CEBUANO-BISAYA UTTERANCES OF GRADE 2 PUPILS

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Abstract
This paper aimed at clarifying and further establishing the Cebuano – Bisaya language through a descriptive analysis of the Cebuano-Bisaya utterances of Grade Two pupils from Don Bosco Technology Center during their Mother Tongue class. Moreover, the study determined the Typological Linguistic Universals by Greenberg (1963) applicable to Cebuano, Tanangkingsing’s (2009) Nonverbal clauses, and Pesirla’s (2010) Verb Predicate forms and Content Words existent in the utterances. The study was a descriptive analysis of two regular classroom sessions or two 40-45 minute class between the Mother Tongue teacher and 45 pupils who were all boys. Interesting results were found such as the use of only three kinds of nonverbal clause, the dominance of nouns in their utterances, the existence of all kinds of verb predicates, and the application of 3 out of 6 typological linguistic universals. The results were taken from a teacher – pupils discourse under the supervision of the said academe.

Keywords: Cebuano, clauses, linguistic universals, typology, utterances

1. INTRODUCTION
In 1974, the Department of Education implemented the Bilingual Policy through DECS Order No. 25, s. 1974 to develop the Philippines as a “bilingual nation competent in the use of English and Filipino” (House Bill 93, p.1). Because of the lack of ability in English, only few house bills were passed to enhance the said policy (Yanagihara, 2007, p.176). One of these bills was the use of a lingua franca namely, Ilokano, Tagalog, and Cebuano as a language of instruction during the Estrada Administration in 1999 (Yanagihara, 2007, p.176) and the House Bill No. 93, introduced by then Honorable Eduardo R. Gullas, which was an act to strengthen and enhance the use of English as the
Medium of Instruction (House Bill 93, p. 2). On the July 23, 2012, Republic Act No. 10533 - the “Enhanced Basic Education Act of 2013” has been passed, or more commonly known as “K+12” (Republic Act No. 10533, page 1). Section 4 of R.A. 10533, paragraphs 5-7, states that the basic education levels will be taught in languages understood by the learners. For kindergarten and the first three (3) years of elementary education, the learners’ regional or native language shall be used and for Grades 4 to 6, a mother language transition program shall be formulated to gradually introduce English and Filipino as media of instruction (R.A. 10533 Sec.4 Par. 5 – 7, page 3).

According to Delfin (2013) during her presentation on “The ‘WH’ of Mother Tongue-Based Multilingual Education.” the integration of the mother tongue (L1) to the Philippine educational system in the primary levels is done in two ways: (i) as a medium of instruction (MOI) and (ii) as a subject or learning area (C.A. Delfin, seminar, September 21, 2013). DepEd Order No. 74, s. 2009 institutionalized Mother Tongue-Based Multilingual Education (MTBMLE) as a fundamental educational policy as this starts learning where the learners are, and from what they already know, the latter being the basic premise for the K+12 program (Gallego and Zubiri, 2011).

Lahug Christian School, a private institution in Lahug, Cebu City, implements MTBMLE as a medium of instruction in school. Unlike other private institutions that have incorporated MTBMLE as a subject or learning area, in Lahug Christian School, they use Cebuano, as a medium of instruction in their Christian Living classes. A class is a mix of pupils of various ethnicities as there are foreign students, Cebuano students, and students coming from various other islands in the Philippines. The Cebuano students speak in Cebuano, but they code switch to English from time to time. This scenario is not only evident in Lahug Christian School, but also in other academic institutions, most especially the private schools. After the implementation of the K+12 program, it was observed that not everyone in class is fluent or even capable of speaking the mother tongue. Therefore, a descriptive study on children’s utterances is needed for such a study will give the linguistic community a glimpse of the pupils’ ability and knowledge in speaking the L1.

This study also introduced the concept of linguistic universals. Greenberg (1963) emphasized that human languages have something in common, thus the study on universals was made. In line with this, the researchers wanted to describe the Cebuano-Bisaya language using Greenberg (1963). As Guerra (2008) made an accounting of Palestinian Arabic, Spanish, and
Korean Languages using Greenberg (1963), the researchers hope to bring at the local levels the study on universals using Greenberg (1963).

The researchers’ interest in this study also stems from the desire of enriching the Cebuano-based linguistic study. Cebuano language is one of the most spoken languages in the Philippines and studies by linguists, Tanangkingsing (2009), Enricuso (2012), Rubrico1998), and many more have enriched it. Instead of the usual phonological and morphological approaches in language study, the researchers attempted to describe the Cebuano utterances of children from Grade two through their discourse data in class and analysed at the clausal levels with a focus on content words as well. Greenberg (1963) for the linguistic universals, Tanangkingsing (2009) for Nonverbal clauses, Trosdal (1992) for Verb Predicates and Pesirla (2010) for Content Words are to be used in describing the children’s Cebuano utterances. Furthermore, there is a need for this study as this will allow administrators to ascertain which appropriate procedures they could have for efficiency as students from public and private schools differ in terms of backgrounds and upbringing. Thus, students from private and public schools differ in their usage in the L1.

**Mother Tongue-based Multilingual Education (MTBLE)**

The Philippines is in the midst of a multilingual situation, that is, the formulation and implementation of various language and education policies. As it is an archipelago, the Philippines is home to 171 languages. Aside from the vernaculars which a Filipino could speak, he or she could speak several other languages of a wider communication reach such as a regional lingua franca (e.g. Cebuano), a national lingua franca (e.g. Filipino) and a global lingua franca (e.g. English). Most Filipinos are bilinguals, if not, multilinguals. This fact is considered as helpful and healthy, but has been a source of difficulty among educators and policy makers (Gallego and Zubiri, 2011, pp. 405-406).

On the 23rd of July 2012, the Congress of the Philippines, during the Third Regular Session of the Fifteenth Congress in Manila, signed Republic Act No. 10533 or the “Enhanced Basic Education Act of 2013”. This act introduces the Mother Tongue-Based Multilingual Education (MTBMLE) which is a curriculum and a teaching methodology which “begins with the learners’ first language as a medium of instruction and builds good bridges to other languages, while maintaining the use of L1 for as long as possible” (Calsiw, Camacam, Dekker, Gawon, Lumasoc and Sabian, 2010, p. 1). In much simpler terms, Mother Tongue-Based Multilingual Education (MTBMLE) is “education, formal or non - formal, in which the learner’s mother tongue and additional languages are used in the classroom. Learners begin their education in the...
language they understand best - their mother tongue - and develop a strong foundation in their mother language before adding additional languages” (C.A. Delfin, seminar, September 21, 2013).

