

Zamboanga Chavacano Verbal Aspects: Superstrate and Substrate Influences on Morphosyntactic Behavior

Abee M. Eijansantos

Zamboanga State / Fort Pilar,
College of Marine / Zamboanga
Sciences & Technology / City, Philippines
ameijansantos@zscmst.edu.ph

Rochelle Irene G. Lucas

De La / Taft Ave.
Salle / Manila,
University / Philippines
rochelle.lucas@dlsu.edu.ph

Jeric B. Ventoza

Ateneo de / Tumaga,
Zamboanga / Zamboanga City,
University / Philippines
ventozajerb@adzu.edu.ph

Ericson O. Alieto

Western / Baliwasan,
Mindanao / Zamboanga City,
State University / Philippines
ericsonalieto@gmail.com

Abstract

It was hypothesized that Zamboanga Chavacano verbs exhibit variation in the need for a verbalizer prior to verbs whose origin is not the superstrate Spanish. To address the hypothesis, 200 verbs from the 500,000-word Zamboanga Chavacano corpora were analyzed using AntConc 3.5.8 (Windows) 2019. Additionally, verbs from different origins were subjected to analysis. Taken from the Composite Dictionary of Riego de Dios (1989), 100 verbs which were Spanish originated and another 100 that were non-Spanish were subjected to elicitation among 104 native speakers of Zamboanga Chavacano. The data revealed that the same case was observed for Zamboanga Chavacano as the Cotabato variety, but the verbalizer had the tendency to cliticize with the perfective and imperfective aspects, while only deletion took place for the contemplative aspect. Additionally, verbs that are inflected required the verbalizer no regardless of their origins.

Keywords: Zamboanga Chavacano, Spanish verbs, aspect marker, verbalizer

1. Introduction

The Chavacano language is a Creole language (Lipski, 1987, 2012; Barrios, 2006; Wolff, 2006; Meyerhoff, 2008; Steinkrüger, 2008, 2013; Paz, Hernandez, & Peneyra, 2010; and Porras, 2013) that is Spanish-based (Holm, 2001). Creole formation occurs where both the superstrate and substrate

languages contribute to the creole's structure (Crowley, 1997; Holm, 1988). Further, creoles emanate from the source languages which influence their grammar, but the features are adopted in a rather "less complex rendition" (McWhorter, 2018, p.18).

Premised on the preceding claims, Chavacano as a Creole is expected to exhibit traces from its source languages: Spanish (Lipski, 1986 as cited in Barrios, 2006), as its superstrate language, and some Philippine-type languages such as Filipino and Cebuano (Barrios, 2006) as its substrate languages. As such, Chavacano is a Creole language that exudes syntactic influences from its source languages. One of these observations is that of Riego de Dios & Otones (1989) of the Chavacano variant spoken in Cotabato (henceforth Ct) which is said to have been greatly influenced by the variety spoken in Zamboanga. They claimed that the Ct's verbs behave varyingly which is dependent on the language source of the verb. Verbs whose source is a Philippine language or English, a verbalizing marker—*man*—is necessary to be prefixed to a verb stem prior to the prepositioning of the aspect marker—*ya* for past/punctual, *ta* for the present/durative aspect or \emptyset /*ay* for future—while no prefixing is syntactically needed when the verb stem is Spanish-derived.

Thereby, it was hypothesized that (1) Zamboanga Chavacano (hereafter ZCh) exhibits an identical syntactic behavior in the selection of the aspectual markers where a verbalizing marker is necessary for non-Spanish-derived verbs to permit the aspectual marker in the sentence, while it is

unnecessary for Spanish-derived ones. Also, premised on the primary observation, (2) the verbalizer is suspected to make the aspect marker the host for it to cliticize with.

To address these hypotheses, (1) 104 native speakers of ZCh were requested to be the participants of the syntactic construction being explored, and (2) a corpus analysis of 200 ZCh verbs from the collected corpora ranging from radio scripts, bible translations, newspapers and others was likewise analyzed via AntConc 3.5.8 (Windows) 2019.

Research Questions

To help address the hypotheses above, the following research questions served as guides in the entire conduct of the research:

1. In what morphosyntactic environment is *man* required in a ZCh sentence?
2. What morphosyntactic phenomenon is taking place in the difference in the following constructions:
yan and *ya man*,
tan and *ta man*,
man and *ay man*?

