

Phonological, Lexical, and Morphological Analysis of the Philippine East Miraya Bicol-Pilar Dialect

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Abstract

The paper describes the vowel phonemes of the Pilar variety of East Miraya Bicol spoken in the Philippines. It also reports on the level of mutual intelligibility of this variety with other East Miraya dialects, and identifies its more common derivational and inflectional morphemes. It employed five instruments: the Swadesh list, the Praat, the JPlot Formant, the Pear Film, and the Math 139 Frequency Counter. Many Bicol speakers do not distinguish between [ɛ] vs. [i], and [ɔ] vs. [u] in pronouncing native words, and therefore consider each pair of sounds as belonging to one phoneme. The Pilar dialect, therefore, has a three-vowel system: a low central /a/, a front /i/ (with two allophones [i] and [ɛ]) and a back /u/ (with also two allophones [ɔ] and [u]). Historical spelling and practice, however, necessitate the use of five vowel symbols, namely “a,” “e,” “i,” “o,” and “u” to represent the Pilar phonemes in writing. The greatest mutual intelligibility using Pilar dialect as the point of reference occurs with Pilar and Daraga dialects while the lowest is with Pilar and Donsol dialects despite the fact that Pilar and Donsol are municipalities of Sorsogon Province while Daraga is a town in Albay Province. Words in the Pilar dialect may be formed by a root or stem plus one or more affixes, or they may consist of a particle, which is invulnerable to affixation but cannot stand alone without a host. On the whole, the study found derivational and inflectional morphemes, which signal a wide array of modal and aspectual expressions.

Keywords: *Phonology, Lexicon, Morphology, East Miraya, Philippines*

Introduction

One of the changes in the Basic Education Curriculum brought about by the K-12 program, also known as the Enhanced Basic Education Program (or Republic Act 10533), is the introduction of Mother Tongue-Based Multilingual Education (MTB-MLE). This intends to facilitate learning as learners start from where they are (Nolasco, 2009). MTB-MLE requires the teaching of the mother tongue and the use of it as medium of instruction from Kindergarten to Grade 3 and provides for a gradual transition to the required languages (English and Filipino).

In the whole country, however, only 19 out of the more than 170 languages were chosen by the Philippine Department of Education (DepEd) to be the first languages (L1) in which teaching and learning materials were produced. For the whole Bicol Region, Bicol Naga was assigned as L1 for the MTB-MLE instruction. However, its six provinces Albay, Camarines Sur, Camarines Norte, Catanduanes, Masbate, and Sorsogon have each a distinctively different dialect.

Moreover, each dialect has various sub-dialects, which may vary from one town to another within a distance of even less than a kilometer. According to Lobel and colleagues (2000), “of all the regions in the world, the Bicol Region surely ranks among the highest in linguistic diversity.”

Thus, in areas where the pupils’ L1s are not adopted for instruction, they are forced to use a mother tongue that is not actually theirs. Compounding this situation are ill-prepared teachers who have not received any form of training during their pre-service years on MTB-MLE pedagogy. Rico and Nuñez (2015) tried to identify the literacy level in the vernacular of Bicol University College of Education students majoring in Bachelor of Elementary Education (BEED), along with their pedagogical competence in using mother tongue as a medium of instruction and the level of awareness on issues related to MTB-MLE. The respondents admitted to a serious lack of preparation and expressed the need to be trained in mother tongue instruction.

To address this problem, the Department of Education (Region V), a non-government agency called Intervida Philippines (now EDUCO), and Bicol University—in a joint effort—tried to identify the alphabet system and develop orthographies for particular sub-dialects not chosen as L1s. The expectation was that these efforts would pave the way for the writing of localized and contextualized learning materials (LMs) in the L1s.

The Bicol University Language Center, mandated by Bicol University to develop and implement research programs on languages as per Bicol University Administrative Order No. 434, No. 6 series of 2008, conducted in 2010 initial descriptive studies on the Bicol dialects. Not only was this a response to the Mother

Tongue-Based Multilingual Education, especially in the development of instructional materials in the dialect, but it was also a means to highlight Bicol as a unique and organized yet dynamic language. According to Payne (1997), “the products of descriptive linguistic research constitute part of the reference materials necessary to develop indigenous materials and written literature. Good linguistic research communicates to minority-language speakers and to surrounding communities that the language is viable and worthy of respect.” In 2003, UNESCO emphasized that language is both a tool for communication and an attribute of people’s identity and empowerment. In 1992, it likewise said that linguistic rights should be respected.