Supporting the goal of "Every Child-A-Reader and A-Writer by Grade 1", Mother Tongue-Based Multilingual Education was implemented in all public schools at the start of the School Year (SY) 2012-2013. The eight (8) major languages, along with others were considered as the languages of instruction. These languages are: Tagalog, Kapampangan, Pangasinense, Iloko, Bikol, Cebuano, Hiligaynon, Waray, Tausug, Maguindanaoan, Maranao, and Chabacano. On February 17, 2012, the Guidelines for the Implementation of the Mother Tongue-Based Multilingual Education or DepEd Order No. 16, s. 2012 were released. Inclusive in the guidelines are the objectives of the MTBMLE, the area of focus, the teaching and learning process, teachers' training and development and the preparation of learning resources (DepEd Order No. 16, s. 2012, p. 1).

In summary, MTBMLE aims to address the following areas: (i) language development, for a strong education, (ii) cognitive development, for Higher Order Thinking Skills, (iii) academic development, for mastery of the competencies for each of the learning areas, and (iv) socio-cultural awareness, for the pride of the learner’s heritage, language, and culture (DepEd Order No. 16, s. 2012, p. 3). It shall be implemented in two modes: as a learning/subject area and as a medium of instruction (MOI). As a subject, the focus is on the development of beginning reading and fluency from Grades 1 to 3. As a medium of instruction, the learners' Mother Tongue (L1) shall be used. Implementation of the Mother Tongue-Based Multilingual Education as a medium of instruction (MOI) could be done in two ways: (i) the kindergarten or Grade 1 class will be taught in the children’s mother tongue which has been modeled in public schools or (ii) in schools with three (iii) or more mother tongues or variations of the Lingua Franca, without an approved orthography spoken by the pupils, the Lingua Franca in that area shall be used as the medium of instruction (MOI)(DepEd Order No. 16, s. 2012, pp. 3-4).

Mother Tongue-Based Multilingual Education is important, for children whose mother tongues are not used in schooling face a number of problems such as, difficulty in learning the concepts in a second language, decrease in self-esteem and confidence, a limit in the learners’ ability in developing a second language, etc. As suggested by the educational theory, children learn best from a familiar starting point such as a familiar language. Using the Mother Tongue therefore assures efficiency in learning for it fosters a better understanding of the concepts introduced (Calsiw et al., 2010, pp. 1-2).
Linguistic Universals: Typology

The word typology has various uses and definitions depending on the context it is in, whether it is linguistically inclined or not. The most common definition of the word is roughly synonymous with classification or taxonomy, a classification of the phenomenon under the study of types, specifically structural types (Croft, 1993, p. 115). An example of a linguistic definition variant of the term typology refers to the classification of structural types of different languages. Within this definition, an individual language is taken to belong to a single type, and a typology of languages is a definition of the types and an enumeration or classification of languages into those types. This definition of the term typology is now referred to as typological classification. This definition connotes that the term typology, in contemporary linguistics, has to do somehow with cross-linguistic comparison. A notable characteristic feature within this definition of Linguistic Typology is its fundamental prerequisite that is referred to as cross-linguistic comparability (Croft, 2003, p. 132). Cross-Linguistic Comparability is the ability to identify the same grammatical prodigy or phenomenon happening between different languages across human extent. According to Croft (2003), an individual cannot make rationale regarding subjects and topics across languages without any compact esteem that a person has correctly identified the category of subject or topic in each language and compared subjects to different languages. This in fact, with regard to Croft (2003), a fundamental and fragile issue in all linguistic theory, nonetheless, this problematic situation has remarkably commanded little to no attention relating to its importance for linguistic theorizing. 

Within Greenberg’s (1963) original paper referring to word order gives the basic answer to the problem of cross-linguistic comparability:

It is here assumed, among other things, that all languages have subject–predicate constructions, differentiated word classes, and genitive constructions, to mention but afew. I fully realize that in identifying such phenomena in languages of differing structure, one is basically employing semantic criteria. There are very probably formal similarities which permit us to equate such phenomena in different languages... The adequacy of a cross-linguistic definition of “noun” would, in any case, be tested by reference to its results from the viewpoint of the semantic phenomena it was designed to explicate. If, for example, a formal definition of “noun” resulted in equating a class containing such glosses as “boy,” nose,” and “house” in one language with a class containing such items as “eat,” “drink,” and “give” in a second language, such a definition would forthwith be rejected and that on semantic grounds.

(Greenberg 1966, p. 74)
Greenberg (1963) presented a way of describing the world’s languages by means of universal tendencies. Greenberg (1963) pioneered the said universal tendencies and concluded with a total of 45 universals. These 45 universals are then filed to three categories namely: typology universals, syntax universals and morphology universals. Along with it are the 30 languages to which Greenberg’s Universals (1963) are applicable.

Typology Universals:

Universal 1

In declarative sentences with nominal subject and object, the dominant order is almost always one in which the subject precedes the object” (Greenberg 1963; 1966, p.36) English, for example, has a so-called SVO order or Subject-Verb-Object order. This means that in an unmarked sentence, the subject is followed by the verb, which is in turn followed by the object. It is the order we find in an English sentence such as in:

Example 1

John ate apple.
S V O

Greenberg (1963) noticed that the vast majority of the world’s language has an SO-order. The OS-order was deemed to be excessively rare, and on most of this observation, he formulated his infamous language universal.

Universal 2

In languages with prepositions, the genitive almost always follows the governing noun, while in languages with postpositions it almost always precedes.

Prepositions in this case refer to words governing, and usually preceding, a noun or pronoun and expressing a relation to another word or element in the clause.

Example 2

Kiche (VSO with prepositions):
Le r-qänla l Molly
The POSSESIVE-foot the Molly
'Molly's foot’ (literally ‘the foot of Molly’)
(Bigelow, et al. 2005:25)

Japanese (SOV with postpositions):
Tanaka no hisyo
Tanaka POSSESIVE secretary
'Tanaka's secretary’
(Whaley 1997:25)

According to Guillen et al.’s study translated by Jimenez (1904), ‘sa’ and ‘in’ in Cebuano-Bisaya language can be an ergative that are the case of the actor or agent in non-actor focus verb forms and the case of possession, in this case both ‘personal’ and ‘general’ roles of the genitive case, respectively

Universal 3
Languages with dominant VSO order are always prepositional.

Example 3
Tagalog:
Humiga ang butiki sa bato.
Lay the lizard “on” rock
(n.a, n.d. linguistics.byu.edu/faculty
/hwills1/ling430/lectures/lecture15.pdf)

Universal 4
With overwhelmingly greater than chance frequency, languages with normal SOV order are postpositional. A postposition refers to a word or morpheme placed after the word it governs.

