Chapter 3
Sentence Structure: Predicates Rule

In this chapter I will present many different kinds of seemingly related simple sentences with the confidence that this will be more helpful than showing you a bunch of big, long, complicated sentences that only have one apparent thing in common: being Cebuano. In a simple sentence you can see a pattern that you can learn and then apply to analyzing "deep Cebuano". In a complicated sentence, if you have no framework for analysis, you see only gibberish. "Analyze" just means to take something apart and examine the pieces and how they work together; the motto of the determined sentence analyst is, *There are no long sentences, only simple sentences expanded and patched together*. If you can recognize the simplicity in the longest of sentences, that is the framework you need for becoming truly fluent.

You can study case grammar, verb affixes, etc., and you have to, but it will only answer isolated questions about words and their different forms: "that's the subject over there," "the verb does this," etc. Without a good fundamental grasp of Cebuano sentence structure and word order, you not only won't understand complicated sentences, you won't even like them, and you certainly won't be able to replicate them! If you don't like a language you will not be able to learn it, so the framework we call TIER STRUCTURE ANALYSIS was invented, based on native Cebuano patterns, to provide a consistent framework for analyzing every grammatical sentence in the Cebuano language[1]. Having a framework for analysis that can be learned almost instantly is like knowing something about the language before you ever study it: it's a big head start, and that is the student's opportunity to enjoy learning. Without the *learning* there's no *fun in learning*, is there?

It is a trick of natural learners to always have an internal filing cabinet for their thoughts so that as knowledge accumulates, it knows where to go to optimize its own usefulness. That's what a "framework" is all about. As you learn and notice more, the framework does the organizing for you so your thoughts don't get jumbled by the piling up of information. With a simple framework that can be applied consistently across the board, you keep getting smarter; without it, you get more and more confused. Analyzing sentences according to tier structure will make you smart about Cebuano because it is based on unique features of Cebuano sentence structure that knowing English has not prepared you for.

That said, this framework like all frameworks is subordinate to the language itself, an invention, a tool of description, a map. The map is not the ground it describes; to really know the way, you have to get on the ground and walk around. A good map, however, will help prevent you from falling off the end of the world and being eaten by the giant snakes and crocodiles.

This chapter will demonstrate how most or all Cebuano sentence types can be analyzed according to the same basic pattern, with the result a sort of rhythm that makes spoken Cebuano sound somewhat like the wave-song of the ocean that gave it birth. The placement of every word in a pre-ordained position class reflects, in a sideways kind of poetic license, the ability of almost any word to be used as a Cebuano verb; just put a word in the preposit slot and it is empowered to predicate. Combined with the ability of ordinary speakers of Cebuano to derive a menagerie of different verbs by adding verbal affixes to nearly any usable group of syllables, I get the impression that people are singing and playing as much as they are

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[1] I can't presume to know what is correct or incorrect in somebody else's language, so I can only use the term "grammatical" to mean "a sentence that reflects regular patterns as if they were rule-like structures". A sentence that doesn't reflect any rules is "idiomatic" if it communicates, and "gibberish" if it doesn't.

talking. Along those lines, when Americans really talk business, it sounds like they are getting ready to put the weak outside to starve and batten down the hatches for winter.

Here is the core of Cebuano sentence structure:

PREPOSIT	POSTPOSIT	COMPLEMENT	LINKER
PREPOSIT	POSTPOSIT	COMPLEMENT	LINKER
PREPOSIT	POSTPOSIT	COMPLEMENT	

Explanations of the four position classes follow, with a sentence analyzed according to tier structure:

1. PREPOSIT, the position for any predicator, or word that is part of the predicate: the main predicate or a predicate partner, such as a predicate modifier or a predicate displacer. These words always occur in preposit position.
2. POSTPOSIT, a word that always follows directly behind preposits. Only certain words qualify to fill this slot. In linguistic jargon, "2nd place clitics".
3. COMPLEMENT, full-form nominals such as subjects, objects, and secondary subjects. A complement includes all its direct modifiers including whole clauses: "the man who spoke first" is a single nominal; "who spoke first" is a relative clause referring only to "the man", not to the rest of the sentence: *"The man who spoke first* was the one who kept silent later." Substituting single nouns for complex single nominals and omitting adjuncts, *"Pedro* was the one."
4. LINKER, predicate linkers indicate that the next word is a preposit, which we know will be a part of the predicate. So the linkers show us the predicators and the predicators show us the backbone of the sentence's message. The other words flesh the message out.

PREPOSIT	POSTPOSIT	COMPLEMENT	LINKER
Gahì	ba	siyá	og
ulo?			
	Gahì ba siyá'g ulo? Does he have a hard head? (Is he stupidly stubborn?)		

Above: complex predicate is *gahì'g ulo* "hard of head". Subject is *siyá* "he", and the interrogative particle *ba* is a postposit. Predicate linker *og* or *'g* links *gahì* and *ulo*.

Exceptions to the tier structure are regular in their behavior, so they aren't really exceptions as this is a tool of comparison and analysis rather than a prescription for what is correct. We will give examples of the seeming exceptions that can affect a variety of sentence types, before giving many examples of how most sentence types conform to the sentence template's four position classes. Most "exceptions" involve fronted constituents—adjuncts, subjects, and secondary subjects—and a few sentence types and preposit types that don't tend to use predicate linkers, or make them optional.

ADJUNCTS—WHAT THEY ARE, WHERE THEY ARE, WHAT THEY DO

An adjunct is extra information that can be left out of the sentence without maiming it or making it ungrammatical. No matter how crucial *to the discussion* the information is that is provided by the adjunct, its inclusion in the sentence is not *required by the predicate*. For example, the verb *hatag* "give" might expect to see at least one and sometimes all three of the Semantic Roles: "giver", "receiver", and "thing given". But if the sentence also mentions, for example, *when* something is given or *where* it is given or *why* it is given, that information would be adjunct, not required to make the sentence

grammatically complete. The predicate doesn't need such types of information as complements because they are not directly related to the meaning of the predicate.

Adjuncts can take the form of
- nominals, usually preceded by a preposition and *sa* (or *sa* alone where a preposition could be assumed or added, since Cebuano frequently omits prepositions)
    - prepositions are a type of conjoiner that introduce phrases, not clauses; since they take complements they are preposits of a sort
- dependent clauses, usually preceded by conjoiners such as *tungód kay* "because", which marks the clause as an adjunct of reason, or *kay arón* "so that", which marks the clause as an adjunct of purpose (see the section on conjoiners for more information)
    - clauses always contain their own predicate; the four position classes are still observed within a dependent clause
    - the conjoiner is appended to preposit position; such "position zero" words always introduce the clause and are directly ahead of the predicator in position one

The examples below demonstrate ways in which the four columns of the position class chart can be used also to classify the constituents of adjunct clauses and phrases; adjuncts are not linked to the main clauses in the sentence.

PREPOSIT	POSTPOSIT	COMPLEMENT	LINKER
Gusto	ko		nga
moadto		sa tindahan	
sa pagkahumán		sa sayáw.	
	Gusto kong moadto sa tindahan sa pagkahumán sa sayáw. I want to go to the store when the dance is over.		
The third tier is not linked to the first two because it is a dependent clause—a time adjunct—and has its own predicate. 1. While adjuncts of place are common, *sa tindahan* is a complement of *moadto*, not an adjunct, since *moadto* "go" selects a place complement. 2. *Sa pagkahumán: sa* is a conjoiner of time adjuncts, meaning "at the time of"; *pagkahumán* "finishing up" is a verbal noun. 3. *Sa sayáw* "the dance" is a genitive doer, giving the literal translation of the adjunct clause "…at the time of the dance's finishing."			
Mokaon	pa ko		
ubán		sa ákong mgá higala.	
	Mokaon pa ko ubán sa ákong mgá higala. I'll eat more with my friends.		
Mokaon pa ko "I'll eat more" is a simple predication (single predicator, one tier) and the phrase introduced by the preposition *ubán* "along with" is a comitant adjunct. Prepositions, like predicators, have complements, which are "objects of prepositions" and marked *sa*.			
Gitigom		níya ang íyang mgá anák	
kay arón	ko		nga
makakaon			og
sayó.			
	Gitigom níya ang íyang mgá anák arón kong makakaon og sayó. She gathered her children so I could eat early.		

All but the first tier is an adjunct of purpose. This wordy example (see below for the modern version) shows clearly how a predicatory conjoiner like *arón* can introduce an adjunct clause that is also a multi-tier clause of its own. *Kay arón nga* is generally shortened to *arón* with *nga* only used if there are words (such as *ko* in this example) interposed.			
Gitapok		níya ang íyang mgá katabang	
arón makakaon			og
sayó.			
	Gitapok níya ang íyang mgá katabang arón makakaon og sayó. He gathered his helpers so they could eat early.		
Similar to the previous example, this is the more modern version of the conjoiner *arón* "so that". This shows the tendency of Cebuano to omit redundant pronouns when the same entity is mentioned twice.			

Adjuncts follow the main clause by default, and since they aren't a part of it, there is no predicate linking between the main clause and the adjunct. There is no separate column for this "follower" position since it would make the analysis too bulky; nominals can be put:
- in the complement slot with the preposition labeled preposit since it does prescribe the complements and is a "preposed" word—that's how it gets the name preposition,
- or if the adjunct is a clause there will be a predicate usually preceded by a conjoiner; occasionally the conjoiner itself is a predicator of sorts, (*arón* "so that, in order to") able to occupy its own tier and linking with *nga* when necessary, and with interposed postposits and complements preceding *nga*; see the chapter on subordinate clauses for the details on conjoiners; for the purposes of this chapter they just append to or occupy the preposit slot.

Conjoiners—clause introduction particles and the like—in adjuncts and elsewhere have no position class since they just precede the preposit slot; they can be shown in preposit slot as appendages preceding the word that belongs there. Once again a separate column would not be appropriate as it would make the chart too formidable to have five or six columns. The main purpose of the framework is for analyzing main clauses but it is adaptable to adjuncts and eccentric word order.

You'll learn in the section on discourse pragmatics that adjuncts can be given FOCUS in a sentence (not to be confused with that oldy moldy "focus system" description). "Focus" is when a nominal provides new information, and information is usually focused by fronting, putting it ahead of the first preposit slot. Fronted adjuncts are still not part of the main clause's predicate structure so are not linked to the main clause or its predicate. Fronted is not the default position of adjuncts but it is very common, equivalent to providing new information either asked-for or as if asked for.

