$k=u m=a e n \quad k i \quad$ dé $i$
eat $=\mathrm{PO}=$ __ we PRT PRT
l=um=iku
go. home $=P A=\quad \quad$ a dé
I PRT PRT
'Then the small bat asked, "Why are you here?"
""Oh," said the maiden, "I have been brought (here) by an evil spirit.". pakr
'Well, I'll be going now.'
'Take it soon! won' $t$ you?' (deferential comand)

```
    'Well, let's eat now,
will we?'
```


### 4.6 Expansions of Sentence

### 4.6.1 Time

Apart from the rather elusive time indication of the verbal affixes time may be more explicitly indicated by separate expressions. These expressions may be single words, phrases, or clauses.

## Tine Words


angay ka dini simag
go you here tomorrow
agule un=enaw da dé sinag
then PA=get.up they PRT tomorrow
un=enaw sigep sa ludeng
FA=get. up night DET taro
$u_{m=e n a w ~ s i m a g ~ s a ~ m a m a ~ s a ~ b a y i ~}^{\text {sen }}$
FA=get. up tomorrow DET man DET woman
**mapun dé, tapay doo eg=tudug
evening PRT still PRT $N A=s l e e p$
agulé tapay doo eg=ipanaw sa busaw
then still PRT NA=walk DET spirit
agulé iya pelà uka=an da sa pintu then that just open=FR they DET door
**i=begay ku dé kani diyà keniko
NI=give I PRT soon to you
senga hau=wen da kami ... whenever see=FO they us
agulé $s=u m=i g e p, \quad$ tapay doo sa bayi then night $=\mathrm{FA}=\ldots$ still PRT DET girl
'I saw Puppy a while ago.'
'The shark soon became a man again.,
'That spirit got up next day.'
'Come here tomorrow.'
'Then they got up next day.'
'Then the taro arose at night.'
'The brother of the girl got up next morning.'
'By evening he was still sleeping.'
'The spirit was still walking.'
'They had just opened the door.'
'I will give it to you shortly."
'Whenever they see us'
'Night came on. Still the girl cried.'
eg=sinegaw
$N A=c r y$

Single-word time indicators, which can presumably be assigned to descriptive class, may occur sentence initially, sentence finally, or following the verb expression sentence medially. There seen to be subclasses of descriptive time indicators. tapay doo generally precedes the verb. sigep, simag, and allied expressions (dema 'again', igkani 'a brief time', etc.) tend to follow immediately after the verb expresaion. gina tends to take sentence-final position.

## Tine Phrases

Time phrases are generally introduced by egoh 'time/appearance':

```
egoh sigep 'at night, last night'
egoh anay 'in the beginning, a long time ago'
gona agdaw 'yesterday'
danà di eg-udan egoh sigep 'as a result of its
by it rain time night raining last night'
egoh duwa gepadian 'two weeks ago'
time two week
```

Time Clauses
Time clauses are usually introduced by egoh:

| egoh hau=wen da si | Luminawlaw, |
| :--- | :--- |
| time see=FO they DET Luminawlaw | 'When they saw <br> Loninawlaw, he was |
|  |  |
| eg=olul |  |
| stretched out on his |  |

### 4.6.2 Location

Location may be indicated by single words or phrases.
Location Words

| dahedò ---> dadò | 'over there, some distance away' |
| :--- | :--- |
| dahini ---> déyni - dini | 'here' |
| dahiya --> daya | 'there (not specific)' |
| dalen | 'inside' |
| dutu | 'there' |

The objectifying expressions siya and sido are sometimes used to indicate location:
agulé $t=u m=e b o w \quad$ da dé sido é $\quad$ 'Then they arrived then arrive $=\mathrm{FA}=$ ___ they PRT there PRT there.'

The foregoing location indicators follow the verb expression. They take priority over single-word time indicators for position imediately following the verb expression.


## Location Phrases

```
tukééy kenogon m=angay m=egeso dutu
little maiden FA=go FA=fish to
sidò lawa='t wayeg
that body=LIG water
```

hau=wen di sa utan diyà siya wé
see $=$ FO she DET utan on that DEM
pulu='t tued
top=LIG stump
ne=kelid kenogon $i$ dutu sidò ilis IPO=roll maiden DET to that brink wayeg river
agulé $t=u m=e b o w$ dé dutu sidò kenogon then arrive $=\mathrm{FA}^{2}$ __ PRT at that maiden

then arrive $=\mathrm{FA}=$ ___ PRT that maiden LOC

go $=$ FA $=$ _ PRT ground
agulé ne=nabu sa busaw dutu sidò then IPO=fall DET spirit to that
'The little maiden went fishing to the river.'
'She saw the utan on the top of a stump.'
'She rolled into the brink of the river.'
'Then he reached the maiden.'
'Then he reached the maiden.'
'He went down to the ground.'
'Then the spirit fell to the bottom of the waterfall.'

```
esudan sagpaw
bottom waterfall
```

agulé $t=u m=e b o w$ dé busaw $i$ dutu The spirit
then arrive=FA=__ PRT spirit DET at
sidỏ dalesan
that house

| $* * u m=u k i t$ | dé dalem kayukayu |
| :---: | :--- |
| FA=pass.thru PRT inside forest | He went through the |
| forest. |  |