Example 4
Korean:
Domabemi pawi wie nuwit’da.
lizard rock on lay
15
(n.a, n.d. linguistics.byu.edu/faculty/hwills1
/ling430/lectures/lecture15.pdf)

Universal 5

If a language has dominant SOV order and the genitive follows the governing noun, then the adjective likewise follows the noun. Agenitive is relating to or denoting a case of nouns and pronouns (and words in grammatical agreement with them) indicating possession or close association.

Example 5

As we know from French, the position of the adjective is not consistently the same in one and the same language. In French, the majority of adjectives follows the noun, but there is a minority which precedes it:
  a. J’ai un pensionnaire pauvre.
  b. J’ai un pauvre pensionnaire.
(Bisang)

Universal 6

All languages with dominant VSO order have SVO as an alternative or as the only alternative basic order.

Example 6

Kiche [Mayan : Guatemala] :
Xuch’äj le ixäq le läq.
Wash.PAST the woman the dish
‘The woman washed the dish.’
(Bigelow, et. Al. 2005:198)
Further implicational universals can be found in Greenberg’s Data through another paper by Vladimir Pericliev (1999, pp.40-51). The paper discussed the word order non-statistical implicational universals in the data from the familiar paper by Greenberg (1966 in Pericliev, 1999), and compared the results of the two investigations. Some problems in the universals proposed by Greenberg were shown, and 58 novel universals were uncovered, which are valid in the data set, consisting of 30 languages of wide, real, and genetic coverage. It hypothesized that a language universal is a statement which can have a different logical form and which can hold without exceptions in the data ("non-statistical universal") or with a limited number of exceptions ("statistical universal").

Pericliev’s (1999) study confirmed the validity of 9 of Greenberg's universals, but noted that 1 of these is supported in less than 4 languages, a plausibility requirement set up at the beginning of the study. It also showed that 3 universals are of uncertain validity since they take for granted properties of languages which in fact are marked as unknown/inapplicable in the investigated database. One universal (Universal 23) was seen to be false. Finally, 58 novel previously undiscovered universals were found to hold in the data. (Pericliev 1999, p.40-51)

To sum up, Pericliev’s (1999) studied the implicational universals in the 30 languages sample of Greenberg 1966 and compare the results of the two studies, Comrie’s (1979) and Hawkine’s (1982) and concluded that the paper by Greenberg is considered seminal in the field of language universals and that universals are uncertain, rather than indisputably valid in the database investigated, since they assume properties in languages.

**Cebuano as a Bisayan Language**

According to Rubrico (2006), Philippine languages are classified into six groups based on their locative relevance: Northern Philippines, Southern Philippines, Meso-Philippines, Southern Mindanao, Sama-Bajaw, and Celebes Sangir. Each classification is further subdivided into groups. The Meso-Philippine Language category has four subgroups: South Mangyan, Kalamian, Palawan and Central Philippines. Cebuano, the focus-language in this study belongs to the
Cebuan subgroup of the Bisaya languages, which is also a subgroup of Central Philippines languages. Boholano and Leyteño also belong to the same group as Cebuano.

As Cebuano is a Predicate-initial language, sentence construction is usually in this form:

STATEMENT > PREDICATE + SUBJECT + FINAL FALLING INTONATION.

The predicate functions as that which indicates which is said about the subject and which gives us a new information about the subject. The Cebuano predicate usually comes in two forms, as a nominal predicate or a verb predicate (Trosdal, 1992, page 16). An example of a Cebuano nominal predicate is:

Example 7

Taas siya. (He is tall.) = Where taas is the nominal predicate which means ‘tall’ in English. (Trosdal, 1992:16)

On the other hand, an example of a verb predicate is:

Example 8

Mukaon siya. (He will eat.) = Where mukaon is the verb predicate which means ‘will eat’ in English. (Trosdal, 1992:16)

The Cebuano subject, on the other hand, functions as that which indicates that about which something is said. Cebuano subjects could be a subject pronoun, a common pronoun, a proper pronoun or a personal pronoun. (Trosdal, 1992, p. 6). Here are few examples:

Example 9

Siya is a subject pronoun which means “He or She” in English. (Trosdal, 1992:16)
Balay is a common noun which stands for “house” in English. (Trosdal, 1992:16)

Example 11

Sugbu is a proper noun. (Trosdal, 1992:16)
Juan is a personal proper noun. (Trosdal, 1992:16)

_Cebuano Nonverbal Clauses_

Major grammatical elements are best discussed by starting with the Repair phenomenon in Cebuano utterances. According to Tanangkingsing (2009, p.62), repairs are usually done within a constituent. Constituent in this sense refers to the elements that make up the clause – the noun phrase and the verb complex. When there is trouble in the noun phrase, the repair is made within the noun phrase, same goes when there is a problem in the verb complex, repair happens within the verb complex as well. Repair in Cebuano in this case is syntactically-restricted for repairs are made according to the kinds of the constituents present.

As stated earlier, a clause is made up of two constituents, the noun phrase and the verb complex. The noun phrase consists of the head noun and all the possible markers before it. Markers are usually the case markers, modifiers, numerals, possessor pronouns and plural markers “mga”. The verb complex on the other hand consists of the main verb and the elements and particles present before it (Tanangkingsing, 2009). As validated from Tanangkingsing (2009), children’s noun phrases contain case markers – a demonstrative, a possessor pronoun, a numeral, a modifier, and a plural marker, each linked to the next word with nga. Sometimes, modifiers that are clausal are placed instead on the noun’s right side.

The next constituent is the verb complex which is made up of the head verb and its auxiliary particles (McGinn, 2001). According to Tanangkingsing (2009), a verb complex has four schemas: (i) There is a preference for which elements can occupy the first-element slot: these are the negators and interrogatives that always occupy this first-element slot, (ii) If there are adverbials at the same time, these adverbials can only occur after the first-element, (iii) in case there are neither negators nor interrogatives, the modal verb or an adverbial can be promoted to first-element position, and (iv) if none of these elements occur, then the main activity verb occupies the first-element slot. Clitic particles also occur in verb complexes and attach to the first element (be they a negator, an adverbial, or a verb).

As this study relies on children’s complete utterances during their Mother Tongue class, in order to generate clauses, Barrios (2007) was able to successfully conduct a study on the acquisition of case markings by L1 Cebuano Learners. Participants were grade two pupils as well who were able to provide complete sentences as descriptions of the pictures shown to them and who were able to generate the
fastest responses compared to grade one students coming from the same school. The picture description task (PDT) aims to measure the participants’ ability to produce correctly noun phrases and verb complexes. From both of the studies of Tanangkingsing (2009) and Pielago et al., (2010), five clauses are named to be used in the Cebuano language: (1) existential clauses, (2) possessive clauses, (3) locational clauses, (4) nominal predicate clauses, and (5) stative predicate clauses.