Unlike complements, adjuncts can be added freely, before and/or after the main clause: "*Because she's pretty* I gave her a pink blouse *after school behind the store, etc.*" There can be only one subject, one or sometimes two objects, but the three adjuncts added to the above example don't make it hard to understand or ungrammatical. But try adding extra subjects, and you have gibberish: "*I he they gave her a pink blouse…*" On the other hand, a single Grammatical Relation can be a list of entities as long as they don't interfere with each other: "The cat and the mouse played with the gun and the knife."

Refer to the section on focus and topic (discourse pragmatics) for the formal reasons that adjuncts might be fronted, and to the section near the end of this chapter for less technical reasons why sentence constituents often precede the preposit position.

An example of a fronted adjunct of time:

PREPOSIT	POSTPOSIT	COMPLEMENT	LINKER
Sa pagkakitâ		níya sa tawo,	
nahadlok.			
	Sa pagkakitâ níya sa tawo, nahadlok. At the time of his seeing the man, he became afraid. (*nahadlok* is the main clause and the doer doesn't have to be repeated since it is already known; *sa…tawo* is the time adjunct, fronted)		

In Cebuano, *pag-* verbs marked *ang* tend to be straight nouns in usage, like *ang pagsayáw* "the dancing", and so could be called PARTICIPLES. Often when marked *sa* on the other hand they become time adjuncts that function in the sentence as nouns but take doers and objects like verbs; this is the definition of GERUND. This sort of use of the position class chart doesn't show forced conformance to a rigid structure, but rather adaptability of the framework to most found objects within the grammatical jungle. There are even times when a *pag-* verb could be marked either *ang* or *sa,* a question we will not address in this chapter.

FRONTED SUBJECTS

Subjects can also be fronted ahead of the first tier and are also not linked to the tier by a predicate linker. This applies to subjects of all kinds, whether doer, doee, or upgraded adjunct. Since a subject is just a nominal, a noun phrase, its analysis can place it in a complement slot that is not linked to the main clause that follows. The first preposit slot can be preceded by both fronted adjuncts and a fronted subject.

PREPOSIT	POSTPOSIT	COMPLEMENT	LINKER
Misugò		siyá nga…	
		si Juan Pusong	
isulód		sa usá ka halwa.	
	Misugò siyá nga si Juan Pusong isulód sa usá ka halwa. He ordered that Juan Pusong be put inside a cage. bjp14		
Here's one way the sentence template can be adapted for a variety of contingencies. The main clause is *Misugò siyá* and the complement "what he ordered" is a clausal complement introduced by *nga.* This is duly noted by including "nga…" in the complement slot, then the complement—which is a complete clause—is analyzed next. *Si Juan Pusong* is a fronted subject, and the rest of the (doerless, thus passive) clause is default.			

Fronted objects are rare in Cebuano, since focusing an object is made unneccessary by the times when the "focus system" does fulfill its description: when a word that could have been an object or adjunct is made subject "in order to put it in focus". This doesn't mean all subjects are focus nominals in our description. The evidence against the focus system label is the many fronted adjuncts conveying new information where the subject does not. The term "focus" should not be used for anything except the newest information provided by the sentence, whether this is a verb, an adjunct, a subject, or even the whole sentence; really, focus depends on the context where the sentence is found. (This is the sort of information not needed to become only grammatically fluent, but important if the student intends to write or speak clearly in a way that actually addresses the listeners' needs.)

PREPOSIT SECONDARY SUBJECTS

When secondary subjects (sub2 or genitive doer) are ahead of the verb they are treated like possessive adjectives modifying a verb instead of a noun, they are linked to the verb by *nga,* they can have postposits and complements interposed between the preposit pronoun and *nga,* so they fully cooperate

in the tier structure with its four position classes. So there is no mystery; it's a possessive adjective used as a doer with a verb that is maybe part noun…except we are hard pressed to explain what is predicatory about a genitive doer. So far we are half-satisfied with the explanation that it is literally a possessive adjective, a predicate partner of sorts, bonded to the verb in a way that other complements are not. This holds true mainly when the pronoun is focused, providing new information as if a "content question" had been asked: *Íyang* gipanday ang baláy. "It's *his*, the building of the house." But more often it seems that preposit sub2 actually possesses its verb; here's an English example of a similar genitive doer possessing a nounlike verb: "His going to town was serendipitous."

The example below must call its sub2 a preposit or the framework doesn't function; it's because of the interposed constituents *nâ* and *untà* that we have to do it this way. "Interposed" refers to the occurrence of words between preposit and linker positions. The reason for fronting a sub2 are the usual (addressed in detail elsewhere)—either for focus or to make the sentence sound better in context.

PREPOSIT	POSTPOSIT	COMPLEMENT	LINKER
Ímo	nâ untà		nga
dawaton			
		didto sa ímong baláy.	
	Ímo nâ untang dawaton sulód sa ímong baláy. Hopefully you received that at your house.		
Dídto in this sentence is omittable but shown as an example of inserting a locator so *sa ímong baláy* wouldn't be interpreted as sub2. Since the sub2 is the first word in the sentence such ambiguity doesn't really exist so *dídto* is not needed to show that *sa ímong baláy* is a location and not a doer.			

Some miscellaneous observations about tier structure analysis:
- The preposit constituent is the only one that is always obligatory; without a predicate nothing is being said.
- The postposit is the easiest to identify since a finite collection of words can exist there.
- The predicate linker can be omittable in some constructions and not even allowable in others, and while it often is preferable for clarity—it directly precedes the predicator—it is seldom obligatory.
- The complement position is not the only place a full-form pronoun can occur; especially words like *siyá* that have no short form can occur as postposits but usually can be said to occur in complement position.
- If there is no word in the way (interposing), a postposit that is an adjective and a complement can combine into a single nominal such as *ning bag-ong sundang* "this new machete". Technically this is a full form complement but *ni + -ng* is a short form so normally would have to be in postposit position. In a sense the *ni* and the whole phrase do occupy the two respective positions, in the correct order, but the positions share a single nominal phrase. This is very common.

THE CORE OF THIS CHAPTER: A LONG LIST OF PREDICATION TYPES

The following table provides examples of many kinds of words that—by occurring in first position—*become* predicates even if the same word could also occur in other places in other sentences without having the predicator function. The key to predicate types and sentence types is that they are named the same: a verb is the predicate of a verbal sentence, an adjective is the predicate of an adjectival sentence, etc.

After the table comes an explanation of the major sentence types and their corresponding predicators—many miscellaneous predication types are seen in the table only and in examples throughout this study.

Then, a table showing the tier structure analysis of some more complex sentences.

Then an introduction to postposits: what kinds there are, and the sub-structure of the postposit position; what it can contain and in what relative order.

Finally, examples of fronted material of various descriptions.

Table of Many Cebuano Predication Styles, analyzed as tiers introduced by predicators[2]

PREDICATE IS IN *ITALICS*

Definition of PREDICATE. A predicate tells the other words in the sentence what they are doing there. It prescribes what kinds of words or phrases are needed to complete the sentence (complements) and how these will be marked grammatically to indicate their roles and relationships to each other. A predicate by its basic nature—whether verbal, exclamatory, attributive, existential, etc.—says what its clause is doing: verbalizing, exclaiming, attributing, saying that something exists, etc. (This study asserts that a verbal sentence always has a verb as its predicate; we reject the traditional assumption that a verb can become the "subject" of the sentence in certain constructions. *This is because it is always the verb that selects the participants in the sentence's expression—its complements*—one of which has to be its subject. Stop confusing students with cute-but-useless flip-flopping definitions: a verb preceded by *ang* is still a verb!)

In the chart below, a model—as per tier structure—for each sentence type is shown first as terminology, then an example of how a Cebuano sentence follows the pattern, then the uninterrupted Cebuano sentence with translation. When a complement, such as subj or subj2, is expressed as a short form, it will be found in postposit position even though its prescription is listed, for convenience, in complement position where full-form complements are found.

Complements are determined by the predicate and can include subject, sub2 (secondary subject or genitive doer), object, and as a guest, adjunct nominals. These distinctions are marked by nominal phrase markers; see case grammar.

Some verbs have a "becoment" as a kind of complement, which is really an appositive. Appositive refers to a nominal that is being said to be the same as another nominal; for saying someone became or was elected X, introduduced as X, or otherwise represented as X, the appositive X is usually marked *nga*; for saying someone was named or called X, the object X is marked *og*. Depending on the situation, that can be considered only a general guideline. Appositive is not a grammatical relation but a nominal that is the same as another Grammatical Relation, usually a word that is the same thing as the subj.

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[2] "Tier Structure Analysis" is not meant to sound scientific. It is the table, the analytical tool, that organizes into tiers or layers/levels/rows in a table. We are making no linguistic or scientific claims, just showing how a non-moving target or framework for analysis makes it easier to study a language. When a sentence has three linked tiers it just means the predicate has three parts or partners forming a single complex predicate.

Three sentence types that are two-tier (two-part predicate) but the predicators are usually or sometimes not linked: (1) negative (*walâ, dilì, and* often *ayáw*); (2) compound locative (*Atúa siyá dídto*, for example) and (3) equational—the two predicates are juxtaposed (put next to each other) with no linking. The "missing" predicate linker is indicated in the table by ( ).

Predication Type = Sentence Type	PREPOSIT	POSTPOSIT	COMPLEMENT	LINKER
Adjectival	*adjective*		subject	
	Gwapa		siyá.	
	Gwapa siyá. She is pretty.			
Social Relation	*social role*		subject, possessor	
	Igsoon	ko	sa maestro.	
	Igsoon ko sa maestro. I am the brother of the teacher.			
	Kauban		siyá ni Vice.	
	Kauban siyá ni Vice. She's the vice-mayor's companion.			
	Mama nímo		siyá.	
	Mama nímo siyá. She is your mama.			
Existential	locator			ing
	existent			
	Dídto			'y
	kabayò			
	Dídto'y kabayò. There is a horse.			
Existential	locator		subject=possessor	ing
	existent			
	Dídto		siyá	'y
	kabayò.			
	Dídto siyá'y kabayò. He has a horse.			
Locative	*location*		subject	
	Sa lungsod		siyá.	
	Sa lungsod siyá. He's in town.			
Locative	*locator*		subject	( )
	(locator) (location)			
	Atúa		ang tawo	( )
	(dídto) sa baláy.			
	Atúa ang tawo dídto sa baláy. The person is over there in the house.			
Locative	locator		subject	( )
	location			
	Didto		siyá	( )
	sa baláy.			
	Didto siyá sa baláy. He is over there in the house.			
Locative of definite possessed subject	*location*		object=possessor	( )
	(locator)		definite possessed subject	
	Anía		sa tawo	( )
	(dínhi)		ang kabayò.	