Figure 1. Map of the Philippines highlighting the Bicol Region

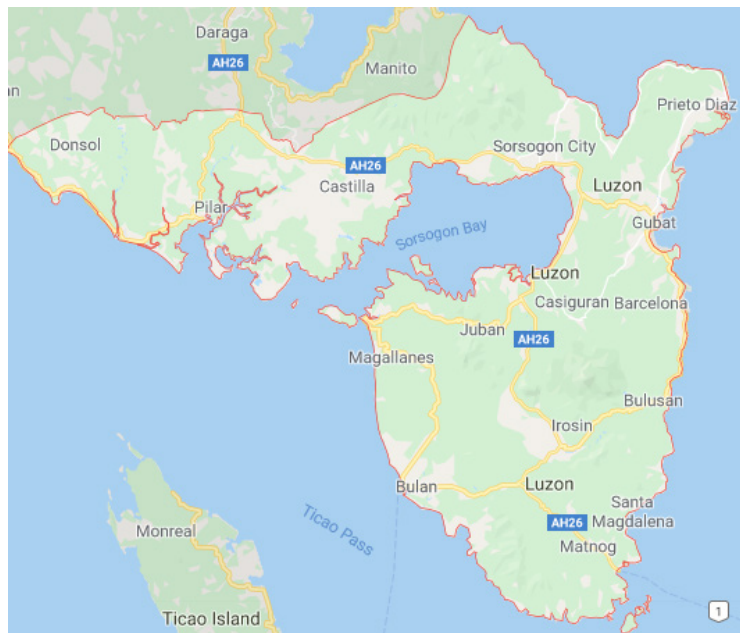


Figure 2. Map of Sorsogon

Pilar (Figures 1 and 2), a first class municipality in the province of Sorsogon, Philippines, is located at the south of Luzon Island and forms part of the Bicol Region. According to the 2015 census, it has a population of 74,564 people.

The Bikol languages are a group of Central Philippine languages spoken mostly on the Bicol Peninsula of the island of Luzon and also parts of Catanduanes and Burias Islands and Masbate. Bikol-Pilar dialect is one of six East Miraya dialects. As classified by Lobel and colleagues (2000), the East Miraya dialects are further subdivided into Central (Guinobatan), Far East (Camalig, Daraga), and Southeast (Jovellar, Donsol, Pilar).

The research is one of a series of studies on the different dialects of Bikol. It describes the vowel phonemes of the Pilar variety of East Miraya Bikol spoken in the Philippines; reports on the level of mutual intelligibility of this variety with other East Miraya dialects; and identifies its more common derivational and inflectional morphemes. It can guide educators in the preparation of orthographic rules in each dialect. It can aid teachers and curriculum planners in the implementation of Mother Tongue-Based Multilingual Education (MTB-MLE). It can serve as reference for future linguistic researches of graduate and undergraduate students. This type of linguistic

investigation usually leads to unintended but favorable results, such as dictionaries, grammar, and references for scholars, both local and foreign, studying the Bicol dialects. The results of the study will serve as a data base for Bicol University and other linguistic groups presently compiling a dialect continuum in the Philippines. When languages are not documented, it becomes increasingly challenging to identify subsequent word borrowings, dialect mixing, language invasions, and migrations which all affect the original contours of the language being investigated.

The study relied heavily on the structuralist approach that Ferdinand de Saussure and Leonard Bloomfield introduced in their linguistic analyses. Phillips (2014) mentioned that every linguistic process, a mere utterance, for example, is governed by a system of underlying laws. This approach upholds that language is an elaborate operation of highly organized internal phonological, lexical and morphological structures. The form of the language, whether oral or written, is determined and shaped by the meaning and function created in the speakers' linguistic system. Each speech community has its own way of speaking and referring to things based on the shared speech conventions which may be analyzed as a formal system of differential elements. Thus, each dialect is distinct but it can also have shared features with other dialects. Describing a language will help people discover the rules that govern

the use of that language.

According to Fromkin and colleagues (2011), speakers of a language have some knowledge of the internal structure of a word because their mental grammar includes a mental lexicon of morphemes and the morphological rules for their combination. But those who are not native speakers need to understand the phonological, lexical, and morphological underpinnings of that language in order to learn it.

Not very many studies have been conducted on the Bicol language. Ironically, foreign authors like Mattes (2014), Wolfenden (2001), and Lobel and colleagues (2000) undertook the effort of studying the Bikol language. The lack of linguistic studies generally makes it difficult for researchers to find references

Materials and Methods

The data consisted of recorded lexical counterparts of the Swadesh list. Only selected words from the 200-word Swadesh list containing the vowels were used. The data also included the recordings of the Pear Film narration from six informants. The informants were chosen based on the following criteria: (1) they are native speakers of the dialect, (2) they have lived in the area for at least 10 years, (3) they have no speech defects, and (4) they are of reputable character. There were three males and three females of varied ages. Only the morphemes used in the narratives given by the informants in describing the Pear Film were discussed. It is not a grammatical sketch of the dialect.

There were five instruments used in the research: the Swadesh List, the Praat, the JPlot Formant, the Pear Film, and the Math 139 Frequency Counter—all of which can be downloaded from the internet including the instruction on how to use them.