2. Review of the Related Literature

2.1 ZCh Creole

The Chavacano language is creolized (Barrios 2006; Holm, 2001; Lipski 1987, 2012; Meyerhoff 2008; Paz, Hernandez, & Peneyra 2010; Porras 2013; Steinkrüger 2008, 2013; Wolff 2006). Barrios (2006) explained that Zamboanga Chavacano is one of the Philippine Creole Spanish (PCS) varieties, while Lipski (1987) explicated that it is the only surviving variant. Holm (2001) argued that among the PCS, ZCh variant is the creole that is likely to flourish, and in fact, has the largest population with roundabout half a million speakers (Fernández, 2001; Grant, 2007; Lipski, 2001).

2.2 Tense and Aspect

Tense is a grammatical element intended to situate events, states, or actions in relation to time, while aspect concerns with the inner structure of an action taking place '*at a given time*' (Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman, 2015, p. 106). Similarly, aspect is referred to as a grammatical feature that is referred to the time dimension, but is not associated with a particular point in time which is a property of tense

(Payne, 2011). Similarly, Comrie (1976, 1985 as cited in Viti, 2016) explained that tense typically pertains to the time of an event as 'present', 'past', or 'future' in the context of the time of speaking. Aspect, however, pertains to a situation in itself, which can be regarded as 'perfective', 'imperfective', or 'resultative'. Further, tense is subsumed under a deictic category in that it locates situations in relation to time (Summer Institute of Technology (SIL), 2021; Hermont & Martin, 2020), while aspect related to the situation's internal time (Hermont & Martin, 2021). Also, tense which relates to time is contrasted with aspect that is analyzed as a grammatical element related with an action's internal structure occurring at any time (Murcia & Freeman, 2008). More particularly, the time articulated in the English verb is based on a certain *point in time*, and premised on *flow of time* in Filipino (Schachter & Otones 1972, as cited in Ceña & Nolasco, 2011, p.75).

2.3 Creole Verbal Morphology

The verb phrase of creoles has been the focus of creolists, and has been instrumental in distinguishing creoles from noncreoles (Holm 2004). Moreover, TMA (tense, aspect, mood) has been a topic that has received much attention in creole studies (Frank, 2004). In fact, Velupillai (2015) claimed that creoles constitute TMA markers with a definite pattern. It is assumed that creoles will have one marker each for tense, aspect, and mood. Additionally, Holm (1988) argued that these language types contain little to no inflectional morphology. Contrarily, Plag (2002) argued that the preceding notion relative to creole morphology has to be foregone or prodigiously revised as creoles carry morphological problems as the non-creole languages do.

Though not exclusively isolating in structure, pidgins and creoles considerably form part of the world's isolating languages. Moreover, pidgins and creoles differ from their source languages in their trademark simplicity in morphology. Truly, multilingual contact in a faulty learning environment offshoots an isolating morphology. With caution, the author admitted that the foregoing morphological simplicity should not restrict the creolist in analyzing a complexity when faced with one in a creole. In fact, cliticization is even a feature that can possibly take place in these types of languages (Crowley, 2008).

Winford (2006) analyzed the TMA markers of some creoles as isolating. Similarly, Bakker (2002) suggested that Tok Pisin has isolating TMA markers, and regarded Sranan to have the same. There are those that appear to exhibit an inflected morphology in the TMA markers like the analysis of Kouwenberg (1994) of the Berbice Dutch Creole. The perfective and imperfective aspects are encoded as morphologically inflectional. Simply put, the morphology of some creoles permits inflection or affixation, meaning, creoles are not solely morphologically isolating. As such, Farquharson (2007) analyzed the Jamaican Creole as having a progressive aspect affix since it is obligatory when eventive verbs are used. These elements cannot take independent stress and separate with the verb using other elements. Likewise, the progressive marker, when separated from the verb, is ungrammatical.

2.4 ZCh Aspect Markers

The ZCh morphosyntax is in dire need of a linguistic description. Some authors like Riego de Dios and Otones (1989) described a variety of Chavacano that is related to ZCh, the Ct. In their analysis of the aspect markers of Ct, *ya*, *ta* and *ay* are analyzed as tense unbound morphemes for past, present/durative, and past/punctual respectively. These markers according to them are used without the *-r* for Spanish infinitives. For Philippine source verbs, the verbalizer *man* is prefixed before a verb to permit the aspect marker to figure in the utterance. Similarly, Lipski and Santoro (2007) argued that the markers *ta*, *ya*, and *ay* are used to refer to different meanings and are free-standing morphemes.