	Anía sa tawo dínhi ang kabayò. The man has the horse here.			
Locative in time	sa		kalít	nga
	pagkamatáy			
	Nalarag ug napughaw ang katahoman sa kalít nga pagkamatáy sa kangayâ sa íyang balatian. Yellowed and faded was the beauty when suddenly killed usl39			
Equational	(maó), *predicate a =*			( )
	= predicate b			
	Ang maestro			( )
	(maó) kanáng tawo.			
	Kináng tawo			( )
	(maó) ang maestro.			
	(Maó) kanáng tawo			( )
	ang maestro.			
	Ang maestro (maó) kanáng tawo. That person is the teacher. Kináng tawo (maó) ang maestro. The teacher is that person. (Maó) kanáng tawo ang maestro. The teacher is that person.			
Manner of Verb	*adjective of manner*			nga
	verb			
	Batà	pa	siyá	nga
	tan-awon.			
	Batà pa siyá kaayong tan-awon. She looks young. wf			
Genitive	*genitive pronoun*		subject	
	Iyáha		ning habul.	
	Iyáha ning habul. This blanket is his.			
Seeming Attributive	daw, *attribute*		subject	
	Daw bag-o		kanâ.	
	That seems new.			
	Daw bag-o kanâ. That seems new.			
Seeming Attributive	maó	ra/daw/ingón/sama	subject	og
	attribute			
	Maó ra		siyá	'g
	buang.			
	Maó ra siyá'g buang.			
Seeming Attributive	Daw time-attribute		subject	nga
	verb		[as per verb]	
	Daw kagahapon	lamang	kádtong mgá pahalipay	nga
	nadawat		níya	
			sa íyang	

		kahigalaan.	
	It seemed like it was only yesterday that he'd received those congratulations from his friends. usl		
Seeming Attributive	dagway		og
	verbal attribute		
	Dagway		og
	moulán.		
	Dagway'g moulán. It looks like rain. wf		
Verbal Reported Speech	*verb about what was said*	daw/kuno	subject
	Maghikog	daw	siyá.
	Maghikog daw siyá. He said he'll kill himself.		
	Namatáy	kunó	ag piluto.
	Namatáy kunó ag piluto. They say the pilot died.		
	Gipugos	na daw	siyá.
	Gipugos na daw siyá. She said she had been forced. pj		
Informative	maó		specific subject	ing
	indefinite informant-predicate			
	Maó		siyá	'y
	tawo nga buang.			
	Maó siyá'y tawong buang. He is a crazy person.			
Informative	*indefinite informant-predicate*		specific subject
	Tawo nga buang		siyá.
	Tawong buang siyá. He's a crazy man.		
Informative	usá		subject	ka (= qty. linker)
	informant-pred.			
	Usá	gihapon	akó	ka
	binilanggò.			
	Usá gihapon akó ka binilanggò. I am as usual a prisoner.			
Become verb	*verbs that extend into more complex versions of "to be"*		the usual complts, nga complement = appositive of subj
	Nahimò		siyá nga tawong buang.
	Nahimò siyáng tawong buang. He became a crazy man.		
	Gipili		siyá nga presidente.
	Gipilì siyáng presidente. He was chosen to be president. wf		
	Walâ		siyá	( )
	magpailá		nga anák sa hari.	
	Wâ siyá magpailá nga anák sa hari. He didn't introduce himself as son of the king. wf			
Naming verb	*"naming &*		sub2, subject,

	calling" verb		indefinite object as name (*og* [name])	
	Ginganlan		níla siyá og Pedro.	
	Ginganlan níla siyá'g Pedro. They named him Pedro.			
Verb with Modal auxiliary verb	modal auxiliary (verb root)		the usual complts as per the verb	nga
	finite verb (or pag-gerund)			
	Angay		siya	-ng
	maningkamot.			
	Angay siyáng maningkamot. He should try hard.			
Paired Verb Modal	*finite modal verb*		(as per main verb)	og (or sa)
	verb root (or pag-infinitive)			
	Balikon	ko	ikáw	'g
	pangutana.			
	Balikon ko ikáw'g pangutana. I'll be back to question you.			
Periphrastic Causative	*finite verb of causation*		(as per caus)	og (or sa) (or nga)
	verb root (or pag-root) (or finite verb)			
	Misugò	ko	kaníya	og
	dalá		niíni.	
	Misugò ko kaníya'g dalá niíni. I ordered him to carry this. mbw			
Attributive existential	*attribute*		possessor-subject	og
	existent			
	Gwapa		siyá	og
	nawong.			
	Gwapa siyá'g nawong. She has a pretty face.			
Attributive existential	*attribute*			og
	existent			
	Daghan			og
	irô.			
	Daghan og irô. There are lots of dogs.			
Prepositional	*preposition*		subject	og
	object of preposition			
	Gikan	mi		og
	Lasang.			
	Gikan mi'g Lasang. We've come from Lasang. pj			
Attributive existential	*attribute*		subject	og
	finite verb clause			
	Daghan	ko		og

	nahatag sa tawo.			
	Daghan ko'g nahatag sa tawo. There's a lot I've done for mankind.			
Attributive remark	*(pag-)ka-attribute as an exclamation*		genitive-possessor	og
	possessor of attribute			
	(Pag)ka-gwapa		níya	'g
	nawong.			
	Pagka-gwapa níya'g nawong. How pretty a face she has!			
Attributive remark	*attribute as an exclamation*		genitive-possessor	
	Pagka-gwapa		níya.	
	Pagka-gwapa níya. How pretty she is!			
Comparison attributive	*attribute*		subject	kay
	(same attribute)		object	
	Taás		akó	kay
	(taás)		kanímo.	
	Taás akó kay kanímo. I am taller than you.			
Comparison attributive	Dilì		subject	kay
	attribute	(gayód)		
	Dilì		kanâ	kay
	nindot	gayód.		
	Dilì kanâ kay nindot gayód. That's not so very nice. smi54			
Comparison attributive	*attribute*	pa	(object)	ing
	poss. of "pa" attrib.=subject		(poss. of "less" attrib. = object)	
	Lami	pa		'y
	basura		niíni.	
	There's more flavor in trash than in this.			
	Lisód	pa		'y
	magkao'g mani.			
	There's more difficulty in eating peanuts.			
	Lupig	pa	kaníya	'y
			kabaw	
	mokaon.			
	Lupig pa níya'y kabaw mokaon. Less than him is what a water buffalo eats. (*lupig pa* has the opposite meaning of *pa*)			
			Ang batan-ong magsusulat	
	lupig	pa		'y
	nahagsaa'g usá ka bulig lubí		sa íyang nabatì.	
	Ang batan-ong magsusulat pa'y nahagsaa'g usá ka bulig lubí sa íyang nabatì. As for the young writer, less would be what he felt than should a coconut branch fall on him. egb			

Result adjunct	*maó*		subject	nga
	finite verb			
	Ímo		siyá	-ng
	gitandog,			
	maó	nâ		-ng
	nasukol.			
	(Ímo siyáng gitandog,) maó nang nasukol. You touched him, so he got mad.			
Negative	*dilì/walâ*		subject	( ) or *nga* with ka- verb when short for MAKA-
	finite verb			
	Dî	ko		nga
	kahibaló.			
	Dî	ko		( )
	makahibaló.			
	Dî kong kahibaló. (or) Dî ko makahibaló. I don't know how.			
Prohibitive	*ayáw*			og (pag-)
	finite verb or root verb			
	Ayáw			og (pag-)
	kawát.			
	Ayáw'g kawát. OR Ayáw pagkawát. OR Ayáw mo('g) magkawát. Don't steal.			
Assumption	Abi		sub2	og
	verb clause			
	Abi		nakò	og
	dî	ka		( )
	kamao		sa ímong lakáw.	
	Abi nakò'g dî ka kamao's ímong lakáw. I didn't think you knew your way.			
Causal with pronominal result	*tungód*		pronoun = result	kay
	cause			
	Tungód		kiní	kay
	bugnaw.			
	Tungód kiní kay bugnaw. It's because of this that it's cold. pj			
	Tungód		kanâ	kay
	walâ			( )
			siya	
	mag-amping.			
	Tungod kana kay wala siya mag-amping. It's because of that she was not being careful. jgr			
Relative Order	*relative order*		subject	nga
	position noun			
	Ikatuló	ra	siyá	nga
	dapit		sa lumbà.	
	Ikatuló ra siyáng dapit sa lumbà. He is third in the race. wf			
Don't Know	ambot			og
	question word		subject	nga

	field of question			
	ambot			(og)
	unsa		tu siyá	nga
	triboha			
	…ambot unsa to siyang tribuha kay gamay pa man ko ádto… don't know what that guy's tribe was… bisfor0408			

Major Sentence Types

SENTENCES with TWO-NOMINALS

A. Equational Clauses

English sentences are used as examples below since students with their native English perspective will be able to grasp the concept in that way and then move on to apply the knowledge to Cebuano examples. The English and Cebuano non-verbal sentences of this type have a lot in common, but in English the predicate comes second and the complement comes first, the opposite of Cebuano. But they are still composed of two nominals in the same (nominative) case, the case used for subjects.[3] *Equational* sentences have two predicates of equal predicatory power, while the very similar *informative* sentence seems identical but isn't; it has one predicate and a subject complement. The difference is important only if you want to learn Cebuano.

The other difference between English and Cebuano sentences of this type (two juxtaposed nominals) is that in English the two juxtaposed nominals would be linked by the copula or linking verb "to be" {am, is, was, were, will be, would be, etc.}, while in Cebuano there is no copula. The particle *maó* has been mistaken for a copula and shares some characteristics but is really a predicator of another type, depending on how it is used. Mastering the use of *maó* is important, and difficult if you do not grasp the information in this section. It is not something you can insert anywhere you want which is problematic if you expect it to "mean" something in English. It certainly means something in Cebuano.