For the phonological analysis, the informants were asked to write down on paper across each word in the Swadesh list the dialect word counterparts. The Swadesh List, set out by Morris Swadesh, includes words ranging from 100, 200, or 400 words most likely to be present in any language as native vocabulary. They are said to form the basic core vocabulary, which can facilitate comparative studies of typologically similar and different speech varieties. In the research, the 200-word vocabulary was used. The words in the list were read orally by the informants, and the utterances were recorded by the researcher. The recordings were

to support their present work. However, a growing interest on language studies has recently been noted. De la Torre (2017) tried to determine the degree of linguistic similarity and inherent intelligibility between Standard Bikol and Sorsogon dialects as basis for the contextualization of MTB-MLE while Cunanan (2015) studied the dialect area of Bikol-Sorsogon. Rosero (2016) produced a grammatical sketch of Masbateño, a Bikol dialect spoken in Masbate, while Andes and co-workers (2013) investigated the lexical, phonological, and morphological analysis of Bikol-Legazpi and Bikol-Naga dialects. Among graduate students, Olayres (2010) compared Filipino and Bisakol, while Asejo (2019), Macinas (2016), Dio and Jamora (2014), and Lodronio (2011) either produced instructional materials or assessed the MTB-MLE implementation in the West Miraya, Pioduran, Sorsogon, and Pilar dialects.

analyzed, synthesized, and segmented using Praat, a computer program developed by Paul Boersma and David Weenink of the Institute of Phonetics Sciences of the University of Amsterdam. Of its eleven functions, only the spectral analysis was used, which showed the formant frequencies F1 and F2, which are the resonant frequencies of the vocal tract. F1 measurement corresponds to the length of the pharyngeal cavity. This means that the longer the cavity, the lower the F1 is. On the other hand, the shorter the cavity, the higher the F1 is. This measurement shows the tongue height. F2 measurement corresponds to the length of the oral cavity according to the frontness or backness of the tongue body. The longer the front cavity, the lower the F2 is while the shorter the front cavity, the higher the F2 is (Lodge, 2009). The relationship between the F1 and F2 values shows the acoustic quality of the articulation of vowel sounds, or vocoids. The JPlot Formant, a computer software developed by Dr. Shawn Osterman at the Internetworking Research Lab (IRG) at Ohio University, was utilized to plot the phonemes and determine the vowel placements in the graph. This process gave the accurate representation of how the sounds were produced. Lastly, to check the existence of the vowel phonemes, the Math 139 Frequency Counter was employed which determined how many times the letters signifying the vocoids appeared in the transcribed narratives of the Pear Film.

For the lexical analysis, the Bikol-Pilar dialect counterpart of the Swadesh list was compared to the already existing data on the dialect counterparts of

Guinobatan, Camalig, Daraga, Jovellar (which are parts of the province of Albay), and Donsol (which, like Pilar, is part of Sorsogon province). The Swadesh list was used in determining the mutual intelligibility using Bikol-Pilar dialect as the point of reference in relation to the other East Miraya dialects. The more there are similar words, the greater the degree of mutual intelligibility between languages.

For the morphological analysis, the informants were made to watch the six-minute Pear Film and were asked to recount the film in their own words. Using Praat, these spontaneous oral descriptions of

the film were recorded and transcribed. Then, the words with bound morphemes or words with affixes, whether prefix, infix, suffix or a combination of any of these, were identified. The discussion of the meaning of these morphemes followed. Then, the affixes were grouped into derivational and inflectional morphemes. Derivational morphemes are those that change the part of speech of a word, while inflectional morphemes signal grammatical categories such as mode, number, aspect and focus in the case of verbs without changing its parts of speech membership. The comparative, superlative and intensive forms of adjectives are also considered inflectional.

Results & Discussion

Phonological Analysis: Vowel Phonemes of Bikol-Pilar Dialect

The formant chart is the plotting of F1 and F2 values, which shows the connection between the formant pairs and the articulatory description (Lodge, 2009). When the formant pairs are plotted on the graph, the ellipsis is automatically formed signifying that the vocoids are similarly pronounced or are similarly sounded like the mean. The vocoids outside the ellipsis are pronounced differently from the mean.

Figure 3 shows the Pilar sound [a] based on the formant values of the recordings of the six informants. The sound [a] is the most-frequently occurring vowel sound in Bikol-Pilar dialect. Based on the frequency counter of the text from the Pear Film narration, the following vowels are arranged according to the order of their frequency of use: the vowel “a” as the highest with 1138 counts followed by “i,” 482; “o,” 257; “u,” 234; and “e,” 53.