Existential clauses are the first type of nonverbal clauses according to Tanangkingsing (2009). Its functions are to express the existence of a referent and to introduce an entity into discourse. An object or a person’s existence in Cebuano is indicated through the use of aduna, or may and its location through nia, naa, and atua. The default expression for existentiality is naa with wala as the negative equivalent. The use of aduna, naa, nia, or tua alone signifies that it is used as an answer to a question or a comment.

Example 12

- Last week pud, aduna pu’y Pilipina nga naghikog.

‘Last week, there was also a Filipina who committed suicide.’ (Tanangkingsing, 2009:147)

Possessive clauses from the name itself, shows ownership or possession. Possession is shown through the addition of a nominative-marked possessor noun phrase to the indefinite noun phrase in an existential construction. When the possessor is pronominal, the existential verb is cliticized. Wala is used to negate possession clauses. (Tanangkingsing, 2009)

Examples:

Example 13

- Wala ko’y mga classmate nga Muslim.

‘I didn’t have classmates who were also Muslims.’ (Tanangkingsing, 2009:151)

Nominal Predicate Clauses on the other hand are divided into two, namely classificational and identificational. In the classificational clause, the predicate classifies the referent expressed in the nominative noun phrase of the clause. “The predicate noun is the label of a class of objects of which the Nominative noun is an instance. The predicate noun is typically a bare noun without a specifying determiner, and since it is a predicate, is interpreted as the head of the predication” (Reid and Liao, 2004). In the identificational clause, the predicate specifically identifies the entity expressed in the nominative
noun phrase. “An identificational predicate is either a definite common noun, or a personal noun, or a personal or demonstrative pronoun”. (Reid and Liao, 2004)

Example 14

-Kauban nako sa trabaho ang amiga niya.
‘Her friend is my colleague at work. (Tanangkingsing, 2009:154)

**Cebuano Verb Predicate**

Oral language realization, that is, speech, is a uniquely human activity by which human activity by which man effects communication with other members of the community to which he belongs. Because a natural language reflects human nature and a society’s peculiar adjustment to the world, each language has its own manner of expression embodied in a structural framework. When attempting to understand and speak a foreign language used by its native speaker, a learner tends to impose the structural rules and meanings of his own language and culture on that foreign language. He does not perceive that the constituents of his linguistic structures do not quite parallel those of the new language in position and meaning thus he is inclined to foreshadow the lexical units of his foreign language into his own structural modes (Trosdal 1992, p. 1). According to Trosdal (1992), the verb predicates of Cebuano-bisaya sentences can be of two classifications, Verb 1 (V1) and Verb 2 (V2). Verb 1 (V1) is a class of verbs in which the agent (doer) is the subject, it more-or-less corresponds to the English active voice.

**Vocabulary: Content Words and Function Words**

A morpheme is the basic unit of form and meaning. A morpheme which is meaningful on its own is a free morpheme, while a morpheme which can only be meaningful when attached to another linguistic unit, or another free morpheme in this case, is called a bound morpheme. In Cebuano, root words are considered as the free morphemes such as the root word tam-is (sweet), and a bound morpheme is the affix pinaka (prefix), which when attached to tam-is, gains meaning and becomes pinakatam-is (sweetest) (Pesirla, 2010, p. 4).

Free morphemes are further classified into lexical and grammatical. When a free morpheme is considered lexical, it means that the free morpheme is meaningful alone. When the free morpheme is classified as grammatical, it specifies the relationship among the lexical morphemes in the sentence. Lexical morphemes are also called as content words while the grammatical morphemes are called function words. According to Pesirla (2010), Cebuano content words are the Nouns, Verbs, Adjectives
and Adverbs, while the function words are the Pronouns, Prepositions, Conjunctions and Interjections. For this study, the content words in the utterances of the pupils are to be accounted for. A descriptive analysis on children’s nouns and noun phrases has already been made by Enricuso (2012). Huang and Tanangkingsing’s (2005) study on organization of repair in Cebuano and Tanangkingsing’s (2009) dissertation “A Functional Reference Grammar of Cebuano” paved the way for the completion of Enricuso’s (2012) study. Children’s first word or set of words are of universal interest to linguists and even to mothers. As observed from a number of studies, two categories, the noun and the verb, have always been the most proclaimed approaches. One of these studies belong to Enricuso (2012) who focused his study on the categories of noun present in a Cebuano child’s utterances and the noun phrase structures utilized by a Cebuano child. Enricuso (2012) did an analysis on the discourse data between two pairs of a mother and her child. The children were aged two (2) years and three (3) months and three (3) years and eight (8) months.

Enricuso (2012) utilized recording sessions before bedtime and during breakfast. The children's first 50 words were categorized and it was found out that the word class, People had the highest frequency in both of the children's noun production. When it came to the children's noun phrase, a preference for the simplest syntactic form (marker + noun) was evident and that the noun they paired with the marker was always under the word class, People. He (2012) found that children produced nouns generally under the concept of people and were able to expand their abilities to make noun phrases of various structures of the case markers and the nouns under the principles of simplicity, transparency and productivity. Content words are also considered as a word class bearing another name - open-class word. It is said that word classes have varying roles and are said to enhance the comprehension of reading and language (Furtner, Rauthmann, & Sachse, 2009, p. 91).

Verbs, on the other hand, are not that easy to learn since concepts introduced by actions are harder to remember compared to remembering objects we have seen. This is further strengthened by the claim that verbs are less tangible perceptually than nouns (Imai et al., 2005, p. 353; cf. Gentner, 1982; Golinkoff, Jacquet, Hirsh-Pasek, & Nandakumar, 1996). Another reason is the more intricate morphological structure of verbs which would require more grammar which is located in our procedural memory compared to objects or nouns which are located in our declarative memory treated as simple facts. Badalamenti (2001) evaluated the occurring frequency of nouns, verbs, adjectives, and conjunctions in texts by four popular authors, Chaplin, Shelley, Twain, and Smith. Their first 5,000 words indicate that the frequency distribution of nouns remains relatively constant throughout all the works. The nouns according to Badalamenti (2001) served as a basis for different usage variations of other word classes such as verbs, adjectives and more.
Overall, these studies will provide the frameworks to be used in this research on the applicable linguistic universals in the Cebuano Language, clause structures and functions, and content words. The use of the universals will determine if the Cebuano language is a language of distinct or similar characteristics as other world languages. Studies made on the Cebuano nonverbal clauses (Tanangkingsing, 2009), Cebuano Verb Predicate (Trosdal, 1992) and Content Words (Pesirla, 2010) will also allow the researchers to understand the constituents, structure and form of the Cebuano utterances found in the utterances of the Grade Two pupils.