An equational sentence has two specific nominals that are not necessarily equally specific. There are rules about what order they can come in, especially when *maó* is inserted before one of them, and it depends on which one is more specific.

The difference between equational and informative sentences—neither of which have a verb as main predicate—is that informative sentences include a specific and a non-specific nominal. The two nominals, being inherently unequal, are not "equated" but rather one is used to identify the other or give more information about it. ("He is a cretin." "Cretin" is predicate-informant while "he" is subject-complement.) Thus it is an inherently focused sentence with the informant being the predicate no matter what order the two nominals occur in. Switching the order of the two nominals creates an obviously eccentric word order, as per Yoda of Star Wars: ("A cretin is he.") The non-definite nominal ("a cretin") is always the predicate-informant. The predicate complement is a subject ("he") and is more specific—a certain person—than "a cretin" which implies "any" cretin. In the discussion below we will say that "cretin" and "he" in this sentence are not "equal".

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[3] I disagree with the convenient but wrong explanation that there are two subjects; nominative case is used for many things, not just subjects.

But this section is about equational sentences, which can switch order freely because the two nominals really are equal. The purpose of the sentence isn't to use one nominal as a predicate-description of the other, but rather to use two nominals to equally predicate about each other. The rules are below with examples.

The Cebuano sentences below all have one of two meanings:
- That person is the teacher.   (= The teacher is that person.)
- That teacher is the person.   (= The person is that teacher.)
- *tawo* means "man, person"
- *maestro* means "teacher"

To aid in defining the patterns used, this code can be employed:
- m = *maó*, a predicate partner used differently by different predicate types, no translation
- s = *most* specific nominal, such as "that" vs. "the"
- l = still specific, but *less* specific nominal, such as "the" vs. "that"

ALLOWED:
- Maó kináng tawo ang maestro.   pj   msl
- Kanáng maestro maó ang tawo.   pj   sml
- Kanáng tawo maó ang maestro.   pj   sml
- Ang tawo kanáng maestro.   pj   ls
- Ang maestro kanáng tawo.   pj   ls
- Ang tawo maó kanáng maestro.   pj   lms
- Ang maestro maó kanáng tawo.   pj   lms

NOT ALLOWED:
- *Maó ang maestro kanáng tawo.   *mls
- *Maó ang tawo kanáng maestro.   *mls
- *Kináng maestro ang tawo.   *sl

CONCLUSIONS (memorize these two rules):

- The less specific nominal can occur first of the two (l before s), but if it does, *maó* can't take first position.   (lms but not *mls)
- If the more specific nominal occurs first (s before l), *maó* must precede either.   (msl or sml but not *sl)

ADDED NOTE:
- The above usages of *maó* do not apply to informative sentences. The following example was provided by the informant but on close inspection it is an informative, not equational, sentence: Ang kináng maestro kay tawo.   A person, that teacher is.   mbw   (Eccentic word order version of Maó'y tawo kináng maestro.   That teacher is a person.   mbw)   *Kay* is used to follow a fronted topic, thus preceding the sentence focus—new info—whenever topic is fronted.

AN EXCEPTION DEBUNKED:

The following sentence is a bit off (without questioning the correctness of the speaker's ability to use his own language as it is used in his area, I would call it "ungrammatical" according to anything that could be taught). A questioner during its telling even asked for clarification, and the following version was offered in its place by my informant who also did not like it; even the textbook writer who presented it had to explain what it meant. First a simplified version so we know what the original speaker was trying to say:

(As simplified and corrected by my informant):   Ang batà nga naanod, ang nakakitâ kay ang apohán. The baby that was carried away by the current—the one who found him was the grandfather.   pj

Here is the perhaps ungrammatical version, maybe correct in its own time and place but not understood by at least one listener who questioned it at the time it was spoken. *Muó* is a dialectal form of *maó. Po'y* is a contraction of *pod ing.*

> ?Ang batà nga gianod, muó po'y nakabangál kádtong apohán. (Q: *Apohán nga muó'y amahán sa babaye?*) (A: *O-o*).   (?untranslateable) (Q: A grandparent that was father of the woman?) (A: Yes.)   (wfII379)

What is wrong with this example? We can't say it was wrong at the time and place it was spoken—though it might have been since someone had to ask for clarification. However it was not right-sounding to our informant and even the textbook writer who first presented it had to add a special note about it. So it should not be far off to at least check it against the "rules" presented above. And literally all our guidelines above were violated by this sentence. This seems to indicate that using the rules generates clarity while random juxtaposition of nominals with *maó* inserted anywhere just generates confusion.

- An initial *maó* should immediately precede only the more specific of the two specific nominals. Our informant chopped out the *maó'y* first thing. And *maó ang* would have been better no matter what, unless you support the blending of *ang* and *'y* into the same word, which we don't in this study, except occasionally; normally *'y* is the same as *ing* (non-specific) not *ang* (specific).
- Since the second of the two specific nominals in the replacement sentence by pj is marked *kay* we know it is the least specific—it is the new information—but in the original, the *maó* precedes the non-specific nominal *'y* and the other nominal is marked the more specific *kádtong*. The result is a sentence that confuses the ear.
- The literal translation of the "bad" sentence sounds just as "bad" in English: "?The baby that was carried away by the current—someone who found it was that grandfather." Maybe it sounds right in the place and time of the storyteller but it is not a kind of grammar we can teach.
- As my grandmammy used to say, "If it don't sound good, it ain't grammar in us'n's house, it just talkin'."

Keep reading as Informative sentences use *maó* very differently from Equational sentences.

SENTENCES with TWO-NOMINALS

B. Informative Clauses

We are getting this "two-noun" sentence out of the way first as it is supposed to be easy, in Cebuano it ain't always easy (because we have nothing like *maó* in English), and it doesn't work very well with tier structure analysis. On the other hand it is very basic and probably an older way of talking, in terms of

the development of language in caveman days, than verbal predication. I'm only guessing as I do not remember my caveman days.

It is important to know the difference between an equational and an informative sentence because they can both use *maó* (but it's sometimes optional) and they use it differently. If you plan to learn Cebuano correctly you can't just throw *maó* into the sentence; and it doesn't "mean" some English word in any literal sense so we have to confront it on its own terms and on its own turf. It has been mistaken for "is" because it often fits in a sentence position such that its English translation must use a corresponding "is". But that is a coincidence. It has been translated "that is the case", in other words a sort of especially strong-tasting "is", like "it is so!" or "is too!" but that is because it sometimes (in another usage) precedes a nominal in such a way as to make the nominal very specific.[4] Like most Cebuano particles, the word has many usages depending on the type of sentence—the type of predication—in which it is found.

Equational or informative? quick reference:

≠ means "not equal to" and is used here in reference to the discourse pragmatics (topic and fous) denoted by sentence constituents and especially word order. "My wife is a nut job," and   "A nut job is my wife," have the same meaning but different disourse pragmatics and each would be more correct in a different set of circumstances. Thus "not equal" or ≠ . But "My wife is that nut job," and   "That nut job is my wife," are pragmatically equal, because they are matched in specificity. It matters more in Cebuano than it does in English since it triggers a different way of using *maó*.

equational (two equal predicates, both nominative)
- *maó ang* marks either or neither but not both (more specific rules above)
- both are very specific or otherwise matched in specificity like the first example below where both are equally non-specific:
  - A good man is a hard thing to find. = A hard thing to find is a good man.
  - That jerk will be the easier target. = The easier target will be that jerk.
  - That exact man was the killer. = The killer was that exact man.
  - BUT: The killer was a man. ≠ A man was the killer.
- order doesn't matter; switching doesn't constitute fronting
- applies to the free relative construction: Jack Daniels is what gave me this headache. = What gave me this headache is JD.
- superlatives are equational: The one at Sequihor is the nicest one. = The nicest one is the one at Sequihor.

informative (a predicate and a complement, both nominative)
- *maó'y* marks predicate, often optionally
- predicate is new information
- predicate is less specific, complement is more specific
- complement can be interposed within *maó'y* since *maó* is a predicator and   *'y* is a predicate linker
  - full form complements usually aren't interposed; they instead would be in the complement slot of the next tier or fronted ahead of the first tier
  - *siyá, silá,* etc. (pronouns that have no short form) can be interposed

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[4] maó nga or maóng preceding a noun (shoe) can mean "the said/aforementioned shoe, this/that shoe (which we were already talking about); in this usage maó is not a predicator.

- order matters: switching constitutes fronting: That woman is a real battleaxe. ≠ A real battleaxe is that woman.

negative informative (same as informative, plus):
- Negative side is predicate/new info.
- Banana plants are not trees. ≠ Not trees are banana plants.

In summary, there are two main types of sentence that have no verb but have instead two juxtaposed nominals. *Maó* is used differently with the two types and the difference between the two types is tied up in the relative specificity of the two nominals compared to each other. The purpose of all these distinctions has to do with the focus or new information being provided by the sentence, so after you read the later chapter on Pragmatic Functions: Topic and Focus, you should come back and study this section carefully. For now, if you completely fail to comprehend this section, skip forward to Topic and Focus now or just be satisfied and come back later when you get smart. Or when I rewrite it to make sense.

ADJECTIVAL SENTENCES

This is the simplest type of sentence. Here are some variations, for contrast.

> Putî ang saninà.   The shirt is white.
> Putî kádtong maóng saninà.   That (aforementioned) shirt is white.
> Putî kanáng saninà.   That shirt (there by you) is white.
> Putî ang ímong saninà.   Your shirt is white.
> Putî kádtong ímong saninà.   That shirt of yours is white.
> Putî ang tanáng saninà.   All the shirts are white.
> Putî tanáng ímong saninà.   All your shirts are white.
> Putî daghang saninà.   Many shirts are white.
> Ang saninà kay putî.   The shirt—it's white.
> Ang saninà, putî.   The shirt—it's white.

The predicate is an adjective and the complement is a subject, a nominative nominal. The particle *kay*[5] (or a pause) is used if the sentence is in inverted word order (predicate second, subject first). Such a thing constitutes the fronting of a topic, meaning that *kay* precedes a focus (new info). As in the informative sentence, the predicate serves to inform, to provide new information, but unlike the two-nominal informative sentence, the adjectival predicate is not marked for case.

LOCATIVE SENTENCES

This is another simple non-verbal sentence, with the attribute-predicate being a *place*.

So what is an attributive predicate?