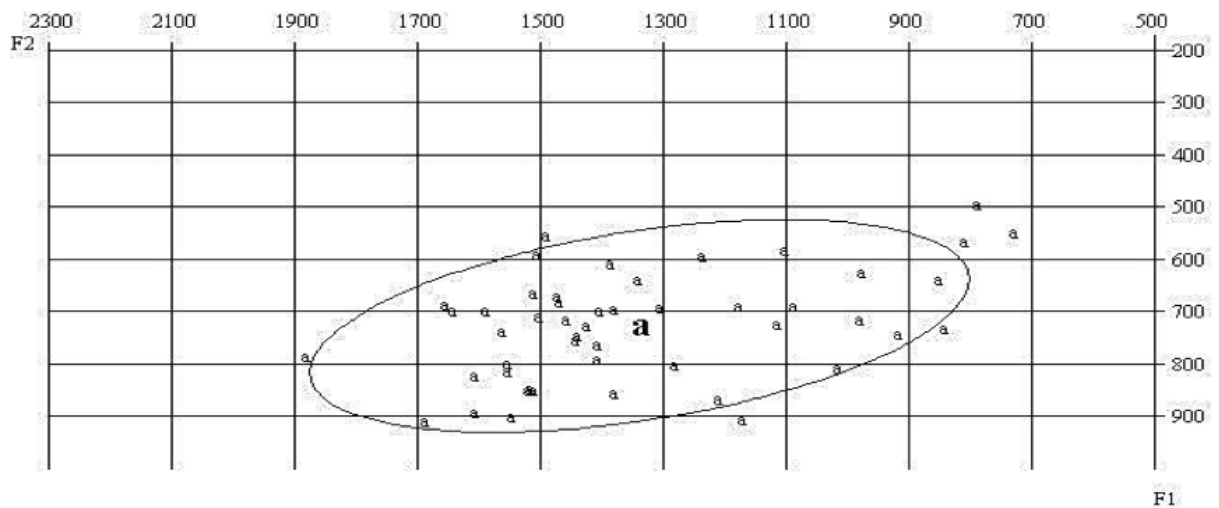


Figure 3. Plot Formant of the Vowel “a”

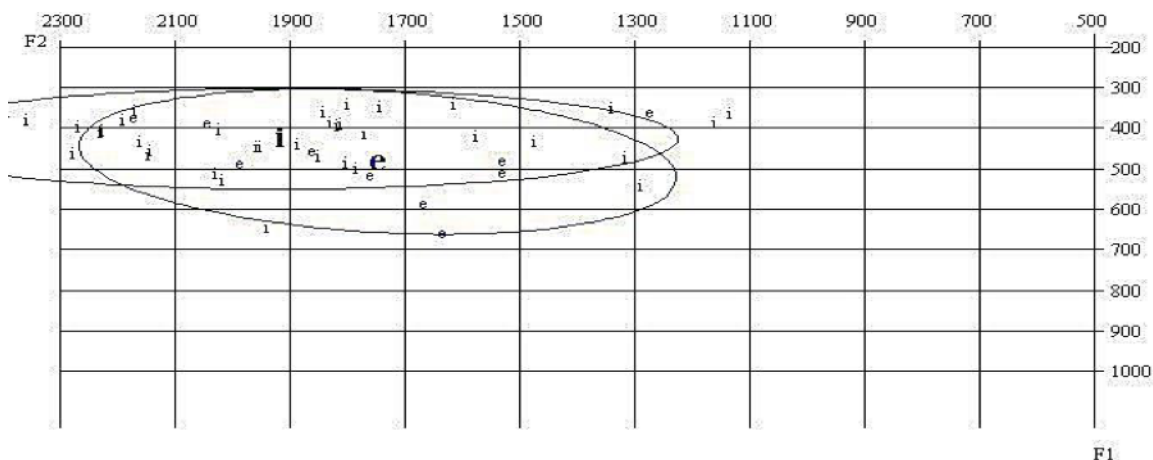


Figure 4. Placements of Vowels “e” [ɛ] and “i” [i]

The vowels “e” [ɛ] and “i” [i] overlap each other making them allophones of each other as shown in Figure 4. There are few words with the vowel “e” in the Bikol dialect. Usually, the words with the sound [ɛ] and written as “e” are foreign words assimilated in the dialect specifically Spanish. The sound of [ɛ] can be found in loan words from Spanish or English and is assimilated

in the dialects, for example, *anghel, birhen, amen, kabesa*. However, Bikol words are normally pronounced with an [i] sound like in *liog, similya, lain, and ika*. Even if these are spelled with an “e,” the pronunciation most often reverts to the sound [i], as in *babaye* and *saen* pronounced with an [i], not with an [ɛ].

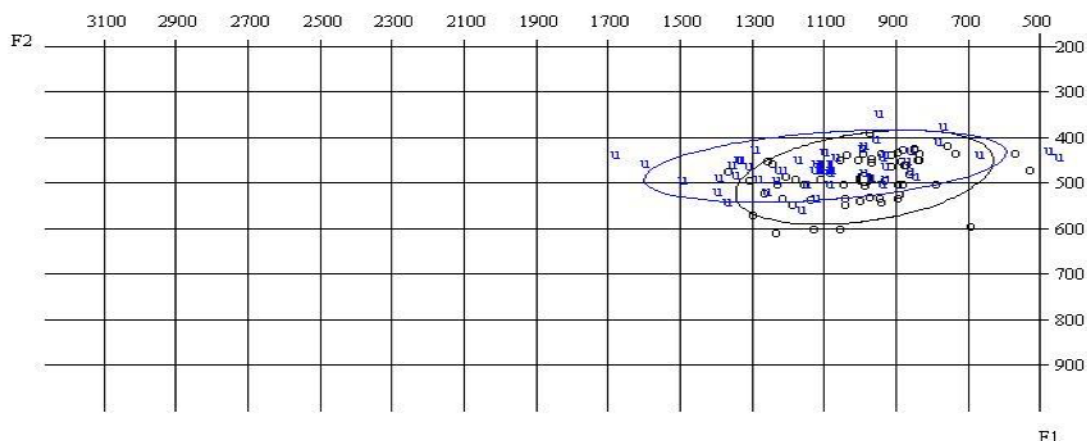


Figure 5. Placements of Vowels “o” [ɔ] and “u” [u]