The purpose of this study was to describe and analyze the Cebuano-Bisaya utterances of the Grade Two pupils of Don Bosco Technology Center during their Mother Tongue class. This study also aimed to assess the pupils’ fluency in using Cebuano as their Mother tongue and assist the textbook writers of Mother Tongue in the choice of words available in actual classroom settings.

Specifically, this study sought to answer the following questions:

(i) Based on Greenberg’s (1963) Theory on Linguistic Universals, what typological universals were applicable in the pupils’ Cebuano-Bisaya utterances?

(ii) What were the types of nonverbal clauses present in the gathered discourse data based on Tanangkingsing (2009)?

(iii) What verb predicate forms were found in the discourse data gathered based on Trosdal (1992)?

(iv) What content words were found in the discourse data gathered based on Pesirla (2010)?

2. METHOD

This study utilized a descriptive method of study using qualitative and quantitative data which were anchored on Greenberg’s (1963) Linguistic Universals, Tanangkingsing (2009) for Cebuano nonverbal clauses, Trosdal (1992) for Cebuano verbal predicates and Pesirla (2010) for Cebuano Content Words. For the quantitative nature of this study, clauses uttered were identified, tallied and tabulated. The qualitative aspects of the study pertained to the analysis of the structure and constituents of the utterances.

Research Environment

This study was conducted at Don Bosco Technology Center. Don Bosco Technology Center is a private all-boys Catholic Salesian school offering pre-elementary, elementary, secondary, tertiary and vocational programs. It is situated at Pleasant Homes Subdivision, Punta Princesa, Cebu City. The institution adopts the mother tongue based multilingual education and has a Mother Tongue subject for their grades one and two curriculums for this school year 2013-2014.
Research Participants

Research Participants

A grade two class was purposively selected as the participants of the study. Forty-five pupils were considered through the Mother Tongue teacher’s recommendation based on the following criteria: a) First Language (L1 or mother tongue), and b) Language used at home by majority of the students in class. As the mother tongue based multilingual education was only applied in the primary levels of the basic education curriculum, the grade two pupils were expected to have more utterance productions in Cebuano-Bisaya than younger pupils. As this is an all-boys school, utterances were made by male participants. The Mother Tongue teacher handling the class, trained for Mother Tongue and attended the workshops and seminars provided by DepEd for MTBMLE, prepared for the discussions, interactions, and tasks. The Mother Tongue teacher managed the class without the intervention of the researchers. The researchers intended to observe a grade two section provided by the assigned teacher. The entire 40-minute class was recorded, which was a total of two recordings for two consecutive days, coming from the participating grade two section. Each session consisted of a Picture Description Task (PDT) prepared by the teacher for the pupils, a classroom discussion between the teacher and the pupils, and a classroom interaction among pupils. For the selection of teacher and Grade Two section.

Research Instruments and Tool

The researchers communicated with the Mother Tongue teacher regarding the grade two section to observe – which grade two section had the most number of Cebuano speakers, and who had the most number of pupils who use Cebuano as their first language at home. For the first day, the teacher provided ten (10) pictures for the Picture Description Task (PDT). For the second day, the teacher asked the students to bring their own pictures for the Picture Description Task (PDT). For the picture description task (PDT), the Mother Tongue teacher gave the researchers the task of researching and producing of pictures signifying an action. The researchers prepared around 20 pictures and from these pictures, the teacher chose 10 pictures to use in class. These pictures were used by the teacher during Day 1 of the gathering of data for the Picture Description Task (PDT). As an assignment, for Day 2, the pupils were asked by the teacher to bring pictures which signify an action which were also used in another Picture Description Task (PDT).

The research used the two recorded discourse data of classroom interactions by the teacher and the second grade elementary pupils of Don Bosco Technology Center gathered from observing the Mother Tongue classes. The recordings lasted from 30 to 40 minutes. These recorded discourses contained the Cebuano utterances by the pupils and were used to describe the utterances of the children in
the Cebuano language. For the guidelines in the selection of pictures, the classroom discourses by the teacher and the pupils were audio recorded using Beats Audio recorder in a laptop. Video recorder and sound recorder applications in smartphones and digital single-lens reflect (DSLR) cameras were also used to strengthen the gathered data. The recorded discourse data were transcribed for further analysis.

*Research Procedure*

Beforehand, the researchers communicated with the teacher regarding the scope of the study and the picture description task. The Mother Tongue teacher, who is also the head of the Mother Tongue section of Don Bosco Technology Center, solely prepared for the two sessions of Mother Tongue class, from the classroom discussions to the giving of tasks to the pupils, without any intervention from the researchers. During the classroom session, researchers installed the necessary tools needed for the research such as video and audio recorders in a way not distracting to the pupils. Researchers did not involve themselves in the classroom discussion and activity.

For Day 1, the class started with an introduction for the next topic, which is on Verbs. Day 1 also consisted of a discussion on what Verbs are, and a Picture Descriptions Task (PDT). The pictures provided, were chosen by the Mother Tongue teacher herself as explained in the Research Instruments. They were used by the teacher in engaging the pupils into an interactive discussion. With the help of the pictures, the students provided descriptions using verbs. Day 2 started with a review on Verbs. As an assignment, this time, the pupils brought their own pictures for the Picture Description Task (PDT). Divided into groups, the pupils provided sentences describing the pictures with the use of verbs. The class discussions, interactions, and Picture Description Tasks for two days were the sources of discourse data for this study. The recorded discourse data were evaluated in terms of clearness (audio and visual) and were subjected further to analysis. For Day 1, there were three video recorders used, two of which were operated by the researchers (Video Recorder 1 and Video Recorder 2), and the third video recorder (Video Recorder 3) was operated by another USC AB Linguistics and Literature student. For Day 2, only two video recorders were used (Video Recorder 1 and Video Recorder 2), those operated by the researchers themselves. The video recordings were evaluated in terms of their clarity. Out of the video recorders, the videos taken by Video Recorder 1 were used since the other two video recorders had technical flaws – audio and video were not clear.

All two recorded discourse data from Day 1 and Day 2 were transcribed. The utterances of the pupils were classified according to the structures exemplified – whether they were sentences, phrases or clauses. The researchers acquired the help of two USC AB Linguistics and Literature students as their transcriber and glosser. A third year AB Linguistics and Literature student, enrolled in the Cebuano Course, did the transcribing. A fourth year AB Linguistics and Literature student did the glossing from
Cebuano to English. The researchers also acquired the help of a consultant and inter-rater. The consultant and inter-rater, a member of the USC Department of Languages and Literature Faculty, conducted a study on Mother Tongue. She validated the data gathered by the researchers and guided the researchers in their analyses.

3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This section focuses on the presentation, analysis, and interpretation of the two recorded discourse data on the Cebuano utterances made by the Grade Two pupils of Don Bosco Technology Center. The discourse data consisted of the interactions made between the students and the Mother Tongue teacher during their classroom discussions and picture description tasks (PDT).