Dutu with few exceptions requires sido as the objectifying expression of the following substantive. Since sido elsewhere means something at a distance, dutu must indicate movement towards something at distance. This seems to be borne out by the foregoing examples.

Diyà is rarely followed by sido but is comonly followed by the objectifier sa. Diyà is essentially stationary in its comnotation. This confirms the fact that siya and its reduced form sa are simple objectifiers, unlike sido and sini, which are used when distance is relevant. This would account for the much greater frequency of sa over, the other two objectifiers.

There are interesting abbreviations and expansions of the noun phrases associated with dutu and diya. Postclitic particle do (not to be confused with the sentence particle) of ten associates with the noun head word of a dutu phrase, for example:

| mangay a dutu kenà ku do |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| go | I there place my LOC | II an gaing to my |

Dutu is commonly dropped when this particle is nsed:

> **agulé tumebow dé siý kenogon dò $\quad$ Then they reached the then arrive PRT that maiden LOC maiden.'
dò is not used together with the objectifier sidò. The do of sido is presumably the same morpheme as the clitic do.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { =angay da sido lawi da } \\
& \text { FA=go they that lean.to theirs }
\end{aligned}
$$

They go to their lean-to.'

When the noun head word takes a lateral possessive class 5 pronoun, do commonly stands between the possessive and its head word:

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { **eg=likù dé hagdi dò kenà } & \text { Then he went off to } \\
\text { NA=return PRT his LOC place } & \text { his place.' }
\end{array}
$$

The combination diyà sa comonly alternates with da siya, but the combination diyà siya is rare. There is a tendency to neutralise the homophony of the two words.

Although dutu and diyà are frequently used, location may be indicated by a noun or noun phrase without an overt valence.

| m=angay a | pa kenà 1 |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| FA=go okon | I PRT place DET maiden | 'I will go to the |
|  |  | house of the young |
|  |  |  |

agulé $d=i n=a l e m$ kenogon sa biahan sa 'Then the maiden put then put=PO=_ DET maiden DET basket DET the shoot in the basket.'
tugbung

```
shoot
```


## Other Location Indicators

There are several location words which never occur with an objectifying particle in indicating location, but always occur with dutu or do or the combination dutu dò.

```
dagel 'upcountry, upstream'
dibaba 'downcountry, downstream'
dibaluy 'the other side'
```

atas also probably belongs to this subclass, the expression daatas 'upstairs' (sometimes heard as diatas) probably being an abbreviation of diya atas.

Compound location indicators include the following expressions:


Time and location may be indicated by a subordinate-clause-like expressions. The expressions egoh and kenà respectively stand at the head of these clauses.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { mangay a dutu kenà ku eg=tudug } \\
& \text { FA=go } \frac{1}{\text { I }} \text { to place I NA=sleep }
\end{aligned}
$$

'I an going to the bedroom (where I sleep).'

Since the expression headed by kenà invariably substitutes for a simple substantive, it may be better to regard it as a noun phrase with kena the head word, which the verb expression is dependent on. This seems to be supported by the postposing of a class 2 <ku> pronoun to kena. This pronoun class indicates possession of substantives (and other functions).

Time clauses introduced by egoh are open to a similar choice of interpretations since internally they follow the pattern of kenà expressions though they usually substitute for simple time descriptive class words rather than substantives.
$k=u m=a e n$ da dema, egoh da egmbeli They will eat again eat $=P A=\quad$ they again time they $N A=b u y$ when they buy fish." uton fish

An egoh expression substitutes in the substantive position in the following sentence, but the tise element seems to be a subordinate feature.

```
me=tilg ka eg=atuatu siya egoh di 'You know how to
IPO=know you NA=judge that time it judge when it is
full.'
```

egke=penù
INO=full

The time element is more definite in the following: endà ne=sugat di, sa ke=bael, egoh muna 'It was not right not $I P O=r i g h t$ it $D E T$ DRV=make time first when it was first made.'
$b=1 n=a e l$ man make $=P R=\quad=R P$