Barrios and Bernardo (2012) presented the perfective aspect marker, as in *ya ase apas* ‘chased’ and *ya kay* ‘fell’, with the unbound aspect marker *ya*. Likewise, Barrios (2006) claimed that the tense markers used in ZCh are *ya* for punctual and perfective; *ta* for habitual, durative, present or past imperfective; and *ay*, *ey* or *el* for future. Likewise, these markers are free morphemes, for instance, *Ya come el perro conel pescao* ‘The dog ate the fish.’ The same can be observed with Santos (2010) and Camins (1999), while Porras (2013) presented sentences suggesting the isolating feature of the Chavacano verbs.

Steinkrüger (2008) claimed that ZCh has the following TMA markers: *ta* for imperfective, *ya*

for perfect(ive), *ay* for irrealis, and *kaba* for completive. In his analysis, though, differing from the preceding authors, the preverbal markers behave as prefixes morphologically. This analysis is anchored on the similarity it exhibits with many Philippine languages.

As far as the syntactic element *man* is concerned, only Riego de Dios and Otones (1989) and Lipski and Santoro (2007) investigated this element, calling it a verbalizer or a derivational suffix respectively. For the purpose of this paper, the term *verbalizer* is favored.

3. Research Methodology

3.1 Participants/ Informants

This study adopted the definition of a native speaker from the linguistics viewpoint. Specifically, in a sociolinguistics approach, Davies (1991) defined a native speaker in terms of social identity using the criteria such as the early acquisition and the continuous cultural/oral tradition. In the lens of modern linguistics, Chomsky (2014) explained that a native speaker possesses the authority over the system and structure of their native language. Furthermore, Lee (2005) itemized the six criteria to best identify a native speaker: (1) the acquisition of the language in early childhood; (2) the intuitive knowledge on the language they use; (3) the ability to speak the language with fluency and spontaneity; (4) the capacity to communicate the language with competence and the flexibility to utilize the language in various set-ups; (5) the recognition of the community of the speakers’ nativeness; and (6) the absence of a foreign accent.

As such, the researchers adopted the inclusion criteria anchored from Eijansantos et al. (2021): (1) they had to have been using ZCh as a medium of communication from childhood until the present; (2) they had to recognize themselves as a native speaker of the language who had acquired the language at the age of or earlier than seven; (3) they had to be at least 18 years old; and (4) they had to be at least in the Senior High School.

Thereafter, the researcher-made-Chavacano test was taken by the 104 participants who passed the requisites on the aforesaid criteria. The participants were required to gain at least 70%

or 10 out of 15 as their result to ensure that they are native speakers of ZCh. Moreover, purposive and convenience sampling techniques were used.

3.2 Data Collection Procedure

The data were collected in two ways. The first of the data collection procedures was the corpus analysis. In this investigation, the researchers utilized the ZCh corpora, a research material that contained 500,000 Chavacano words whose primary goal was to accumulate ZCh verbs which became the subject of the corpus analysis in determining the morphosyntax of the varying ZCh verbal aspects. Subsequently, the ZCh corpora were subjected to Antconc 3.8.5 (Windows) 2019 to facilitate the identification of the verbs premised on the hypothesis formulated that the source language influences a grammatical variation in the ZCh verbal string. Through the aforementioned software, the researchers were able to identify the verbs that use *yan* with 776 hits and the verbs that use the aspect marker *ya* with 23, 887 hits. With the huge number of hits from both markers, the decision on the reduction of the number to an attainable margin was put forth. Thus, only 100 verbs were selected from each generated result, totaling 200 verbs which were subjected to analysis. To corroborate the lexical origin of the verbs—whether these verbs were Spanish or non-Spanish in origin—five different dictionaries were utilized: (1) Composite Dictionaries developed by the and the Linguistics Society of the Philippines (LSP); (2) UP Diksyonaryong Filipino; (3) Online Cebuano Dictionary; (4) Online Spanish Dictionary; and (5) Cambridge Spanish Dictionary. All these dictionaries contributed to the identification of the verbs' origins that aided the corpus analysis.

The inclusion criteria were intended to filter the informants for the elicitation task which was the second data collection procedure. The researchers ascertained that participants were selected using the abovementioned criteria before they were subjected to the elicitation task, and the test was consentaneously administered to them. With their consent, the instrument which was generated via a Google form that was individually sent to them. A part and parcel of the inclusion criteria was the

researcher-made-Chavacano test. In the said test, the participants were required to achieve at least 70% or an equivalent score of 10 out of 15 as the total score.