The vowels “o” [ɔ] and “u” [u] overlap each other as evidently shown by almost similar mean coordinates in Figure 5. Respondents, in writing the words, many times interchanged the spelling of “o” [ɔ] and “u” [u]. In fact, it is a matter of orthography that the spelling follows the sequence u-o and not o-u. This means that there are supposed to be no words spelled with the vowel

“u” at the end. The schwa sound is only an allophone of [u]. In the dialect, the vowels “o” [ɔ] and “u” [u] can be represented by only one sound since alternation does not change the meaning of the word. For example, *mutukad/motukad* (climb up e.g., a mountain); *murusug/morusog* (go down e.g., a mountain).

Figure 6 shows the Mutual Intelligibility (MI) index of Pilar dialect in comparison to the other East Miraya dialects of Donsol, Jovellar, Daraga, Camalig, and Guinobatan. The highest MI to Pilar dialect is Daraga, which has 186 similar lexemes, followed by Camalig

with 162, Guinobatan with 147 and Jovellar with 145 lexemes. Donsol dialect has the lowest MI with only 131 lexemes/words. Pilar and Donsol are municipalities of Sorsogon Province while Jovellar, Daraga, Camalig, and Guinobatan are parts of Albay Province.

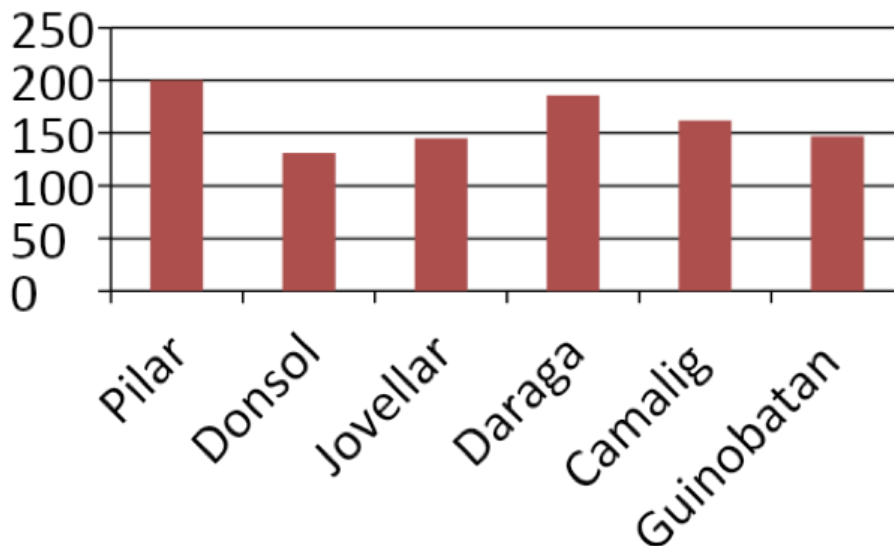


Figure 6. The Degree of Mutual Intelligibility of East Miraya Dialects

Pilar dialect has a greater degree of mutual intelligibility with Daraga dialect than with Donsol dialect despite the fact that Pilar and Donsol are municipalities of Sorsogon while Daraga is a town in Albay Province. This shows that lexicon is affected either by geographical location or by social contact. People ply the Pilar-Daraga transportation route more often than the Pilar-Donsol route since Daraga is a place people

have to pass in going to the city of Legazpi, which is a business and academic center. The two places, Pilar and Donsol, can be reached separately by two divergent roads from a place called Putiao. As a consequence, the greatest mutual intelligibility using Pilar as the point of reference occurs with Pilar and Daraga dialects while the lowest is between Pilar and Donsol dialects.

Morphological Analysis: Derivational and Inflectional Affixes of Miraya Dialects

The study found derivational and inflectional morphemes in the dialect, which signal a wide array of modal and aspectual expressions that include advertent past, inadvertent past, causative, plural past, imperfective past duration, abilitative, imperfective

present, infinitive, directional adverb, future, nominalization, place, and subject. Derivational affixes can be added to words that may make them look like verbs but can be grammatically categorized as nouns, adjectives, and adverbs.

Table 1. Glossing Abbreviations and Symbols

Symbol	Meaning	Symbol	Meaning
AF	Actor Focus	PRT	Clitic Particle
OF	Object Focus	EXIST	Existential Marker
LF	Locative Focus	NEG	Negative
3SG	Third Person Singular	ABIL	Abilitative
3PL	Third Person Plural	LOC	Locative
INFV	Infinitive	DIR	Directional
PFV	Perfective	DIST	Distributive
IPFV	Imperfective	CAUS	Causative
N	Noun / Nominal	REP	Repetitive
ADJ	Adjective	DEM	Demonstrative
PREP	Preposition	-	Morpheme or affix boundary
LK	Linker	< >	Infixation
DET	Determiner	R	Reduplication
ADV	Adverb	GEN	Genitive
PL	Plural		

For the following samples, only one sentence sample is shown for each affix. Affixes that are being described are the ones shown in bold. In this work, the gloss (Table 1) includes the grammatical categories based on their function. They are enclosed in parentheses alongside the representation of their morphological form.