Cause may be indicated by similar constructions introduced by danà 'by':
nexdaig ka, danà ko eg=sabà apuy 'You were burnt by IPO=burn you by you NA=hold fire holding the fire.'

```
**ne=genawzan danà di mig=angay dutu
    IPR=cold=RF by he PA=go to
    Kulaman
    Kulaman
```

**ne=bilanggu egoh anay danà di eg=tigbas
IPO=imprison when first by he NA=cut.up
Apun
Japanese

Unlike kenà and egoh, danà is not an objectified expression. It is not the head word of the expression but is a valence-carrying morpheme linking the verb of the dana expression to the nuclear open expression of the sentence. The danà expression, however, can substitute for a simple substantive like the egoh and kenà expressions.
mine=laeb siya lepò danà apuy

IPO=wilt that coconut by fire
egke=kiling sa tanà danà $\frac{\text { n }}{\text { t }}$ Neula
INO $=$ spin
egke=kiling $\begin{aligned} & \text { i Nemula } \frac{\text { sa }}{\text { tanà }} \\ & \text { INO=spin }\end{aligned} \frac{\text { DET God }}{\text { DET }}$ earth
-He caught malaria from his going to Kulaman.'
'He was imprisoned for hacking up a Japanese.'

Apun
Japanese
> 'The coconut tree has been wilted by the fire.
> 'The earth has been set spinning by God.'
> 'The earth has been set spinning by God.'

Some subordinate constructions are unambiguously clauses. These clauses are related back to the main clause by such expressions as:

| an $\bar{i}$ | 'in order that' |
| :--- | :--- |
| ka, enù ka | 'because' <br> amuk <br> huenan di |
| 'if, when' |  |

huenan di stands clause finally preceded by a slight pause. The other expressions stand at the head of the clause.
ani followed by eg- elides to give anig- in normal speech, for example, ani eg-angay dini $\rightarrow$ anigangay dini.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { eg=lidung a ka duen batà di, 'I an hiding because } \\
& \text { NA=hide } \quad \text { as there.is child his his child is following } \\
& \text { me.' } \\
& \text { - eg=lohot=en di aken } \\
& \text { NO=follow=OF he me }
\end{aligned}
$$

endà peke=ipanar di ka ne=polot
not INA=walk he as INO=bind
$e g=u n o w=e n ~ k u ~ s a ~ s a w a ~ k u ~ a n i ̀ \quad e g=a n g a y ~$ $N O=c a l l=O$ I DET wife my so.that $N A=g o$
dini pexbulung
here $C A=m e d i c i n e$

| $t=i n=a l u n$ |
| :--- |
| release $=P O=$ |$\quad \frac{\text { sa }}{\text { egpeke }=k a e n}$

INA=eat
egetipak=en ku sa kayu; dakel,
NO=cut. down=OP I DET wood big
huenan di
reason its

endà meke=kaen ké, amuk endà duen kayu 'We can't eat unless not IFA=eat we if not there.is mood
'He can't move about because he is bound.'
'I am calling my wife to come here to be given medicine.'
'The hen has been released so that it can be fed.'
'I an paring down the wood; it is too big.' there is mood (for our fire).

Single words may substitute in the slots marked by these subordinating words. These single words are usually open verbal expressions with a zero third-person subject and must be given the status of full clauses. Single objectified expressions may, however, substitute in these slots.


Such substitution of an objectified expression cannot occur in a clause introduced by ani.
4.6.4 Time and location words as major open expressions

Time and location are generally indicated by lateral items. Occasionally, however, such an item may function as the nuclear open expression of the sentence.

'I will be back tomorrow.'
'I will tell the folktale tomorrom.'
'There goes Hundi now pasaing.
'You had been gone one meek on your way home when she died.'
4.7 Derivational affizes

### 4.7.1 pig-

The prefix pig- can best be translated 'to go about looking for':

```
eg=pig=bayi Papi ya 'Puppy is out looking
NA=SRC=momen Puppy DET
for female doga.'
p=in=ig=sage=en ku siya me ayap 'I went along the
SRC=PO=__=tide.line=0P I that DKM shell
tide line looking for
                                    shells.'
dagat
sea
piglaget 'to look for tobacco leaf'
pigkayu 'to go to collect wood'
pigposot 'look for betel nut'
pigkutu 'look for fleas'
The prefix eg- precedes pig- to indicate the direction of travel.
```

```
eg=pig=kulaman a
```

eg=pig=kulaman a
NA=SRC=Rulaman I

```
NA=SRC=Rulaman I
```

${ }^{\prime}$ I an going up to Knlaman.'
4.7 .2 118-

1ig- is found in a number of stems. No meaning can be assigned to it. It is presumably an inactive morph, a historical residue.

| ligtuwa | 'waterfall' |
| :--- | :--- |
| ligkubung | 'to pull dress up over head' |
| ligpuwak | 'to topple off from a height' |
| egpeligboyot | 'to speak slowly and deliberately' |

## 4.7 .3 1i-

1i- is found in a number of verbal expressions, for example:
kumeliwayeg 'to become saturated with water' (from wayeg 'water')
melimeket 'to be sticky' (from peneket 'stick to')
egkelimedang 'to be afraid' (from nemedang)
egkelimahan 'to put to rights/fix up'.