All the non-verbal sentences are attributive; the predicate is some sort of attribute. (Even many verbs in Cebuano are attributive: *Napulá ang isdà.* The fish got red.) Adjectives are obviously attributes. But

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[5] Most grammar books leave this usage of *kay* out entirely but where I live near Davao it is common. It is similar to the Tagalog "inversion particle" *ay* in some ways. The other most common usages of *kay* are (1) to follow or replace the conjoiner *tungód* "because", (2) to mark the "relatively less X" nominal in a comparison of two nominals against an attribute (see below), and (3) as a predicate linker in indirect quotations (reported speech) and in idiomatic combination with certain usages of certain conjoiners such as *tungód, basta*, and a few others.

also a nominal used to describe another nominal (two-nominal sentence) is a kind of attribute; attribute means "description, trait". Existential predicates name a thing's attribute as that of existing or being present or concurrent with a possessor; presence or location is an attribute of sorts. Locative sentences name an attribute that is a place: a thing is described according to its location. So really all sentences are either verbal or attributive, and many verbal sentences in Cebuano are attributive as well.

Back to locative sentences specifically. This sentence type is unique in that its predicate is a nominal that is either a specific place marked object (not subject like other non-verbal predicates) or it is a LOCATOR, a deictic pronominal. Locators mean "here, there" so are pronouns referring to a non-specific place. ("Put it in my hand," is specific; "Put it here," is pronominal, anaphoric, thus non-specific in that a pronoun or noun placeholder is used to mention something that could have been named more specifically.) Locators are the only pronoun in Cebuano that are not marked for case, but they can still reside in the complement position, for example in a verbal clause that requires an optional[6] locative complement, a word meaning "there" can be this object even though such pronouns (often called "deictics" for short) are not marked as objects, subjects, or any other Grammatical Relation. By "not marked" we mean you will "never" see the phrase markers preceding them: *sa dídto, *og dinhà, *ang dirí, etc. They are just used alone as a whole nominal and don't need to be marked anyway since as locations within time and space they would not tend to be subjects anyway. The exceptions are numerous enough to mention: if a nominal meaning something like "that time" is used, and has to be marked subject, the demonstrative pronouns such as *kádto* might be used since they can be marked for case. So there is overlap between the apparent meanings and usages of the locators and the demonstratives, which is natural since they're closely related by a common spelling pattern. This happens in English too, for example this dialectal sentence pairs a locator and a demonstrative to indicate a single nominal doubly located: "Fred, go get me *that there* pair of jogging shorts…"

Besides specific locations marked object and more vague locations meaning "here, there" expressed by a single locator, there is often a pair of locators used. We will mention in passing that Cebuano crosses the line of what those who crave literal English translations would consider sensible use of locators (words that mean "here, there") and peppers its sentences with so many of these words that even the native speaker can't explain what they mean. But they are generally important as opposed to "that there" in the English example above. You just have to study the sentences you don't understand to discover what the pronoun is referring to; a section in this study will give some examples of less obvious reasons for this pestilence of locative pronouns.

The most obvious reason for using a pair of words meaning "there" is to avoid ambiguity. This is because the word *sa* is used to mark both location-objects and possessors; *sa* is used to mark both dative and genitive nominals: *…ang bus sa lungsod…* So Cebuano can be ambiguous between the two interpretations "the bus in the city" and "the bus of the city (the city's bus)".

Also, because of the position of the second locator (often *dídto*), it can frequently be interpreted as either a complement or a predicate linker or a predicator…remember the map is not the ground it describes. It is the natural rhythm and flow of Cebuano that we want to discover, and we have not set out to push Cebuano into a corner where it must obey a grammar book written for foreigners. But I will warn you that the proliferation of words in Cebuano that supposedly mean "here, there"—but often don't, not exactly—is going to frustrate you if you expect to learn it overnight. Or from a book. This is one of those phenomena that promotes and supports the *feeling* of Cebuano so you have to absorb the context, the intention, and the patterning of these words, not just the individual "meanings" that words supposedly

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[6] "Requires an optional…" not a typo. See the section on Semantic Roles.

have. If you remember that   *kádto*   means "kádto" and not really "that", you are ahead of the game and headed in the right direction.

As a matter of fact, small children just learning to speak, from ages 1 to 3, pepper their sentences with *dídto, ádto, ádto-dídto,* etc. in an attempt to find this native feeling, where the word fits in and why it is so often heard. They are ahead of me.

Finally, pairs of locators should "rhyme", such as *ádto…dídto, ári…dirí, ánhi…dínhi,* etc. Rhyming pairs will be chosen from the same row in the chart Demonstratives and Locators used in this book to show the spelling patterns used to generate all these words. Otherwise you'd be saying something like "*I'll come there," or "*I'll go here," which is understood and sometimes done, but not teachable as grammar.

Besides the location-predicate, locative sentences usually have a subject complement, the nominal being located:

> Túa silá dídto sa lungsod.   They are there in town.   (predicate is   *túa…dídto…sa lungsod*; subj-complement is   *silá*.)

> Dídto silá sa lungsod.   They are there in town.   (with   *túa*   omitted*, dídto* shifts to the first position slot)

> Sa lungsod silá.   They are in town.   (with   *dídto*   also omitted, the specific location   *sa lungsod* shifts to preposit position for the simplest possible locative sentence except):

> *Dihâ*!   Stay right where you are!   (only the predicate is required; in context the rest would be obvious; as in most imperative clauses, the doer "you" is not expressed if it's singular "you".)

In the above progression, the first, wordier sentence is the form used to avoid ambiguity; consider the next set of sentences:

> Didto ang bus sa lungsod.   The city's bus (the bus of the city) is over there.

> Dídto ang bus sa lungsod.   The bus is in the city.

> Túa ang bus dídto sa lungsod.   The bus is in the city.

Of the three sentences above, all are correct but only the third is unambiguous—it only has one possible meaning. So the second locator, which conveys no meaning as such, acts as a buffer, a separator, to prevent the specific location   *sa lungsod*   "in/at/to the city"   (dative case) from being mistaken for genitive case "of the city" as in the first example.

It is generally considered more correct to use the *ng-* locators (such as *ngádto* instead of *dídto*) to indicate an included sense of motion; but either is common and correct enough for general use:

> Moadto ang bus ngádto (OR   *dídto*) sa lungsod.   The bus will be going to the city.

But that is a verbal sentence, even though the verb is formed from a locator   *ádto*. The use of *ngádto* here also prevents the ambiguous interpretation   *ang bus sa lungsod*   the bus of the city.

If you're like me, long after you've understood the basics of most important facets of Cebuano grammar you will still be puzzled about the various uses of locators not listed here. Our detailed look at these time/place pronouns that can mean practically anything will be saved for their own chapter later in this study. There is one even more flexible word you will hear many times in most conversations that really can mean anything: *koán* "y'know, whatever, whatchacall". Like all human languages, the vocabulary of Cebuano is vast and specific. Especially since it includes many local variations, it contains many words that are unknown to this speaker or that, or are rarely used. So if you're yik-yakking along and can't think of the exact word you want, you can just add the right grammar to *koán* and keep right on talking; people being what they are, if you stop to think you've lost your audience and you wouldn't want that to happen. There's a lot of talking to get done and unlike people who only know how to write and can't talk, talkers can't stop to think or there will be no listeners. *Koán* is a fully functional word that is heard very often in the speech of all sorts of folks, from ditch diggers to attorneys.

EXISTENTIAL SENTENCES

Existential predicates—meaning "there is"—are really an outgrowth of locative sentences; in Cebuano as in English, the same particle is used as part of the predicate in each. In English it's the word "there": "There is a man in the house." In Cebuano it is certain classes of the words that mean "there", the locators discussed in the previous section. The locators that end in -*a* and the locators that start with *d-* (two columns in the chart) can all be used as existentials meaning "there is" or "here is", with the correct locator chosen depending on where the EXISTENT actually is relative to the speaker and listener.[7] The details are in the chapters on existential sentences and locators.

The existential predicate is two-part, at least. In first sentence position (though certain constituents can be fronted ahead of tier 1), one of the allowed classes of locators occurs in preposit position followed by the allowed postposits and complements. If the complement slot-dweller is a short or long form pronoun, it is in this tier but if it is a noun phrase it usually is fronted or follows in the next tier. The first tier is (in standard existential sentences) linked to the second tier with the contraction of the nominative indefinite article *ing* and the preposit of the second tier always follows *ing* directly. As usual, *ing* is these days always spelled *'y*.

This second tier preposit is really the main predicate; it is the EXISTENT, the thing that is being said to exist. The locator and the existent (first and second tier preposits) combine to mean "there is an X". In a true existential sentence the existent is always indefinite, "a man, a rock, a neutron bomb", never "the man, the rock, etc." This is a language universal inherent in the semantics of existential predication: you can say Dirí ang tawo. "*The* (specific) man is here/there," but it is a locative sentence and it would follow the locative sentence pattern. In existential form it would be Dirí'y tawo."There is *a* man here." And again there can be two locators, one used as an existential predicator and the other as a locator: *Adía'y tawo dirí.* Here are some examples:

PREPOSIT	POSTPOSIT	COMPLEMENT	LINKER
Dihâ			ing
tawo		sa baláy.	
	Dihá'y tawo sa baláy. There is a man at the house.		

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[7] Although the short form of anáa, "náa", has come to be used as a general existential particle with no particular locative meaning, to learn this pattern correctly you have to understand that every one of the existential predicators in the *standard* formation (not *attributive* existential) is a locator or probably once was. The details and evidence are taken up elsewhere in this study.

Náa			ing
tawo		dihâ sa baláy.	
	Náa'y tawo dihâ sa baláy. There's a man over there at the house.		
Náa			ing
tawo		dihâ.	
	Náa'y tawo dihâ. There's a man over there.		

The participants of an existential sentence so far include only the two-part predicate—locator and existent—but a subject can be added.[8] If a subject complement is included it is a possessor of the existent. This is where Cebuano departs from English and expands manyfold the usefulness of existential constructions, to the extent that words meaning "own, have" are rarely used in Cebuano.[9] As mentioned above, the subject is in either postposit position (short form pronouns) or complement position (long form pronouns) of tier 1, but in complement position of tier 2 if it is a noun phrase, or else fronted ahead of tier 1. Some examples:

PREPOSIT	POSTPOSIT	COMPLEMENT	LINKER
Náa		siyá	ing
bató.			
	Náa siyá'y bató. He has a rock.		
Náa	ko		ing
bató.			
	Náa ko'y bató. I have a rock.		
Náa			ing
bató		ang tawo.	
	Náa'y bató ang tawo. The man has a rock.		
		Ang tawo	
náa			ing
bató.			
	Ang tawo náa'y bató. He has a rock, the man.		