Derivational Affixes. Derivational affixes *naka-*, *pig-(h)an*, *-<in>-(h)an*, circumfix *uro-* and *-an*, circumfix *na-* and *-an*, *nagR-*, *pa-*, and *mag-* when added to words,

which, though they may look like verbs, actually function as objects of the verb and modifiers. (See *examples no. 1 to 6*)

Inflectional Affixes. The following sentences show inflectional affixes *nag-*, *in-*, *ni-*, *tig-*, *<umin>*, *pig-* and *<in>-an*, (advertent perfective); *na-* (inadvertent perfective), *tiga*, *naga-* and *piga-* (advertent imperfective), *pina-* (causer), *nagka-<ra>* (inadvertent plural perfective), *pigpara-* (repetitive perfective), *-on* (imperfective), and *maka-* (abilitative). (See *examples 7-20*)

1. May nakailing duman sa pig-agihan niya.

May **naka-iling** duman sa **pig-agi-(h)an** niya.
 EXIST (N)ABIL-see DEM DIR (N) LF-path taken 3SG
 “Somebody saw the path he had taken.”

The word “*nakailing*,” which has a prefix “*naka*” in the sentence and the verb “*iling*” (see “*May nakailing duman sa pig-agihan niya*” has the structure of a verb in the abilitative mode. However, it functions as a noun which refers to “someone who has seen something.”

The circumfix *pig-(h)an* also indicates a place name, meaning the path which people take. There is an epenthesis of the sound [h] because the word ends in a vowel “*agi*.” Similar instances occur with words like “*laba*” (wash), which becomes “*labahan*” (a place for washing) while words ending in consonants do not require the [h] sound like “*kaon*” (eat), which becomes “*kaunan*” (a place for eating).

2. Duman sa tinumbahan niya may mga aki.

Duman sa **t<in>umba-(h)an** niya may mga aki
 DEM DIR (N).LF.PFV-fall 3SG EXIST PL child
 “There were some children in the place where he fell.”

The sentence “*Duman sa tinumbahan niya may mga aki,*” contains the word “*tinumbahan*” from the root word “*tumba*” with an infix *-in-*, and a suffix “*-han*.” “*Tinumbahan*,” from the root word “*tumba*,” means a place where someone or something has fallen; in this case, the place where the bicycle fell. Many places in the Bikol area follow the same morphological structure: *Binitayan*, a place where people were hanged or guillotined; *Tinambakan*, a place where some things were heaped or piled; *Binugsakan*, a place where water was poured; *Binanuahan*, a place that was converted into a town. Such are the place names in some areas of the Bicol Region.

3. *Duman sa uroinutan.*

Duman sa uro-inut-an
DEM DIR (N). LOC-a little farther ahead
“There in the place that is a little farther ahead.”

The circumfix *uro-;-an*, attached to the root word “*inot*” (first), which is an ordinal adjective, in the sentence “*Duman sa uroinutan*” expresses another location or a direction to a location creating a noun. The affix “*uro*” implies a hint, a diminutive form or something little like “*uru-umagid*,” which means “to resemble someone or something a bit.”

4. *May nasabatan siya na nagbibisikleta man.*

May na-sabat-an siya na nag-bi-bisikleta man
EXIST (N).LF.PFV-meet 3SG LK (ADJ).AF.IPFV.R - bicycle also
“He/she also saw somebody biking.”

The gloss “(N).LF.PFV-meet” may be read as functioning as nominal in the form of a verb (meet) in the perfective aspect. The circumfix *na-* and *-an* added to the verb “*sabat*” as used in the sentence “*May nasabatan siya saro man na aki*” created the noun form that means “somebody one met on the way.”

The word “*nagbibisikleta*” with the prefix *nagR-* attached to the noun “*bisikleta*” or “bicycle” changes it to a modifier describing the indefinite “somebody.” The gloss “(ADJ).AF.IPFV-bike” shows that the word is equivalent to the participial form “walking doll” or “a person sitting on the chair.” Its form, however, is that of a verb in the imperfective aspect owing to the reduplicated first syllable after the prefix *nag-*.

5. *Nagkua itong aki ki peras dara ninda pauli.*

Nag-kua ito-ng aki ki peras dara ninda pa-uli
AF.PFV-get DEM-LK child DET pear bring 3PL.GEN (ADV).DIR- home
“The children got one pear each which they brought home.”

The following sentence “*Nagkua itong aki ki peras dara ninda pauli,*” shows the verb “*pauli*,” which expresses direction. Other examples to show how this works are *pa-Legazpi* (going to Legazpi), *pa-iskwelahan* (going to school), *pa-simbahan* (going to church), etc. In this case, the word “*pauli*” is an adverb, which can be roughly described as “homeward.”