### 4.7.4 mekepe-

meke- never occurs with <-en>, <-an>, <-un->, or <i-> affix sets. It has been found occasionally in combination with the prefix pe-.
endà pa meke=pertebek di not yet IFA=CA=inject he
endà meke=pe=tulad ké not IPA=CA=photograph we
'He has not yet been injected.'
'Aren't we going to be photographed?'

The affix pe- transforms the meke- expression into a distinctly passive construction in which the action of some other person or agent reflects back on the subject. (See also sec. 1.4 on causative constructions.)
4.7 .5 -uein-
-umin- is not an uncommon infix. The constructions in which it has been found have been actor-subject and intransitive. There is no evidence to suggest, however, that all -win-conetructions must be intransitive. The meaning of the affix is not certain. It has usually been associated with coments concerning some activity imaediately after the event.

|  fly $=P A=$ __ $N A=$ leave from under.house | - (The hen) just flew off from under the house.' |
| :---: | :---: |
| ** $1=$ umin=ayang kedu dahini jump=PA= $\qquad$ from here | 'He (the kitten) just jumped from here. |
| $t=u m i n=a y a g p e s$clear. land $=P A=$$\quad$a doo <br> indeed | 'I have just been clearing land.' |
| me=pion ka $t=u n i n=e b o w ~ k a ~$ <br> $A D J=g o o d ~ b e c a u s e ~ a r r i v e ~$ $P A=$ you | 'It is good that you have just come.' |

## 4.7 .6 kepe- -an

The kepe- -an combination of affixes has been found only once, with the root unut 'to accompany'.


In the foregoing expression the wind is implied as the active agent, but definite participation of the agent is also implied. An exact translation of the affix combination is not possible.
4.7 .7 tege-
tege- indicates constant or habitual action:

```
    tegekadì 'to annoy all the time'
    tegeantang 'one who presides at a dispute or meeting'
    tegeketket 'to gnaw all the time'
    tegepelihayen i Simag Tilikan na 'Tilikan is always teased by
                                Simag.'
```


## 4.7 .8 tig-

tig- implies a restricted repetitive action:

mine=tig=pokò=pokò siya batang $\quad$| 'The log broke into |
| :--- |
| $I P O=D I S T=s h o r t=s h o r t ~ t h a t ~ l o g ~ m a n y ~ s h o r t ~ p i e c e s . ' ~$ |$\quad l$


tig- is often affixed to numerals to produce the following constructions:

```
    tig=lima=wen ta kenita
    DIST=five=FO we us
**ne=tig=duwa kenami
    IPO=DIST=two we
**tig=duwa=ay gulé eg=tepi=yen
    DIST=two=RC times NO=split=0F
```

'Each of us took five pieces each.'
'We each received two.'
'Bach is to be split
into two.' (or. split twice.)

```
tig=lima=way gesaw
DIST=five=RC rafters
```

'The rafters are to be arranged in five groups along the roof.'

The affix sig- is somewhat related in function referring to only object:

**sig=bagkes=bagkes=ay | kenagda |
| :--- |
| DIST=one.binding=one. binding=RC they |

ne=sig=baen da
IPO=DIST=one they

**eg=sig=baen=baen=en ku sa tablin, endà
NO=DIST=one=one=OF I DET tablet not
eg=lengon=en ku duu
NO=all=OF I NEG
'Each received one bundle.'
'They were distributed one to each parent.'
'I take the tablets one at a time, not all at once.

## $4.7 .9 \mathrm{se}^{-}$

se- enters into a rather diverse group of constructions. It is difficult to define its exact function. With many of the constructions, however, it is possible to postulate the role of unity: unity of time, unity of place, unity of action, etc. This would suggest identity with the cardinal numeral ise 'one', which as a descriptive of nouns is sa, valenced to the following noun by the ligature ge-.
se- -ay indicates reciprocal action. This may be regarded as unity of action, both actors being involved in the same activity in the same place at the same time. The construction may be reciprocally intransitive or reciprocally transitive.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { eg=se=bulit=ay da } \\
& \text { NA=RC=angry=RC they } \\
& \text { eg=se=tipon=oy da } \\
& N A=R C=\text { gather }=R C \text { they } \\
& \text { eg=se=tépéd=éy } \quad \text { da } \\
& N A=R C=s i t . b e s i d e=R C \quad \text { they }
\end{aligned}
$$

It will be noted from these examples that the suffix consists of phonologically conditioned allomorphs: -ey and -oy following stems in which the vowels of the final syllable are $\underline{e}$ and o respectively, -ay occurring elsewhere.