That is a very lightweight introduction to existential sentences, which have more forms. The existentials *may* and *adúna* are treated in the main chapter on existentials since they are generally not recognized to be locators, but they are, and the evidence will be presented elsewhere.

We will show next the "attributive existential". In this construction, an attribute—most often a quantifier but not always—shifts forward to preposit position and thus becomes a predicate, and the linker used is the genitive indefinite article *og* instead of nominative *ing*. There can still be an optional subject as possessor; in fact, the possessive attributive construction is more common than the simpler subjectless attributive existential. The construction blends into the exclamatory sentence, a detail that will be covered elsewhere. The progression below starts with the standard locator-fronted existential predicate and shifts into the attributive existential form with the same meaning.

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[8] In a sentence meaning "There is a man at the house," the location is an adjunct-like or oblique complementoid. It is generally omittable because the main purpose of an existential sentence is to say something is present here or there. Getting more specific is extra, adjunct information, shown in complement position of the last tier as adjuncts generally are except when they're fronted ahead of tier 1.

[9] An exception is when the participant owns something that is not transient, in which case a verb could be used. For example, possessing eternal life in the Cebuano Bible is expressed as the verb *batón* "own" rather than the existential predicate which technically should be used only for ownership of something temporary—like a bottle of beer—although in general use the possessive existential extends into all kinds of possession.

PREPOSIT	POSTPOSIT	COMPLEMENT	LINKER
Túa			ing
daghang prutas		dídto sa lamesa.	
	Túa'y daghang prutas dídto sa lamesa. There is lots of fruit over on the table.		
Daghan			og
prutas		dídto sa lamesa.	
	Dagha'g prutas dídto sa lamesa. There is lots of fruit over on the table.		
Daghan		siyá	og
prutas		dídto sa lamesa.	
	Daghan siyá'g prutas dídto sa lamesa. He has lots of fruit over on the table.		

One more main type of existential sentence, using either the standard or attributive existential predicator, is the verbal existent. In such a sentence the finite verb directly follows the predicate linker *ing* or *og* and if the verb has its own complement it is treated as another existent, so instead of the verb's complement being marked *ang, ing, sa,* or *og*, as it would be in a verbal predication, it is marked *nga* the "same thing" marker, indicating the verb and its complement are both existents. So a sentence that means "I have more writing to do on the book," literally means, according to the Cebuano sentence pattern, "I have more to write and there's more to write on the book." But don't get hung up on translating possessive existentials literally into English, as English and Cebuano are unrelated at this point in their respective patternings.

PREPOSIT	POSTPOSIT	COMPLEMENT	LINKER
Náa	pa ko		ing
isulát			nga
libro.			
	Náa pa ko'y isulát nga libro. I have more writing to do on the book. pj		

The existential construction is of nearly infinite importance to using Cebuano like a native so we will stop now before we get started, and you can study the details when you get to the section on existentials.

VERBAL SENTENCES: Paired verbs and modified verbs

The topic of verbal sentences is so vast that we will in this chapter ignore all aspects of it that do not bear directly on word order as pertaining to the four position classes of tier structure analysis, so that you can learn about verbs when you get to that section. Pairs of verbs and verbs modified by predicators such as other verbs or adjectives used as adverbs constitute the main reason for a single predicate to be composed of at least two words in preposit slots of separate tiers. (Embedded clauses such as the various types of relative clauses are different because they usually just modify a single nominal.)

The verb is the predicate of the verbal sentence. There are examples, such as the existential sentence with verbal existent, shown in the previous section, where verbs behave somewhat differently. But the construction just mentioned still puts its verb in preposit position since it is existent, which is the main predicate of an existential clause. But existents are more often not verbs.

Generally the verbal sentence follows tier structure perfectly except when negated in which case the negative particle's tier is usually not linked to the verb's tier, but both are still preposits and the other aspects of tier structure analysis hold true. There are still the frontings and followings of adjunct and

frequent frontings of subject; fronting is discussed in a later section of this chapter in terms of what sort of things tend to be fronted, that is, put ahead of the first tier and not linked to the main sentence structure.

The most interesting instances of tier structure in verbal sentences are the use of various predicate modifiers such as time words, adjectives of manner, modality predicates that mean "can, might, want to, must, should, etc." Also it is very common to use two verbs which join in meaning to form a complex predicate, in a way that is rarely literally translatable into English but easy to understand once you see the tier linking pattern that obviously leaves a predicate in each preposit slot, linked to each other by *og* or *sa*.

The general idea in such sentences is that a finite verb occupies a preposit slot and a non-finite verb occupies the next preposit slot. The non-finite verb is either a *p-* verb (usually affixed *pag-* or *pang-*, but *pakig-, pa-,* etc. can also occur as non-finite forms). The predicate linker *sa* usually can or should precede the *pag-* and some of the other *p-* forms but is very often omitted; adding *sa* is generally allowed in such instances, especially with *pag-*. Another very common form of non-finite verb is formed by the root alone in the second preposit slot, and in this construction the predicate linker *og* is "always" used.

There are two different participant structures in general that link two verbs in one of these ways (the two methods—*sa pag-* and *og [root]*—are often interchangeable). A third method of linking two verbal predicates is with *nga*; used especially with the "classic modals"; see 1b below.

1. modal; one of the verbs conveys the main verbal meaning while the other one adds aspect or modality such as a sense of beginning, continuing, trying hard, ability to do, desire to do, etc.
   a. as mentioned above; the first verb is finite and the second non-finite: Maningkamot pa ko sa paglabá. I'll still try to do the laundry.
   b. classic modality predicates such as *buót* or *gusto* ("want, like"), *angay* ("should"), *kinahanglan* ("must, need"), *mahimò* or *pwede* ("can") can be affixed if used as the only verb (Migusto pa ko anà. "I still want that,") or used as a root (Gusto kong magbuhat anà. "I want to do that,") when occuring as one of a pair of verbs. These classic modality predicates occupy the first tier preposit slot while the finite verb occupies the second. Linking the predicates with *nga* is optional but done quite frequently. Less frequently, the modality predicate can also be affixed (especially *kinahanglan*[10]) with a second (finite or non-finite) verb following in the next tier's preposit slot. We will teach such aberrations as acceptable but not grammatical, being at least irregular from the more common pattern.
   c. adverbs of manner can work the same way as modality predicate by filling the first preposit slot in their adjective root form with the finite verb in second tier preposit position and linked by *nga*; on the other hand, the adverb of manner can also be formed by following the finite verb in second tier preposit position with the linking done by *og*. The two forms might have different meaning, however: *Maayo* ko unta*ng* magtrabaho. *It would be good* if I were to work. (BUT) Magtrabaho ko *og maayo*. I will work *well*.
   d. All these modal constructions have in common the fact that there is one doer for the two verbs; contrast with the periphrastic causative construction below.
2. periphrastic ("wordy") causative; this refers to two-part-predicate sentences where one doer (causer) somehow manipulates (via a causative verb) a second doer (causee) to do something

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[10] Some apparent exceptions to the pattern outlined here have been noticed with kinahanglan but so far the other modal predicates seem to conform. Kinahanglan is a derived word (root *hangol* "desperately fond" + ka-…-an + -in-) whereas most of the other modals are simple roots (*gusto, pwede, angay*, etc.) except *mahimò*. Only *kinahanglan* so far has been observed joining two finite verbs (itself with affix plus another affixed verb root) with *nga*.

named by the second verb The two predicators thus each have their own doer. (This study contains a lot more information on causatives in other sections.) The construction is otherwise very similar to modal constructions where two verbs are paired; one (the verb meaning "force, make, let, get someone to do, etc.") will be finite and the second verb, the one conveying the main verbal semantic content, will be non-finite, as above,

- a. (sa) pag- or other p- form
- b. og [root]
- c. nga [finite verb] is similar except usually the causative verb is one that takes a clausal complement, so nga introduces a whole clause with its own verb and complements while the other two constructions above use a non-finite verb which will usually have few complements. Example:
    - i. Misugyot siyá nga magpahulay akó.   He suggested that I relax.
    - ii. Gipugos níya og lingkod sa akó-a.   He forced me to sit down.
- d. of the three constructions above,
    - i. nga clauses have their own subject when they are a clausal complement, although it can be ellipsed as per the needs of the sentence and its creator; there is not a one-to-one correspondence between English and Cebuano as to when clausal complements vs. the below non-finite constructions would be used
    - ii. pag- clauses can have a sub2 doer when needed
    - iii. og clauses have no doer; the causee will be a complement in the first verb's clause

Examples of paired verbs, modal and causative (see Chapter 7 for many more examples of paired modal constructions):

PREPOSIT	POSTPOSIT	COMPLEMENT	LINKER
Walâ			( )
makapugós		silá	sa
paghimò		níya nga harì.	
	Walâ makapugós silá sa paghimò níyang harì. They could not force him to become king. pj (causer = silá; causee = (ka)níya; becoment = harì)		
Walâ			ing
makapugós		sa iláha	nga
mahimò		siyá nga harì.	
	Walá'y makapugós sa iláha nga mahimò siyáng harì. There was no one who could force them to make him king. pj (causer = ing; causee = sa iláha OR kaníla)		
Maayo	untà		nga
mabuhat		nímo ang ímong kaugalingong baláy.	
	Maayo untang mabuhat nímo ang ímong kaugalingong baláy. It would be good to build your own house. pj		
Angay	ka		nga
moadto			og
sayó.			
	Angay kang moadto'g sayó. You should go early.		
Sayó			nga
moadto		silá.	
	Sayóng moadto silá. They'll go early.		