6. *Kaipuhan magsakat giraray para magkua ning peras.*

Kaipuhan mag-sakat giraray para mag-kua nin-g peras
Pseudo-Verb-LF.need.to N.AF.INFV-climb again INFV-to AF.INFV-get DET pear
“He needs to climb again to get pears.”

Lobel and colleagues (2000) classified “*kaipuhan*,” a pseudo-verb, as a locative focus (LF) verb. In this sentence, “*Kaipuhan magsakat giraray para magkua ning peras,*” the verb-looking “*magsakat*,” with the prefix *mag-*, functions as an object, and is, therefore, a noun form.

7. *Nagsakat siya sa sarong kahoy.*

Nag-sakat siya sa saro-ng kahoy
AF.PFV-climb 3SG DIR one-LK tree
“He climbed up a tree.”

The prefix *nag-* added to the verb “*sakat*” in the sentence “*Nagsakat siya sa sarong kahoy,*” expresses an advertent perfective past action in an actor focus sentence construction. Thus, it requires the pronoun “*siya.*”

8. *Inapod siya kan nagtabang saiya.*

In-apod siya kan nagtabang saiya
OF.PFV-call 3SG DET one who helped 3SG
“She was called by the one who helped her.”

The prefix *in-* is also used to express an advertent perfective past action with an object focus sentence “*Inapod siya kan nagtabang saiya.*”

9. *Natumba siya.*

Na-tumba siya
AF.PFV-fall 3SG
“He fell.”

The sentence “*Natumba siya*” shows the prefix *na-* in the verb “*natumba,*” which states an inadvertent past action that unexpectedly occurred. It is a past perfective action in an oblique construction.

13. *Nagkua siya nin bunga; nilaog sa basket.*

Nag-kua siya nin bunga; *ni-laog* sa basket
AF.PFV-get 3SG DET fruit OF.PFV-put DIR basket
“He got a fruit; he put it in a basket.”

Ni- is a prefix used to express an advertent perfective past action in an object-focused sentence. The pronoun “*niya,*” which should follow the word “*nilaog*” is in ellipsis.

14. *Tigbalik man kan sarong lalaki su kalo niya.*

Tig-balik man kan sarong lalaki su kalo niya
OF.PFV-return also DET one-LK man DET hat 3SG GEN
“A man also returned his hat.”

The sentence “*Tigbalik man kan sarong lalaki su kalo niya,*” expresses the verb “*tigbalik*” with the prefix *tig-* indicating an object-focus advertent perfective past action.

15. *Naggudo siya ki mga piras tapos tigabugtak niya sa ibgon.*

Nag-gudo siya ki mga piras tapos *tiga-bugtak* niya sa ibgon
AF.PFV-pick 3SG DET PL pear and OF.IPFV-put 3SG DIR basket
‘He picked some pears and put them in the basket.’

Tiga- is a prefix that expresses an advertent imperfective past action as used in the sentence “*Naggudo siya ki mga piras tapos tigabugtak niya sa ibgon.*” While the prefix *tig-* expresses a perfective action, the prefix *tiga-* expresses an imperfective action that can apply either to a present or past action.

10. *Tinabangan siya kan tulong lalaki.*

T<in>abang-an siya kan tulong lalaki
LF.PFV.-help 3SG DET three men.
“He was helped by three men.”

The affixes *-in-*; *-an*, which are an infix and a suffix, respectively, is an affix used in the sentence “*Tinabangan siya kan tulong lalaki,*” which is an oblique sentence. It is also an advertent perfective sentence.

11. *Kuminua kan bunga su aki.*

K<umin>ua kan bunga su aki
AF.PFV-take DET fruit DET child.
“The child took the fruit.”

The infix *<umin>* attached to a verb expresses an advertent perfective past action.

12. *Tinabangan siyang makatindog.*

T<in>abang-an siya-ng maka-tindog
LF.PFV-help 3SG-LK AF.ABIL-stand.
“He was helped to stand.”

Moreover, *maka-* is a prefix also used to express the ability of the subject to perform a certain action like in the sentence “*Tinabangan siyang makatindog*” (He was helped to be able to stand up). *Maka-* when added to a verb acquires the abilitative mode.

16. Dai siya nagamangno may nabangga na palan siyang gapo.

Dai siya **nagamangno** may na-bangga na palan siya-ng gapo
NEG 3SG AF.IPFV-attend EXIST one which he hit LK PRT 3SG-LK rock.
“He was not aware that he already hit a stone.”

Another prefix *naga-* shows the imperfective form “*nagamangno*.”

17. Pinapurot kan mga aki su nahulog na peras.

Pina-purot kan mga aki su nahulog na peras
OF.CAUS.PFV-pick up DET PL child DET AF.PFV-fall LK pear
“The children asked that the pears that had fallen be picked up.”

The prefix *pina-* is used to state an action done by a second party who had been requested to do so. In the sentence “*Pinapurot kan mga aki su nahulog na peras*,” somebody else was requested to do the picking up of the fruits. The verb “*pinapurot*” with the rootword “*purot*” expresses a perfective past action. It is causative because it indicates that a subject asked another person to do an action.