Additional examples of the intransitive reciprocal type are:
$e g=s e=i k a g i=y a y d a$
$N A=R C=s p e a k=R C$ they
eg=se=taked=ay da, sa ebos
NA=RC=heel=RC they DET roosters
'They are speaking to each other.'
'The roosters are fighting.'

In transitive reciprocal constructions a third party (nonsubject) is the object of the reciprocal activity.

| eg=se=penakaw=ay da='t tanà $N A=R C=s t e a l=R C \quad$ they $=L I G$ land |  | 'They steal the land from each other.' |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| eg=se=tabang=ay ki $t=u m=u d a k$ $N A=R C=h e l p=R C$ we plant=FA= | katilà swt.potato | 'We help each other plant sweet potato.' |
| eg=se=tinudu=ay da='t belad $N A=R C=$ point $=R C$ theywLIG hands |  | 'They point at each other.' |

se- also enters into combination with the affix sets <-um->, <-en->, and <-an>. It has not yet been found in combination with set <i->.

Only a few sume- constructions have been recorded. Most have been transitively reciprocal, the reciprocity involving the activity of the object, the subject initiating the activity. Such a construction permits a singular subject. (Plurality of subject is essential with se- -ay constructions.)
sume $=8 u g u ̀$
FAREP=request we them

| sume $=t$ ipon FAREP=gather $\frac{\text { ataw; } t=u}{I}$ people tell |
| :---: |
| sume $=$ buteng $k i=\prime t \quad k u d a ̀$ |
| FAREP=bite wemig horse |
| egse=taked a duwa manuk |
| NOREP=heel I two chicken |

sume=buteng ki='t kudà
FAREP=bite wemLIG horse
egse=taked a duwa manuk
NOREP=heel I two chicken
'I'll have the people gather together; I intend to tell a story.'
'We'll organise a horse fight.' (We'll set the horses fighting.)
'I'll set the two chickens to fighting (striking) with the spur of the heel)'.
'We'll ask them to wrestle together.'

In one instance the unity or reciprocity seems to involve a one-for-one correlation between subject and object.

| sume $=$ kuyà |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| FAREP=pursue | ki | sa kudà |
| we | DET horse |  |

'We go after the horses, one person after each horse.'.
*sumekuyà a sa kudả is impermissible.
se- -en is the most common of the se- constructions and is essentially goal-subject. Reciprocity is often a feature of such constructions, the reciprocating or reciprocated members being the subject of the construction while another party initiates the activity. This parallels the <pe- -en> construction already dealt with in which some person (not the subject) causes another person or thing (the subject) to perform the action implied by the verb root.

Typical examples of this type are:


The reciprocity may, however, obtain between the nonsubject agents of the action.
egse=penakaw=en da sa ungéh diatas NOREP=snatcin=0F they DET rat upstairs
egse=penakaw=en da sa tanà
NOREP=snatch=0F they DET land
'They (the cats) are playing with the mouse upstairs.'
'They snatch the land from each other.'

In the following expression there is no reciprocity between the subject items. The reciprocity may, however, be in the action of one person who buys from another person who initiates or requests the action. It is essentially a closed process involving no outside party. A <pe- -en> construction would involve a first party getting another party to buy from still another party. This se- -en construction is a process involving only two parties, the first party getting the second party to buy from the first party.
egse=beli=yen di siya manuk diyà keniko 'He got you to buy
NOREP=buy=OF he that chicken to you the chicken from him.,

Uniting action rather than reciprocity is implied in the following:
egse=tepeng=en $\quad$ ku sa $\quad \frac{\text { elée }}{}$
NORBP=measure $=0 F$
'I will even up the kunai (cogon) grass.'

Here the bundles of grass cut for roofing are jostled to bring the stem ends uniformly together. The simple goal-subject expression is:

```
eg=tepeng=en ku sini unol
NO=measure=OF I this snake
```

'I will measure this unol snake.'

Here the snake is measured by placing a measuring rod alongside it.
Contrasting the two sentences with the same root serves to emphasise the unity connotation of se-.