Elicitation is a method to obtain data from speakers of a language that may either be actual utterances or judgments about the acceptability of an utterance (Crystal, 2011). The elicitation task in this study was a sentence completion type of test that required the participants to use the correct aspect marker *ya* or *yan* in the sentence. This task sought to clarify the difference among the verbs and intended to show where this difference lies pertinent to the aspectual markers. This test contained 40-item ZCh sentences examined by the 104 participants, who were identified and who qualified as bonafide ZCh native speakers. The verbs that were used for the elicitation task were taken from the Composite Dictionary of Riego de Dios (1989) in that it clearly showed and differentiated verbs that were either ZCh or Ct. If a verb was uniquely ZCh or Ct, the dictionary indicated so. Furthermore, as this paper was premised on the hypothesis that Spanish verbs require a separate element or morpheme in their configuration, verbs that were Spanish in origin and those that were otherwise not were selected from the dictionary as it clearly specified a verb's source language. Thus, the participants' judgement on the sentences as ZCh native speakers would serve as empirical evidence to justify the syntactic environment the verbalizer *man* is required in ZCh and to elucidate the morphosyntactic phenomenon that takes place in the distinction between the construction of *yan* and *ya man*.

Moreover, the data collected from the corpus were comparatively more recent than the lexical items taken from the Composite Dictionary—that is, the corpus has quite recently been put together, while the latter was published in the late 1980s. Although there may be some discrepancies as far as time periods were concerned, the dissimilarity in time periods further strengthens the claims made in this paper in that consistency in the morphosyntactic behavior of the verbs has been succinctly determined from the two data gathering procedures. The verbal aspect markers behave

contrarily when the verb is an uninflected Spanish verb. Moreover, the analysis was carried out two-way—corpus analysis and elicitation—for triangulation or corroboration purposes where the data in one data gathering procedure reinforce the ones in the other, and vice versa.

3.3 Data Analysis

The corpus analysis was carried out via the investigation of the source language of each of the verbs in the hits generated via AntConc. Apart from this, the verbs in the hits analyzed were put under scrutiny relative to their morphological constituents whereby the affixation—wherever applicable—was teased out. Also, the grammatical category of each of the verbs in ZCh sentences in their original form from where they emanate was likewise considered. Each of the hits taken as entries in the data analysis was laid bare to be analyzed pertinent to the need to use either *ya* or *yan* in a construction. In summary, each of the hits for both the verbs with *ya* and those with *yan* were dissected linguistically.

To execute the analyses of the data gathered from the participants via the elicitation task, a statistical treatment that was done through the expertise of a statistician was carried out. In the treatment, a binomial test at 50% proportion with a significance level of .05 was employed. This certainly helped foster the significant difference in the participants' elicitation task responses on their choice of the proper use of the aspect markers *ya* or *yan* in the sentences. The significant difference, grounded in the results in the statistical treatment, evidently affirmed the morphosyntactic phenomenon of the above-mentioned aspect markers in their syntactic environment thereby validating the researchers' hypothesis. Further, analogous to the analysis executed for the corpus data, each of the sentences was teased apart in the lens of the source language of the verbs. Additionally, other potentially relevant linguistic features were scrutinized, for instance, the lexical item's verbal morphological algorithm and their grammatical category in the language of origin. Simply put, the constructions were subjected to an in-depth linguistic exploration.

As far as the apparent fusion that takes place between the aspect marker *ya* and the verbalizer *man*, the teasing out was done via the tree diagrams patterned from Nolasco and Ceña (2011) of their description of the Tagalog syntax. Following this line of thinking aided the analysis of the other two aspects in ZCh sentential structure in that in principle, highly identical processes apply for them—that is, in the imperfective and contemplative aspects. This was carried out with cautious and mindful examination for potential variation that may be either apparent or otherwise concealed.

4. Results and Discussion

4.1 Corpus

Of the first set of the 100 selected verbs from the corpora, each one is a Spanish verb that potentially means that they are Spanish in origin, too. All these verbs use the *ya* aspect marker without the verbalizer *man* in the construction. The following examples seek to clarify the verbal aspect construction among verbs that are Spanish in origin:

- (1) *Ya agarra*
PRF 'grasp or take hold of'
'grasped or took hold of'
- (2) **Ya man agarra*
PRF VBLZ 'grasp or take hold of'
'grasped or took hold of'
- (3) **Yan agarra*
PRF=VBLZ 'grasp or take hold of'
'grasped or took hold of'

Notice that when the verbs above are succeeded with the verbalizer *man* or its cliticized form (see items 1 and 2), an ungrammatical construction yields. These verbs, when compared with the ones below, are succinctly different in the necessity of the verbalizer *man* which surfaces as a clitic attached with the *ya* aspect marker. A clitic is a morpheme, that may have a nonclitic alternant, has syntactic characteristics exhibited by a word, but manifests a behavior of being phonologically attached to another word. Specifically, an enclitic is a clitic that joins phonologically at the end of a preceding lexical item to form one unit (SIL, 2022).