18. Nagkawaragas an saiyang dara-dara.

Nagka-w<ar>agas an saiya-ng dara-dara
AF.PL.PFV-scatter DET 3SG-LK things that he carry.
“The things that he carried were scattered.”

In the sentence “*Nagkawaragas an saiyang dara-dara*” expresses the prefix *nagka-;-r-* in the verb “*nagkawaragas*” with a *nagka-<ar>* morphological construction. The verb shows an inadvertent perfective past action with the affix *<ar>* indicating the plural form.

19. Tinabangan siya kan tulong akus na punpunon su mga peras.

Tinabangan siya kan tulo-ng akus na punpun-on su mga peras
LF.PFV-help 3SG DET three-LK child LK OF.IPFV-gather DET PL pear.
“He was helped by the three children to gather the pears.”

The bare suffix *-on* is used to indicate an imperative action, as stated in the sentence “*Tinabangan siya kan tulong akus na punpunon su mga peras*.”

20. Pigparailing niya su babay.

Pigpara-iling niya su babay
OF.REP.IPFV-see 3SG DET girl.
“He kept looking at the girl.”

Pigpara- is a prefix used to express an action, which indicates a certain duration. The verb “*pigparailing*” indicates that the subject intentionally and for a certain duration was doing the action. The prefix *pig-* is to express another form of past perfective action like in the sentence “*Pigtawan man kan aki ki tulong peras su tulong akus*.” This is true in the sentence “*Pigtabangan siya ki tulong lalaki*,” indicates the use of the affix *pig-;-an*. The sentence “*Nagngalas siya duman sa tulo na nagalakaw, may pigakaon na peras*,” shows the prefix *piga-* in the verb “*pigakaon*,” which indicates an imperfective past action.

Conclusion and Recommendations

Pilar has only three phonemes represented by the vowels “a,” “i,” and “u”. Apart from the evident phoneme /a/, many Bikol words interchange the sounds of [ɛ] and [i] of the phoneme /i/ (like “*babae*” and “*babai*,” which both mean a woman; and [ɔ] and [u] of the phoneme /u/ like “*bonay*” and “*banay*,” which mean egg.) The graphs

show that the tokens overlap each other meaning that they are allophones of each other. Orthographic rules, however, necessitate the use of all the five vowels “a,” “e,” “i,” “o,” and “u”. Knowing the extent of frontness and backness and the height or lowness of the opening of one’s mouth enables one to know how the vowel

is exactly produced by a native speaker, especially if compared to a sound the speaker is better acquainted with. Likewise, Mattes (2014), in her published book on Bikol-Daraga entitled *Types of Reduplication: A Case Study of Bikol*, which is a product of her doctoral dissertation, mentioned that the native Bikol phoneme inventory consists of three vowels. Moreover, although the original sound system of Bikol contained only three vowels: “i,” “a” and “u,” Spanish loan words have invaded its lexicon, paving the way for a five-vowel orthographic system in written works.

The greatest mutual intelligibility using Pilar dialect as the point of reference occurs with Pilar and Daraga dialects while the lowest occurs with Pilar and Donsol dialects despite the fact that Pilar and Donsol are municipalities of Sorsogon Province while Daraga is a town in Albay Province. This may be due to the fact that people ply the Pilar-Daraga transportation route more than the Pilar-Donsol route since Daraga is a place people have to pass in going to the city of Legazpi, considered to be the center of education and commerce. This information can help MTB-MLE instructional materials producers to consider the lexical contrasts in these areas.

Words in the Pilar dialect may be formed by a root or stem plus one or more affixes, or they may consist of a particle which is invulnerable to affixation but cannot stand alone without a host. Examples of these are *na*, *pa*, *palan*, *man*, *daa*, *ngaya*, and others. On the whole, the study found derivational and inflectional morphemes in the dialect which signal a wide array of modal and aspectual expressions. Derivational morphemes *naka-*, *pig-(h)an*, *-<in>-(h)an*, circumfix *uro-* and *-an*, circumfix *na-* and *-an*, *nagR-*, *pa-*, and *mag-* when added to words, which, though they may look like verbs, actually function as objects of the verb and modifiers. Inflectional morphemes include *nag-*, *in-*, *ni-*, *tig-*, *<umin>*, *pig-* and *<in>-an*, (advertent perfective); *na-* (inadvertent perfective), *tiga*, *naga-* and *piga-* (advertent imperfective), *pina-* (causative), *nagka-<ar>* (inadvertent plural perfective), *pigpara-* (repetitive perfective), *-on* (imperative imperfective), and *maka-* (abilitative). Knowledge of the morphological structures will aid in an increased level of understanding among diverse language teaches and learners.

The following recommendations are given: other Bikol dialect varieties be described as well in terms of the phonological, lexical, and morphological structures; a compendium of Bikol orthographies be prepared, and a standard set of glossing terminologies for the

Bikol dialects be established for a more disciplined representation and easier interpretation.

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