Somewhat the same feature is involved in the following:

```
egre=tipon ku sa me=doo latà
NOREP=gather I DET ADJ=many tins
egse=dapag=en da sa dawat 'They place the pens
NORBP=near=OF they DET pens close together.'
```

Unity in these sentences may be defined as "togetherness." Togetherness is also indicated in the following expressions:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { egse=lapin=en di sa } \frac{\text { libi }}{\text { NOREP=layer=0F he }} \frac{\text { DET }}{\text { libi }} \\
& \text { egsesumpat=en i Piping sa gesam } \\
& \text { NOREP=overlap=OF DET Piping } \frac{\text { DET rafters }}{}
\end{aligned}
$$

Negation of togetherness is indicated in the following expressions in which the unitedness refers to the subject items:
egse=talak=en ta sa labit
NOREP=place.apart=OF we DET rabbits
'We' 11 place the rabbits in separate compartments.'

The function of se- with other roots is not always clear as in:
 (if there is any).'

## etaw

 person**endà, guwaen ta $i$, sine=kaen ké dé
no say we POREP=eat we PRT
""No," we say, "we have eaten $1 t . "$

It would seem from the context that all the corn has been eaten. (Unity may be implied in the completeness of the act.) The same interpretation may hold for more ambiguous sentences.

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { sa miyong, egse=kaen=en di siya me=doo } & \text { "The cat is eating a } \\
\text { DET cat } & \text { NOREP=eat=0F he that ADJ=many } \quad \text { lot of paper." }
\end{array}
$$

kelatas
paper

With godoy 'to drag', se- seems to indicate unity, the agent drageing one object, or a group of agents each dragging one thing.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { egse=godoy=en ku sa } \\
& \text { NOREP=drag=OF } \\
& \text { I } \\
& \text { DET } \\
& \text { sandal } \\
& \text { egse=godoy } \\
& \text { NOREP=en } \\
& \text { mag }
\end{aligned}
$$

'I'm dragging my sandal along.'
${ }^{\text {'Puppy }}$ is being dragged along by Marie.'
'We dragged the apus bamboo down.'
'Puppy is dragging the cat along.'

With other roots the role of se- is even more difficult to define, its omission having little if any effect on the construction.
egse=ketket=en di sa kayu
NOREP=gnaw=OF he DET wood
egse=pegeni=yen da diyà keniko sa kulta NOREP=beg=0F they to you DET money
'It (the rabbit) is gnawing at the wood.'
'They are asking you for money.'
se- -an is an affix combination indicating reciprocal or unified action by agents operating on another party, the subject.

| egse=oyong=on da egruwit rakina da NORBP=carry=OP they NA=bring machine their | 'They are carrying the machine between them at each end. |
| :---: | :---: |
| **egse=bulig=an ta egxhanet NRREP=help=RF we NA=lift | 'We help each other to lift (it).' |
| egse=limud=an da aken NRREP=crowd $=R F$ they me | 'They crowd in upon me.' |
| **egse=dibaluy=an ta eg=tutuk NRREPmopposite.side $=R F$ we $N A=$ nail | 'We nail together from both sides at once.' |
| egse=ugpu=wan da eg=henued sa ungéh NRRBP=end=RF they NA=bite DET rat | 'They are biting at the rat from both ends.' |
| egse $x$ tagped $=a n$ ta sa timun NRREP=cut=RF we DET cucumber | 'We cut the cucumber and take half each.' |

Another use of se- is in combination with the affixes ke-, me-, and pe-, respectively. The resulting combinations are rarely found with the affix sets <-en>, <-an>, or <i->. Each of the combinations conveys a sense of togetherness and/or reciprocity.
ke-
egkesertubeltubel da egke=matay They died one after NREC=die.in.epidemic they INO=die the other.'
egkese=unut da, sa sayap
NREC=accompany they DET hat
'The hats fell down one behind the other.'
egkese=hidu yu
NREC=love you
me-
nesestipon ki dalem
PREC=gather we inside
**nese=tepeng
PREC=same
'We gathered together inside.'
'It is the same, of like nature.'
pe-

egpesesungguday ké is said to nean the same as egpesungguden ku ga epél ku 'I will get my brother-in-law to give me bride price itens'.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { eg=pe=se=bulig a keniyu } \\
& N A=C A=R C=h e l p \text { I you } \\
& \text { eg=pe=se=uwit=uwit 夜é dalem owong endà } \\
& N A=C A=R C=b r i n g=b r i n g \text { we in canoe not }
\end{aligned}
$$

eg=pula ké
NA=paddle we

$$
\begin{aligned}
& e g=p e=s e=l i m u d \\
& N A=C A=R C=c r o w d ~ m e l a w e n g ~ e t a w ~ \\
& \text { we many people }
\end{aligned}
$$

'I'11 get you to help me.'
'We will be carried along in the canoe; we won't paddle.' (The wind will take us.)
'We will be crowded in by many people.'

In these pese- constructions the subject is the goal of an action. Togetherness or reciprocity is detectable in most cases.