Table 1 refers to Greenberg’s (1963) Universals applied in Grade 2 Don Bosco student’s utterances. For such, this study depends upon this authentic language data to evaluate each statement. Because the language data is a sample of the native languages, it is not comprehensive and cannot be used to discuss all of the universal tendencies. A select number of universals, therefore, are discussed—only those which can use the authentic language data to evaluate Greenberg’s (1963) assertions.

Table 1 Greenberg’s (1963) Linguistic Universals: Typology

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Universal Number</th>
<th>F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>57</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1 shows that there are only three typological universals present in the two-session recorded data of a whole Grade 2 class. Namely, these universals are: Universal 1, Universal 3, and Universal 6. Based on Pericliev’s (1999) study, Greenberg’s (1963) Universals are not absolute and
therefore some of his proposed universals may or may not be true for some languages. The universal that got the highest frequency rate from the data is Greenberg’s sixth universal tendency. It is specific in its application that complements both type I and type II language – VSO and SVO. It states that “All languages with dominant VSO order have SVO as an alternative or as the only alternative basic order”. This application is clearly seen in an excerpt from the extracted and transcribed data:

Example 15

D2149S1: “Ni-ambak si Guahaw sa lingkuranan”

V   S   O

English Translation: “Guahaw jumped on the chair.”

When written in Subject-Verb-Object:

“Si Guahaw ni-ambak sa lingkuranan”

S   V   O

In the example taken, it is understood that both sentences meant the same thing and that is Guahaw jumping on his chair despite the model rearrangement from type I (VSO) to type II (SVO). The second most evident universal from the gathered data as presented in table 1.1 is Greenberg’s third universal tendency which is specific in its application to type II languages. It declares that “Languages with dominant VSO order are always prepositional”. Thus Cebuano - Bisaya, as a type II language in this study, must be prepositional in order to confirm Greenberg’s assertion. This is the case, as shown in this example:

Example 16

D2U187S1: “Nagluhod ang bata sa simbahan.”

V   S   O

English Translation: “The child is kneeling down in church”

Whether Cebuano prepositions are separate or attached to the governing noun, they always precede the said noun. This supports Greenberg’s statement that most type I languages, by Percliev (1999), are prepositional. Utterance “D2U187S1” for example, shows that “ang bata” (the child) is the subject that is followed by a prepositional phrase that consists of a preposition and a noun. In “D2U187S1”, the preposition is “sa” (in) that precedes the noun “simbahan” (church), of which connects the noun subject.
and the prepositional phrase noun thus fulfilling a complete thought or idea. The least universal tendency that reflected in the gathered discourse data is Greenberg’s first universal tendency. This universal states that “in declarative sentences with nominal subject and object, the dominant order is almost always one in which the subject precedes the object”. Cebuano – Bisaya is a type I language, or a VSO language, where subject precedes object in normal or default word order.

Occasionally, this order will vary, as some sentences do not require verbs and others may take SVO word order. This flexibility in word order is partially attributed to the fact that Cebuano - Bisaya is heavily-inflected. However, whatever word order Cebuano - Bisaya utilizes, the subject does precede the object, as stated in Greenberg’s first universals. This is seen in the following sample taken from the discourse data:

Example 17

D2U86S1: “Nisayaw si Ariel ug Gangnam Style”

V S O

English Translation: “Ariel danced Gangnam Style.”

Nonverbal Clauses. Tanangkingsing (2009) introduced us to five nonverbal clauses used in the Cebuano-Bisaya Language. These nonverbal clauses were: (1) the existential clauses, (2) the possessive clauses, (3) the locational clauses, (4) the nominal predicate clauses, and (5) the stative predicate clauses. These clauses portray a function in utterances. The existential clause expresses the existence of a referent and mainly functions to introduce an entity into a discourse. The possessive clause, from the name itself, shows possession or ownership. The locational clause introduces the existence of a referent in terms of location. The nominal predicate clause performs the identification or classification of referents. The stative predicate clause performs the classification and modification of the nominative-marked NP.

Table 2 presents the Cebuano Nonverbal Clauses used by the Grade Two pupils of Don Bosco Technology Center in their utterances during their Mother Tongue class. These utterances came from the recorded discourse data of Day 1 and Day 2 during the classroom discussion, interaction and picture description task. Only the complete nonverbal utterances were considered, including those consisting of non-Cebuano words.

Table 2 Cebuano Nonverbal Clauses
From the discourse data gathered, Table 2 showed that only three nonverbal clauses were evident in the pupils’ utterances – the Existential clause, the Possessive Clause, and the Stative Predicate Clause. As the nonverbal clause with the highest percentage, stative predicate nonverbal clauses existed in the utterances of the pupils. In stative predicate constructions, a stative verb is used to modify a nominative-marked NP (Tanangkingsing, 2009). From Appendices B and E, it is observed that the pupils expressed the stative predicate nonverbal clause in three ways which were also discussed in Tanangkingsing (2009). The first one was the use of *dili*, to signify negation as in the example below.

Example 18

D2U267S: “Miss, di maklaru”
English Translation: “Miss, it is not clear.”

Another method was through the use of an adjective phrase. The example below showed this method:

Example 19

D2U279S1: “Miss, pareha lagi ming duha”
English Translation: “Miss, we are the same.”
The adjective phrase “pareha”, or in English “tha same” was used as a stative predicate. Lastly, a stative predicate was expressed by the pupils through not taking any verbal affixes to indicate stability, such as in the example below:

Example 20

D2U361S1: “Lima lagi ilang question, amu upat pa?”

English Translation: “How come they have five questions, and we only have four?”

If ever an affix was added like making lima to mulima, the addition of mu- to the verb would imply a change of state. As mentioned earlier, in existential clauses, a referent or an entity is introduced in the discourse (Tanangkingsing, 2009). As it was a classroom discussion and a picture description task was utilized as an activity, we expected a number of utterances coming from the pupils. In such utterances, pupils also introduced entities they observed from the pictures by mentioning and describing them, thus, the existential clauses were greatly evident. It was also observed that the use of existential clause happened as an answer to a prior question or comment in the discourse the existential clause was used.

Moreover, pupils used naa and aduna, default expressions of existentiality, as markers for their existentiality clauses, as in the example below:

Example 21

D1U50S2: “Naa pamay usa!”

English Translation: “There is still one more.”

Example 22

D1U53S2: “Aduna pay usa?” English Translation: “There is still one more.

They also used the negative equivalent wala as in the example:

Example 23

D2U240S1: “Wala siya’y amigo.” English Translation: “He does not have a
friend.”

*Wala* is still used to negate possession clauses.