Sigi	lang		og
magpanday		ánang ínyong baláy.	
	Sigi la'g magpanday ánang ínyong baláy. Just go ahead and build that house of yours.		
Sugdan	pa	níla ang ílang pagpaulì.	
	Sugdan pa níla ang ílang pagpaulì. They'll still proceed with their homegoing. pj (pagpaulì is not a predicator here; it's marked *ang* because it is subject of *sugdan*. This is a simple predicate clause.)		
Nahumán		siyá	sa
pagyawyaw.			
	Nahumán siyá sa pagyawyaw. He's finished complaining. pj OR Nahumán siyá og yawyaw. (same meaning)		
Sa pagyawyaw	pa	níya,	
gusto		sa íyang asawa	nga
maghilak.			
	Sa pagyawyaw pa níya, gusto sa íyang asawa nga maghilak. As his complaining went on, his wife wanted to cry. pj		
Gisugò		silá sa maestra	nga
magtapok.			
	Gisugò silá sa maestra nga magtapok. The teacher told them to gather. pj		
Mihangyò		ang inahán	nga
luwasón		ang íyang anák.	
	Mihangyò ang inahán nga luwasón ang íyang anák. The mother pleaded that her son would be spared. wf		
Mosugót	ba	si Mama mo	nga
motan-aw	ka	og sini?	
	Mosugót ba si Mama mo nga motan-aw ka og siní? Will your mother agree to let you go see a movie? wf		
Gikinahanglan	na	namò ang bag-ong baláy.	
	Gikinahanglan na namò ang bag-ong baláy. We already needed the new house. pj		
Kinahanglanon	pa	namò	sa
pagpanday		sa ámong baláy.	
	Kinahanglanon pa namò sa pagpanday sa ámong baláy. We still need to build our house. pj		
Magkinahanglan	pa mi		og
panday		sa ámong baláy.	
	Magkinahanglan pa mi og panday sa ámong baláy. We still need to build our house. pj (this version is preferred vs. the next, according to our informant)		
Kinahanglan	pa mi		nga
magpanday		sa ámong baláy.	
	Kinahanglan pa mi nga magpanday sa ámong baláy. We still need to build our house. pj (but see previous version which was preferred over this one)		

SOME COMPLEX SENTENCES ANALYZED BY TIER STRUCTURE

PREPOSIT	POSTPOSIT	COMPLEMENT	LINKER
Gisugilon	ko na	kanímo nga…	
		dínhi akó	
matawo.			
	Gisugilon ko na kanímo nga dinhi akó matawo. I already told you that it is here I was born. smi125		

Two separate clauses. Clause 1 pred = *gisugilon*. *Nga* is a complementizer, not a predicate linker. Clause 2—a clausal complement of the verb *gisugilon*—is a single tier containing the predicate *matawo* with adjunct *dínhi* "here" fronted for focus and the complement subject *akó* shifted ahead of its pred because of locative fronting which attracts (optionally) the other complement to directly follow it.

PREPOSIT	POSTPOSIT	COMPLEMENT	LINKER
Dilì	ka man		( )
unsaon		niánang mgá ingkanto.	
	Dilì ka man unsaon niánang mgá ingkanto. Those enchanters won't do anything to you. smi133		

The complex (2-part) predicate is *dilì unsaon* "won't do something". Subject *ka* follows in postposit slot since it's a short form. *Dilì* is rarely linked to its predicate.[11] *Niánang mgá ingkanto* is sub2-doer of main pred *unsaon*.

PREPOSIT	POSTPOSIT	COMPLEMENT	LINKER
Misugò		siyá nga…	
		si Juan Pusong	
isulód		sa usá ka halwa.	
	Misugò siyá nga si Juan Pusong isulód sa usá ka halwa. He ordered that Juan Pusong be put inside a cage. bjp14		

Periphrastic Causative sentence; two single-predicate clauses joined by complementizer *nga;* second clause is a clausal complement of the first. *Nga* is not a predicate linker here. Causer is *siyá* and Causee is the king's guards but not mentioned, making the second clause passive; its subj *si Juan Pusong* is the least omittable nominal thus subj. As is frequently done in the second clause of a sentence, the subject is fronted mainly to make the sentence sound better.

PREPOSIT	POSTPOSIT	COMPLEMENT	LINKER
Naghilak		akó	
kay pugson	man gud ko	sa hari	(sa)
pagminyò		sa maanyag níyang anák	
ug dilì	ko		( )
buót			nga
makigminyo		níya.	

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[11] The negative predicate modifiers *dilì* and *walâ* are regularly linked to their verb only when the verb is affixed *ka-* as the short form of MAKA-.

	Naghilak akó kay pugson man gud ko sa Hari pagminyo sa maanyag níyang anák ug dilì ko buót nga makigminyò níya. I'm crying because the King will force me to marry his beautiful daughter and I don't want to get married to her. bjp19b-c

1. *Naghilak akó*: simple one-verb predicate with one participant, a subj.
2. *kay pugson…anák*: separate whole clause that functions also as a reason adjunct to 1 above. Periphrastic causative: complex predicate is *pugson ( ) pagminyò* "will force to marry" with the predicate linker (*sa*) not used, but it could be added.
3. *ug dilì…níya.*: new independent clause with three tiers; complex predicate is *dilì ( ) buót nga makigminyò* "don't want to get married". *Dilì* as usual is not linked to the next predicator but *buót* and *makigminyò* are linked by *nga*.

PREPOSIT	POSTPOSIT	COMPLEMENT	LINKER
Dilì	ba		( )
tataw	kaayo	nga…	
		ang tawo	
walâ	gyud		ing
igabalos?			
	Dilì ba tataw kaayo nga ang tawo walâ gyu'y igabalos? Isn't it quite obvious that mankind never has anything to repay with? abng24		

A single adjectival clause with a clausal complement that is an existential clause with a verbal existent. The first clause has a negative preposit predicate modifier that isn't linked to its predicate.

1. *Dilì ba tataw kaayo…*   "Isn't it quite obvious…"   *tataw* "obvious" is the main predicate of this adjectival clause. The complex predicate is *dilì ( ) tataw* "isn't it obvious".
2. *nga* "that" complementizer introducing second clause which is complement of first clause
3. *ang tawo walâ gyu'y igabalos?* "Man never has anything to repay with?"   *gyud* is a postposit thus interposed between the existential predicate *walâ* and its linker *ing; igabalos* is existent thus main predicate because it's an existent, not because it's a verb. Again the subj of the second clause is fronted ahead of the predicate, in part because it is a long form (noun phrase) which can't be in complement position in the first tier of the existential clause.

PREPOSIT	POSTPOSIT	COMPLEMENT	LINKER
Naluoy		siyá sa íyang kaugalingon	
kay gipasagdán	na man lang	siyá	nga
malumós		sa subâ.	
	Naluoy siyá sa íyang kaugalingon kay gipasagdán na man lang siyáng malumós sa subâ. He felt sorry for himself because he'd just been left to drown in the river. abng2		

Two clauses, with the second serving as reason adjunct to the first.
1. *Naluoy siyá sa íyang kaugalingon…*   "He felt sorry for himself…"
2. *…kay gipasagdán…subâ.* "…because he'd just been left to drown in the river."   Complex predicate is *gipasagdán nga malumós* "left to drown". This is an example of two finite verbs joining their meanings into a more complex meaning.

PREPOSIT	POSTPOSIT	COMPLEMENT	LINKER
		Kaniadtong	
batan-on	pa ko,		
kanunay	ko		nga
gihapuhap ug gihagkan		sa ákong agalon.	
	Kaniadtong batan-on pa ko, kanunay kong gihapuhap ug gihagkan sa ákong agalon. Back in that time when I was still young, I was always being stroked and kissed by my master. abng8		

Two clauses, the first serving as fronted time adjunct to the second clause. The first clause itself has a time adjunct of its own which is fronted to the clause and is in the form of an attributive predicate describing the subject complement *ko* which is in postposit position since it's a short form. The second clause *kanunay kong…agalon* has a time modifier as first preposit and a pair of verbs as main predicate. The complex predicate of the main clause is *kanunay nga gihapuhap ug gihagkan* "always stroked and kissed".

PREPOSIT	POSTPOSIT	COMPLEMENT	LINKER
Íya	ko		nga
gipakaon			og
maayo			
arón	ko		( )
modakóp		og ilagâ.	
	Íya kong gipakaon og maayo arón ko modakóp og ilagâ. She let me eat well so I would catch rats. abng9		

This is not where tier structure analysis falls apart, but where we make allowances for unanswered questions. The exact nature of the genitive doer (which we call sub2 or secondary subject in this study) is controversial even among accomplished linguists so we will not try to say exactly what they are in certain scientific terms. But in this sentence it looks like the preposed form íya + nga is a predicate partner. This is not true however, although the same word order holds true, íyang is just a possessive adjective used to modify a verb instead of a noun. That suggests that the -ON/-AN/I- verb is more nounlike or gerund-like than a true verb, but in saying this we are comparing to English, which only flies so far. But we have to recognize the pattern because the preposit-postposit-complement-linker pattern is still observed.

The purpose of fronting the sub2 appears to be rhythmic, in parallel construction to the prior sentence (the last sentence analyzed, see above.)

The adjective *maayo* is linked to the predicate to give it adverbial predicatory power meaning "well". The meaning of the complex predicate is "allowed to eat well" or "fed well". This word order is important because if it had been *Maayong gipakaon níya akó…* it would mean "It was good that she fed me…" with *nga* linking the same two predicate partners instead of *og*.

The second clause is an adjunct of purpose giving the reason for the action of the first clause. Here we can't help but notice that *arón*, unlike most conjoining particles, acts like a predicator since it attracts postposits. But where is the linker? It could be added. Conjoiners are idiomatic and link or not as the speaker wishes; *arón* is short for *kay arón nga* which is considered somewhat old-fashioned but "more correct" if you think in terms of using linkers with preposits. The reason *arón* is a preposit is that it is a locator; like *adúna* it is not recognized as such and the evidence for it will be presented elsewhere.

CONCLUSION

These are just a few examples of sentences analyzed according to tier structure analysis. As you can see, there is nothing to be gained by forcing unwilling sentences to conform to any framework, but by starting with a framework that doesn't change, we can learn something about sentence patterns that do fit as well as sentences that don't; an unchanging framework (vs. a moving target) provides a set format for contrasting different constructions by making everything related. In short, the tier structure analysis gives us a consistent set of questions to ask about the structure of every sentence it encounters, and in the course of answering these questions we build up a feeling for Cebuano sentences that is based on native phenomena as opposed to the normal routine of interpreting everything in terms of Western language patterns.

To restate it even one more time: if you use a framework that includes predicate linkers as the norm, you can always point out which constructions don't fit this norm. But if you use a framework that doesn't include linkers as the norm, then linkers have to be treated as an aberration, and it could easily be argued that your framework is based on a little thing we call "English".