The following are examples of one of the foregoing combinations in association with a non-actor-subject affix.

$$
\begin{array}{cl}
* * \text { nese }=\text { dibaluy=an } & \text { eg=tutuk } \\
\text { PREC=opposite.side=RF } & \text { NA=nail }
\end{array}
$$

éhé siya labit, pese=amut=en ku kagda e.g. that rabbit $C A=F O R E P=1 x=F O$ I them
'It has been nailed from both sides.'
'For instance, the rabbits, I will have them put together.'

### 4.8 Other derivation for stem formation

### 4.8.1 Substantives

The majority of substantives are free roots. It is characteristic of Cotabato Manobo, as well as all other pilipino dialects, that roots which function in isolation as substantives with few exceptions may become stems for verbal expressions. Even town names may function as verb stems, for example, egpigkulaman 'to go to Kulaman'.

The possessive pronoun hagdi has been found as a verb root:

```
hagdizyen di kita 'He'll take us for
his=PO he us his own.'
```

Another example of a substantive becoming a verb stem is shown in the following:

```
gule
segule
'times, multiple'
'one, one time'
egseguléen sa duwa 'two taken one at a time'
```

Substantives may be derived by affixation from roots which are verbal, that is, roots not found in isolation as substantives).

Affixation of ke- to a root produces a substantive which is a nominalised active or stative verb expression:

| telu agdaw pa three day yet DRV=arrival of father | ```'My father will arrive here in three days.'``` |
| :---: | :---: |
| $\begin{array}{lll} \mathrm{h}=\mathrm{um=aa} & \text { a hagdi } & \text { ke=bigkat } \\ \text { see }=\mathrm{FA}= \end{array} \quad \text { I his } \quad \text { DRV=walk }$ | 'I would like to see how they walk.' |
| **diyà ke=dakel i Papi to DRV=big DET Puppy | 'He is as big as Puppy.' |
| egpekesapel sa ke=buung ko INO=rebound DET DRV=throw your | 'The thing you threw rebounded on you.' |
|  | -... so that it will be easy to release.' |
| iya that $D R V=d i s t a n t$$\frac{\text { di }}{\text { its }}$ | 'That is how far it is away.' |

Affixation of -an to an open expression produces a substantive indicating location or place:

'I an going to the sea.'
'Where are you going?'
egdanan $\quad$ a
rest.head I
dananan
kedu a kenà ku dò
from I place my LOC
keduwan ko ya
from you PRT
'I rest my head down on something.'
'pillow'
'I have come from my house.'
'Where are you from?'

Affixation of either of the goal-subject affixes -en and -in- to an open (verbal) root, or to a root which may function without affixes as a simple substantive, commonly produces simple derived substantives:

| egkelu 'to cut weeds' | $-\ldots>$ | kelu 'bolo' |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| egtibah 'to clear land' | $-\ldots>$ | keluwen 'weeds' |

Verbal expressions may be objectified by preposing an objectifying <sa> particle:
eglinadu 'to be sick' sa eglinadu 'a sick person'
egbaba 'to carry on back' sa egbaba kenak 'someone to carry me'
egbegay 'to give' sak binegayan ko timus 'the one to whom you gave salt'
beken duu pulow siya egbuung not NEG owl the throw
'It is not an owl that hurls things.'

Substantives derived by the objectifying of clauses will be referred to as compound substantives.

Simple substantives may also be derived by double affixation:

| salà 'sin, wrongdoing, crime' <br> kesalaan 'payment for crime, fine' |  |
| :--- | :--- |
| egtulù 'to teach' <br> sa ketulù 'the act of teaching' <br> sa kepetulù  | 'the act of being taught' |
| unut  <br> keunutan 'to accompany/to follow/to obey' |  |

iya ke=unut=an da diyà Kulaman, 'Mamu is their leader that $D R V=a c c o m p a n y=R F$ they at Kulaman at Kulaman.'
si Mamu
DET Mamu

### 4.8.2 Reduplication

Reduplication of a root usually implies lesser intensity of quality or purpose in an open expression. [Underlining here shows root reduplication rather than subjeci as in examples in the rest of the article.-Ed.]

ne=tilg=tilg ka dé eg=ikagi Menubù IPO=know=know you PRT NAzspeak Manobo
ne=tiig a eg=duyuy
IFO=know I NA=sing

| eg=patay=patay sa legleg di | 'Its flame is dying |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $N A=$ die=die | DET flame its | slowly.' |

ne=matay da doo
IPO=die they PRT
'I am going to the coast.'
'I an just walking about (going nowhere in particular).'
'You know a little how to speak Manobo.'
'I know how to sing.'
'Its flame is dying slowly.'
'They died.'

```
miitem 'black' miitem-item 'slightly black'
diisek 'little' diisek-isek 'somewhat small'
```