**Verb Predicate.** Trosdal (1992) introduces us to four kinds of verb predicates and they are:

1. Verb 1 Factual
2. Verb 1 Nonfactual
3. Verb 2 Factual
4. Verb 2 Nonfactual

Verb 1 (V1) is a class of verbs in which the agent (doer) is the subject, it more-or-less corresponds to the English active voice. Verb 2 (V2) is a class of verbs in which the agent (doer) is the Cebuano genitive form, it more-or-less corresponds to the English passive voice. The terms “active” and “passive” are not used in order to avoid the impression of too great a similarity between dissimilar languages as Cebuano and English (Trosdal 1992, p.49).

Nonfactual refers to what is not (yet) a fact (not done) more-or-less corresponds to the English future tense. Factual refers to what is a fact (is being done, or was done) more-or-less corresponds to the English present and past tense (Trosdal 1992, p.49).

Table 3 Verb Predicate

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb Predicate</th>
<th>F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Verb 1 Factual</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Verb 1 Nonfactual</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Verb 2 Factual</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Verb 2 Nonfactual</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>60</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Tables 3 shows both the frequency count and the percentage of verb predicates of whether they are verb 1 factual, verb 1 nonfactual, verb 2 factual, and verb 2 nonfactual, as presented by Trosdal.
(1992), taken from the gathered discourse data utterances of Grade 2 pupils of the Don Bosco Technological Center during their mother-tongue class.

Table 3 revealed that all four, namely, verb 1 factual, verb 1 nonfactual, verb 2 factual and verb 2 nonfactual are present within gathered data. The highest amongst the four is verb 1 factual. This could be by the fact that the pupils were exposed to a picture-description task – where in pupils try to create a sentence out from the given picture, complete with a subject and a verb predicate, in Cebuano-Bisaya language.

Since verb 1, according to Trosdal (1992), corresponds to American English’s active voice and Factual mood, again according to Trosdal (1992), corresponds to actions that have begun, which more or less encompasses present tense, past tense, and the progressive, this would affirm to the researchers’ hypothesis that pupils who were exposed to a picture-description task are more likely to give utterances of sentence structures with verb predicates that are categorized as V1 Factual.

Example 24 is a description provided by a pupil to the picture.

Example 24


In Example 24, it was clearly shown that the picture presented to the students was a young girl crying which then prompts a student to utter ‘D1U185S1’ which is “Nihilak ang bata” – “nihilak” (cried) as the verb predicate and “ang bata” (the child) as the subject. According to Trosdal (1992), the presented excerpt from the data, is an example of an actor-focus verb predicate which then automatically categorize it in the Verb 1 (V1) section. The prefix “Ni” as shown in the utterance “D1U185S1” expresses a momentary or an immediately completed action.

Another example for this was when the children were presented a picture that depicts a girl reading a book.

Example 25

D1U234S1: Ang bayb ay nagbasa sa iyang libro.
Sample 25, clearly shows that the picture exposed to the pupils was an image of a young girl reading a book which then triggered one of the pupils to utter “D1U234S1” which was “Ang babay kay nagbasa sa iyang libro.” “Nagbasa sa iyang libro” (reading her book) as the verb predicate and “ang babay” (the girl) as the subject or the doer.

Despite the fact that samples 24 and 25 were different in sentence structure with sample 2.3.1 started with a verb predicate and sample 25 started with a subject, both examples are still considered Verb 1 Factual according to Trosdal (1992). Usually, in the Cebuano- Bisaya context, the sentence structure begins with a verb predicate. But at times the subject, the doer and the focus) takes the initial position. Thus, despite being structurally different, both sentences are considered to be part under one roof, Verb 1 Factual, since the focus of these sentences however, doesn’t change. The list of all V1 factual verbs is the following:

Table 4: List of Verb 1 Factual

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>VERB 1 FACTUAL</th>
<th>f</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>36</td>
<td></td>
<td>nakasabot, nagskwela,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>naghilak, nihilak, nagbasa,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>nagtan-aw, gatan-aw, namatay,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>naligo, natulog, naligo,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>niadtu, naglakaw, nagkaon,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>nagpakpak, niambak, nag-away,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>nikaun, nisayaw, naghugas,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>naghulagway, nagpakita, nagluhod,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>nag-ampo, nikatawa, nilakaw,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>nakasabut, naminaw, naglakaw,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>nagsayaw, naghugas, namisbis,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>namu-bo, nagsuwat, nagtanum,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>nagtapuk, nagsukmag, nagbadlung,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>nakadaug</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The second highest amongst the four categories by Trosdal (1992) present in the data is Verb 1 Nonfactual with 21.31 % out of a hundred. According to Trosdal (1992) prefixes such “mag”, “mo”,

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“mu”, “maka” and “makig” are all categorized as Verb 1 Nonfactual. These prefixes are evident in the following excerpt from the coding sheet.

Table 5 List of Verb Verb 1 Nonfactual

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>VERB 1 NONFACTUAL</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>f</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

19 mulingkod, manindog, mangadye, muagi,
magkuan, mangayo, mulihok, mutindog,
mubarog, maghilom, maminaw, makahibaw,
mukaon, musayaw, muinom, muluhod,
gisumbag, gitaas, maklaro

Unlike factual verbs, nonfactual verbs refer to actions that have not started yet and is equivalent to American English’s Future tense. As seen from the sample, majority that compromises the V1 nonfactual verbs has “mu” as its prefix, the data then affirms the participants of this study, which are the grade 2 pupils, that they are comprehensive enough in terms of motion-type verbs. Since, according to Trosdal (1992), “mu”/”mo” is widely on motion-type verbs.

Furthermore, the pupils are receptive to whether an action already took place or not. As observed from the picture, the child was about to put the fork with the spaghetti on it to her mouth. Realizing that the child still has not eaten the spaghetti and was about to eat it, the pupils in class used the affix mu-, which signified an action to be done, thus, mukaon.

With a total of 83.34% out of a hundred for Verb 1, the data reveal that the active voice is rather dominating than the passive voice. This indicates, as believed by the researchers, that the participants for this study are not yet exposed to a much more complex sentence structure considering their level of comprehension. Since when a sentence structure is in an active voice, the subject-verb relationship is straightforward and basic thus making it easier for a Grade 2 pupil to utter and use.

Lastly, out of a hundred, Verb 2 got a total of 16.66 % as presented in the data. This clearly shows that the passive voice was not widely used since, according to Trosdal (1993), Verb 2 is the Cebuano genitive form and is the Cebuano-Bisayacounterpart of the American English’s Passive voice. For suffixes such as V2”un”/”on”, “I”V2 and V2”an” as clearly shown in this sample excerpt from the
coding sheet indicates passive voice form of verbs as they only give focus to the non-agent subject of the sentence.