POSTPOSIT SUB-POSITION CORRECT ORDER

The chart below was constructed by writing down in columns any chain of two or more consecutive postposits found in native sentences. Gradually by allowing space between members of found chains but no changes in their relative order, we discovered that there are type classes within the postposit slot which are apparently always or almost[12] always observed even when three or four or more postposits occur together.

The particles and pronouns listed in the columns below are listed because we have found them specifically in a limited study to occur in these relative positions, but this doesn't mean that other words in their class won't be found there also as the study continues.

The class distinctions are pretty clear among the various particles but these classes are hard to describe; their meaning and usage are not limited to the glosses given below. These particles are a "learn by listening" phenomena and their exact usage depends on their context.

Definition of the Postposit position classes

1. **Pronoun,** short forms only of personal and demonstrative pronouns including *karón*, nominative and genitive only (dative pronouns are always complements, not postposits even in abbreviated form such as *nakò* for *kanakò* or *sa akò* for *sa akó-a*.)
2. **Time Zone,** includes two identical positions since two particles from the class can occur together in either order
   - **aspect,** involving subtleties of expressing time (*na, pa, nang daan…*)
   - **affirm,** yes/no questions (*ba*), positive assurance/affirmation, (*bitaw*), negative assurance as warning, complaint, negative consequences (*bayâ*)
   - **assert,** adds assertiveness to a statement, (*bitaw, ba, bayâ*)
3. **Pronoun,** same as the pronoun class above
4. **Plus/Minus Zone,** adds or subtracts meaning, members, intensity

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[12] At this early stage of the study we have found no discrepancies from the order shown in this chart.

- o **additive,** "also, again, as well" (*usáb, upód*)
- o **intensity,** "very, always" (*gayód, kaayo*)
- o **limiter,** "only, just" (*ra, lamang*); even up to (*ganì*); just a short while (*usà*)

5. **Reality Zone,** involves factuality or its opposite or both
   - o **fact,** reporting what was said (*daw, kunó*); stating agreement (*lagí*); explanation (*ugód*); "of course, really" (*tuod*)
   - o **minus unfact,** negative side of maybe: speculation, uncertainty, (*kahâ*); "rather" (*hinuon*)
   - o **plus unfact,** positive side of maybe: hope, wish (*untà*); new info (*diáy*); maybe (*tingali*)
6. **Pronoun,** same as the pronoun class above

Relative Order of Postposits Occurring Together

PRON.	TIME ZONE		PRON.	PLUS/MINUS ZONE		REALITY ZONE			PRON.
nompron[13]	aspect	aspect	nompron	additive	additive	re: fact	-unfact	+unfact	nompron
genpron[14]	affirm	affirm		intensify	intensify				genpron
	assert	assert		limiter	limiter				
ka	na	na	mi	usáb[15]	usáb	daw	kahâ[16]	untà	ko
ko	pa	pa	tu	gayód	gayód	kunó	hinuon	diay	nâ
mo	nang daan	nang daan	ta	kaayo	kaayo	lagí		tingali	ta
ta	ba	ba	ko	upód[17]	upód	ugód[18]			ni
	bitaw	bitaw	ron			tuod			mo
	bayâ	bayâ	ka	ra[19]	ra				mo
			siya	lamang[20]	lamang				tu
				ganì[21]	ganì				
				usà[22]	usà				

About The Particle *man.*

Man is a semantically empty particle that never occurs alone. Part of not occurring alone is that it always directly follows or precedes certain other words that it likes such as the negative particles (which are postposits so are not on this chart). *Man* is unique among postposits in that it doesn't have its own position class within the postposit slot, but combines directly with other particles that it likes, forming a bonded pair. It is not shown in the following chart, even though it is a postposit, since it can be inserted "anywhere". It regularly forms pairs with other words and has to be studied on its own to learn what it does.

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[13] nompron = nominative pronoun short form only
[14] genpron = genitive pronoun short form only
[15] usáb, sab, sad, upód, pod
[16] kahâ, kayhà, kayâ
[17] see note on *usáb*
[18] ugód, gud
[19] ra, da
[20] lamang, lang
[21] ganì, nganì, ugaling, galing, galì
[22] usà, usâ, sâ, unà

Conclusions

In any sentence there is a postposit position directly following the preposit position that can be populated by a string of postposit particles. The order of these postposits within their sentence position is easy to remember because it makes obvious sense, but until you see the template you are lost. The template is easy to understand once you understand its basic simplicity. There is only a little to know:

- Not every combination implied by the chart above can occur in the natural language; the chart shows what order *allowed* combinations occur in. The chart doesn't say what's allowed, the language does; and the specific sentence context further specifies what can be included.
- The postposit slot has three separate non-pronoun zones, color coded in the chart, that occur in this order in the sentence:
    - gray: time zone (comments about *happening*: duration, yes/no questions, assertion both positive (affirmation) and negative (warning).
    - green: plus/minus zone (comments about *intensity*: adds and subtracts quantities and qualities to make them less or more intense or higher/lower quantity etc.
    - red: reality zone (comments about *reality* or potential reality of an event, including comments about the source of information)
- There are two identical columns for the time zone since there can be two time zone particles next to each other in interchangeable order.
- Postposit pronouns (yellow) show up in three columns but it's simpler than that: they occur *just before and/or after*
    - the whole string of postposits or
    - the time zone
- The plus/minus zone has two identical adjacent slots since there can be a plus-minus pair, a minus-plus, a plus-plus, or a minus-minus.
- The reality zone has three slots in this order:
    - fact: comments about factual or assumed factual events, ideas, etc.
    - -unfact: negative comments about things that aren't assumed to be real
    - +unfact: positive comments about things that aren't assumed to be real
- Most postposit strings are two words and many such strings (pairs) are very common; the commonly occurring pairs convey frozen meaning(s) when the two words occur together. There can be longer strings, some of which also have frozen or idiomatic meanings or some of these can consist of innovated expressions, or adjacent separate packets of expression. While strings of three, four or more postposits do exist, they are not very common.
- The way to learn the use of these words is not through experimentation but by observation and slowly absorbing their meaning by examining their use in many contexts by native speakers. These words might be the hardest part of the language to use but they are easier to understand by paying attention to how others use them properly. Someone who has always spoken Cebuano uses them the way they *sound right*; when this state is reached, that is fluency.

Notes on Postposit Relative Order

Nominative and genitive pronouns that have no short form (silá, siyá), can occur as postposits:
    Batà pa siyá kaayong tan-awon.   She still looks very young.   wfI348

FRONTING FOR FOCUS AND TOPIC, AND NOT

Focus and topic are covered elsewhere so we will give quick examples of these kinds of fronting and then the other kinds of fronting that don't appear to be for these reasons. Focus and topic are covered in their own chapters on Discourse Pragmatics.

Fronting for Focus, providing new information:

Ikáw ang mag-ayo anà.   You will be the one who will fix that.   pj
Doer-subject fronted in response to a question "Who?" that is either stated or implied by the circumstances.

Kanâ ang gidalá níya.   That is what he carried.   mbw
Doee-subject fronted in response to "What?"

Alás nueve isugód ang trabaho.   The work will be started at nine o'clock.   mbw
Time-adjunct fronted in response to "When?"

Sentence focus and predicate focus are in default word order:

> Magatrabaho [mi].   [We will be] working.   mbw
> Predicate focus. Verb first (default) in response to "What will you be doing?" Subject is omittable.

> Gihatag ko ang tanáng kong kwarta.   I gave all my money.   mbw
> Sentence focus (nothing is omittable) is in default word order answering the question "What happened?"

Fronted Topic, stating what the discourse is about

The focus (new info) is last and preceded by *kay* or a pause/comma; topic (known or presupposed or implied or easily accessible/guessable info) precedes focus (new info). (*Kay* is a marker of inverted sentence order, not translatable in this usage.)

Kanáng irô kay nabuang.   That dog, it's gone mad.   mbw

Not Topic or Focus: Other Reasons for Fronting Constituents

As someone who writes many words, I can assert that another important reason for varying word order is just to make something sound better. Various reasons there are why something might better sound (Yoda just ask), but for the most part it's the need for variety. The listener doesn't want to hear the same rhythm or pattern repeated over and over; it's monotonous. Skillful use of a variety of sentence patterns in a single section of discourse tickles the ear and keeps the listener interested, while repetitiousness draws attention to itself and/or puts the listener to sleep. In fact it is a technique of hypnosis, used also by trance-inducers in the field of religion and politics. And repetition of a pattern might sound good once or twice in the right place. Or it can be used for emphasis:

> I offered you my food. I begged you to drink my water. I loaned you my money. I forced you to
> eat when you said you wanted to starve. And what did you give me in return? (The listener is

now highly focused to hear the answer because of the melodramatic repetition of a sentence pattern. A very similar bit of melodrama from American history: "Give me liberty or give me death." The mirroring of a sentence pattern is a spice, making a phrase memorable, or if used routinely, a measure of unimaginative writing.)

But in general the waves should be broken up or the listener will be washed overboard. Here are some reasons why you will find non-default word order, with sentence constituents spoken or written before the predicate, and what the common constituents are that are found in fronted position. These do not have to involve focus or topic and if not won't use the same constructions; and as usual, fronted constituents will not be linked to the tier 1 preposit with the exception of the preposed genitive doer (sub2) which is always linked since it is structurally an adjective, and adjectives are linked to the word they modify.

The kinds of constituents most often found ahead of the predicate are *subjects of all kinds, adjuncts, and genitive doers*. In addition, these constituents are also often preceded by the following words and types of words:

- adjunct (the adjunct then the subject precedes the predicate)
- subject (the subject then the adjunct precedes the predicate)
- verbal clause
- vocative (a form of address inserted anywhere)
- nga (complementizer)
- nga (relativizer)
- ug "and" (conjoiner)
- apán "but" (conjoiner)
- kon "if, when" (conjoiner)
- arón "in order to" (conjoiner)
- maó nga "so, resulting in" (conjoiner)
- ug tuod man "and of course" (conjoiner)

The information above was gleaned from cataloging all pre-predicate frontings in two folk tales written or spoken by native speakers of Cebuano. As is apparent, there is such a thing as a position class "zero", preceding all others, which is reserved for clause introduction particles including conjoiners, relativizers, complementizers, and forms of address such as "Hey, dude!…" The only other constituents found ahead of fronted constituents were other fronted constituents and whole clauses.