Reduplication of an open expression occasionally indicates frequent repetition or prolongation:
egpe lepenglepeng egliguligu egpegtotpegtot
'pop its head in and out of container'
'to go round and round in circles'
'to hop or canter along bobbing up and down'

Reduplication of objectified expressions usually indicates plurality:

```
saging 'banana' sagingsaging 'a plantation of bananas'
libutà 'mud' libutăbutà 'an expanse of mud'
sugud 'plain' sugudsugud 'an expanse of plains'
katilà 'sweet potato' katilàtilà 'a field of sweet potato'
```

In general plural is not indicated either in the verb expression or the substantive. It is inferred from the context.
4.9 Phrases
4.9.1 Descriptive <-- descriptive

The descriptive <--- descriptive constitute [indicated by underlining in the following examples] is occasionally found:

| senga simag d every morning t |  | uen <br> here.is | dema again | salà di evil his | - Every wicked | morning he is over again. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| senga simag |  |  |  |  | 'every | morning' |
| every morning |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| duen <br> there.is | etaw people | dutu, there | $\begin{aligned} & m=d o o \\ & \text { ADJ=many } \end{aligned}$ |  | 'There there, them | are people very many of |
| me=doo | temù |  |  |  | 'very | many' |
| $\overline{\mathrm{ADJ}}=\mathrm{many}$ very |  |  |  |  |  |  |

### 4.9.2 Comparative construction

Comparison is usually indicated by the expression diya.
me=bagel pa kedungon diyà libi
$A D J=s t r o n g$ yet abaca to libi
** diyà ke=dakel kenagdi
to DRV=big him
'Abaca is stronger than libi palm.'
'It is as big as he.'
uman=uman pa ke=dakel di dahini more $\approx$ more yet $D R V=b i g$ it here
'It (the tablet) is a bit bigger than this one here.'

NOTES

1. The material on which this analysis of Cotabato Manobo is based was collected during one year's residence (1956-57) in the community of Datu Mama Undas. It was obtained in the normal course of daily activity from non-English speakers who spoke Cotabato Manobo as their first language. Most of the material was collected from members of the local territorial group and from our houseboys, Mundi, Umpit, and Atudan. A considerable amount of useful material was collected from Datu Mana Undas. In the final six weeks more systematic work was undertaken, especially with our eldest house boy, Umpit. He was a lad of exceptional intelligence who, though illiterate at the time, learned to read and write his own language after two months of training. A number of folktales were collected from him.

Particular thanks are due to the Sumer Institute of Linguistics, under whose auspices this work was undertaken, and to its various members in the Philippines (R.E. Elkins, F.B. Dawson, and others) whose studies of related dialects have helped greatly to an understanding of Cotabato Manobo. Special thanks are also due to those members of the organization, Drs. K.L. Pike. R.S. Pittman, and H.P. McRaughan, to whom the author owes his training in linguistics during their terms as Principal at successive sessions of the Sumer School of Linguistics held in Australia since 1950.
[Ross Errington, an S.I.L. researcher among the Cotabato Manobo since 1976, suggested the publication of Kerr's "Cotabato Manobo Gramar" and has contributed much editorial help. The initials R.E. at the end of bracketed material in this study indicate that it was contributed by Mr. Errington.--Ed.]
2. In all vernacular examples the subject of a sentence will be underlined. If the subject is a zero third person singular, this will be indicated by a double asterisk.
3. [The present continuous affix is called neutral time aspect in the examples, following the terminology of Johnston (1975).--R.E.]
4. Pollowing the standard convention, impermissible constructions will be indicated by a single asterisk.
5. hauwen is the goal-subject form of the root haa 'to see'.
6. manà is the -um- form of the root panà 'to shoot with a bow'.
7. [Later analysis revealed that yaka is used for a singular negative command, and yoko is used for plural, for example:

```
yaka eg=ipanaw wa
don't NA=travel NEG
yoko eg=ipanaw wa
don't NA=travel NEG
```

'Don't (singular) go.'
'Don't (plural) go.'

Negative non-actor-subject commands use the particle duu to mark the goal or referent subject constituent, for example:

```
yaka eg=bigà duu sa sawa di 'Don't comait adultery with his
don't NO=adultery NEG DET spouse his wife.' --R.E.]
```

8. It is interesting to note that single objectified expressions may comprise a nuclear constituent of an utterance with no other overt nuclear IC if one of the sentence particles stands with it:
```
kuna pa 'You go on. It's your turn.'
kenà di dé 'Where is he?'
```


## STUDIES IN PHILIPPINE LINGUISTICS

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[^0]:    'What thing did you call for?'