Table 6 List of Verb 2 Factual and Verb 2 Nonfactual

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verbs</th>
<th>f</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>VERB 2 FACTUAL</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>nagpakita, gitabangan, gisumbag,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>gita-as</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VERB 2 NONFACTUAL</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>isulod, ikaway-kaway, ikiay-kiay,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>sundon, basahun, ihatag,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>tagaan, minusan, tudluan, ipakita,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>tagaan,dad-a</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Content Words. Pesirla (2010) introduced us to four content words or open-class words (Furtner, Rauthmann, & Sachse, 2009) namely, the Noun (Ngalanpulung), Verb (Pulungdiwa), Adjective (Dagwayngalan), and the Adverb(Dagwaydiwa). These content words are considered as lexical free morphemes for they are meaningful even when they stand alone. Cebuano-Bisaya is one such language which also exemplifies the existence of these content words.

Table 6 showed the frequencies of the content wordsgathered from the discourse data on the Cebuano-Bisaya utterances of the pupils from Don Bosco Technology Center during two sessions, labelled Day 1 and Day 2 respectively, of Mother Tongue class. Only the Cebuano words were considered for the analysis. These utterances came from the classroom discussions, interactions, and picture description tasks of both Day 1 and Day 2.

Table 7. Frequencies of Content Words

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Content Words</th>
<th>Day 1 (f)</th>
<th>Day 2 (f)</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Noun (Ngalanpulung)</td>
<td>143</td>
<td>115</td>
<td>258</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Verb (Pulungdiwa)</td>
<td>135</td>
<td>106</td>
<td>241</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adjective (Dagwayngalan)</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adverb (Dagwaydiwa)</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

TOTAL 307 250 557
Table 7 reveals that all four content words appear in the Cebuano-Bisaya utterances of the pupils during two sessions of Mother Tongue class and that when ranked from highest to lowest in terms of total frequency, the ranking resulted to Nouns (Ngalanpulung), Verbs (Pulungdiwa), Adjectives (Dagwayngalan) and Adverbs (Dagwaydiwa) respectively.

Table 7 presented above revealed the dominance of Nouns (Ngalanpulung) in the pupils’ utterances with 258 Nouns uttered during their Mother Tongue class, followed by Verbs (Pulungdiwa) with 241 Verb utterances. This result conformed to the cross-linguistic investigations on the composition of children’s vocabulary dominated both by Nouns and Verbs.

Gentner (1982) proposed the Noun dominance hypothesis over Verbs. Gentner (1982) found that Nouns, since they were cognitively more coherent and accessible, made up the majority of a child’s first words compared to Verbs, whose concepts were harder to learn since they were less intangible than Nouns. Gentner’s (1982) claim, however, was challenged by other proponents who insisted that it was not always the case where the number of Nouns dominated the number of Verbs. In this study, the researchers saw that even if Verbs ranked second, it was not behind in terms of percentage and it also had a considerable huge value which was significant being the second most frequent, but this result may also have stemmed from the fact that the domain from which the discourse was taken was in a classroom setting, between the teacher and her students, while discussing about Nouns.

The results suggested as well that even if Cebuano-Bisaya is a predicate initial language wherein subjects and objects may be dropped in utterances, Nouns in the pupils’ utterances dominated. Other studies showed though that Nouns did not always have the predominant position though. For the Korean language, there was an equal usage of Nouns and Verbs (Choi, 1998), and a more frequent usage in Verbs for Mandarin (Tardif, 1996). Data suggested that unlike Nouns and Verbs, Adjectives and Adverbs in the primary levels of language learning, do not dominate the pupils’ vocabulary banks.

Table 8 Nouns in Cebuano Mother Tongue Class

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Types of Nouns</th>
<th>Day 1 (f)</th>
<th>Day 2 (f)</th>
<th>Total (f)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>People</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>164</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Place</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Things</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Animals</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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Table 8 shows that among the Nouns uttered by the pupils during their Mother Tongue class, the word class, People, had the highest frequency. This may be due to the fact that the data is gathered in a classroom setting, while the pupils are interacting with their peers and their teachers during discussions and classroom tasks. There was a need for pupils to address their teachers and their classmates during class and to use or to mention People in their tasks as examples, in this case, the Picture Description Task (PDT).

4. CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on the findings, these are the following conclusions:

First, Cebuano-Bisaya, although not one of the initial languages studied for Greenberg (1963), can be used to test the applicability of Linguistic Universals. Not all of Greenberg’s (1963) Typological Linguistic Universals were applicable to the Cebuano-Bisaya language. Cebuano-Bisaya, since a predicate-initial language, had only three Typological Linguistic Universals such as (i) Universal 1 (Subjects precede Objects), (ii) Universal 3 (Prepositional Sentences have V-S-O Order), and (iii) Universal 6 (S-V-O Order is the alternative for S-V-O Order).

Second, the domain of the discourse influenced the data gathered: the setting, the forms of relationships and interactions of the interlocutors, and lastly the topic. A task-based classroom activity also influenced the data gathered from the discourse. These factors have especially influenced the pupils’ use of nonverbal clauses. Although only three nonverbal clauses were observed, the results do not reflect the nonverbal clause usage of the entire Grade Two populace in Cebu.

Third, employing the pupils’ L1 (i.e. Cebuano) in a classroom that has been using an Official Language, in this case English, and the National Language, Filipino, is difficult but not impossible.

Fourth, the pupils construct their sentences with their subjects as the doer of the action. They are also capable of providing a verb in its present and past tense.

Fifth, there is the predominance of both the Nouns and the Verbs in the pupils’ utterances. The pupils have not learned Adverbs and Adjectives in Cebuano, or used them, as much as they have learned and used Nouns and Verbs in Cebuano.

Furthermore, these are the following recommendations based on the conclusions:

1. Other academic institutions in Cebu should also conduct a descriptive study on the use of the Cebuano-Bisaya (L1) in the primary levels.

2. Curriculum developers should make themselves aware on how the L1 is being used both by the pupils and the teachers in class through descriptive studies such as this.
3. The University of San Carlos should invest more on studies concerning the Cebuano language to further enrich the USC Cebuano Studies Center.

4. The future researchers should consider more sections as the participants for the study. Discourse data could be gathered from two to three sections of Grade 2 or from other grade levels such as Grades 1 and 3.

5. The future researchers should use other frameworks in the description and analysis of the Cebuano Language.

6. Aside from describing pupils’ Cebuano-Bisaya utterances in class, the future researchers should also conduct a description of the Mother Tongue teacher’s use of the L1.

REFERENCES


DepEd Order No.16, s. 2012. Guidelines on the Implementation of Mother Tongue-Based Multilingual Education.