The verbs in the examples below (see items 4 and 5) which were taken from the other set of 100

verb strings from the corpora contained the aspect marker *yan/ya (man)* + verb. These verbs are analyzed as requiring the verbalizer *man* in the verbal string which is analyzed as a construction that is an offshoot of cliticization (i.e. *Ya + man* → *yan*). This resonates with Crowley's (2008) argument that this process is permissible in creole languages and parallels what Kouwenberg (1994) has claimed about Berbice Dutch Creole which exhibits a morphological inflection in its verbal structure. It further fortifies what Farquharson (2007) has remarked about Jamaican Creole's utilization of an aspectual affixation. All these findings substantiate McWhorter's (2005) assertion that creoles' complexity from an original state later on flourishes. This process of the verbalizer cliticizing with the aspect marker contrasts to some degree with Winford's (2006) delineation of TMA markers among creoles as isolating which are exemplified in the data he presented and Bakker's (2002) presentation of Tok Pisin's isolating TMA algorithm. Due to the fact that cliticization remains not obligatory up until now (i.e. *ya man, ta man*), Winford's (2006) delineation and Bakker's (2002) presentation are likewise validated. Further, the majority of the verbs in the other set of 100 select ones are non-Spanish in origin, for example, *Yan apas* 'to follow/ catch up with' from Ceb, *Yan decide* from Eng, *Yan bulabog* 'to wreak havoc/to disrupt peace' from Tag. The same case holds true for the verbs that are Spanish in origin but are inflected in the ZCh sentence, or are not verbs but are either nouns or adjectives in that language of origin. The following handpicked examples are provided to clearly present the need of a verbalizer in the verbal construction:

- (4) *Yan apas*
PRF= VBLZ 'follow/catch up with'
'caught up with'
- (5) *Ya man apas*
PRF VBLZ 'follow/catch up with'
'caught up with'
- (6) **Ya apas*
PRF 'follow/catch up with'
'caught up with'

Constructions with an aspect marker and the clitic verbalizer (see item 4) like the one where the verbalizer is a free morpheme (see item 5) are all grammatical constructions. In contrast, those

without the verbalizer yield an ungrammatical string as in item 6. It should be noted that *apas* is Ceb. Identically, the same morphosyntactic behavior is exhibited by the Tag verb *bulabog* 'wreak havoc,' Eng verb *explain*, Spa noun *encuentro* 'meet', and the Spa verb *hila* 'pull' but is inflected in its ZCh structure *hilaan* 'pull something from each other'. All these are consistent with the hypothesis that verbs which are Spanish in origin do not require the verbalizer *man*, but those that are otherwise non-Spanish do so. A novel analysis has to be clarified, though. Verbs in ZCh sentence which are Spanish in origin, but are not actual Spanish verbs or are lexical items belonging to other grammatical categories, require the verbalizer. Similarly, inflected Spanish verbs in ZCh sentence need the verbalizer to render the sentence grammatical.

In other words, comparing the verbs with the *ya* aspect marker and the ones with the *yan* aspect marker, only verbs that originate from Spanish and are actual Spanish verbs are the ones that do not necessitate the verbalizer *man* prior to the ZCh verb string. This foregoing finding sheds light to the first research question: *In what syntactic environment is man required in a Zamboanga Chavacano sentence?*

4.2 Elicitation Task

All the statistical decisions are significant as a result of the binomial test as far as the elicitation task is concerned. In other words, the significant difference in each of the items is indicative of the choice of the majority that is regarded as the preferred grammatical construction. In each of the sentences in the elicitation task, the respondents had to choose between *ya* and *yan*. The following are selected items taken from the instrument used for the elicitation task.

- (7) ____ *abla le el deberasan.*
tell 2sg.NOM DET truth
's/he told the truth'
- (8) ____ *agarahan sila mano.*
hold-RECP 3pl.NOM hand
'They held each other's hands.'
- (9) ____ *saguan sila na baroto.*
oar 3pl.NOM LOC boat
'They rowed in the boat.'

- (10) _____ *bitay el chonggo na pono.*
 Hang DET monkey LOC tree
 ‘The monkey hanged by the tree.’

From the 11 items in the instrument, whose verbs are Spanish in origin, the *ya* aspect marker gains the upper hand (see example item 7 above). Notice, however, that for sentence number 8 above taken from the 10 items in the instrument, the verbs, although Spanish in origin, require the *yan* aspectual marker. Apparently, when the Spanish verbs figure as an inflected construction in ZCh, *yan* is preferred. A similar behavior can be observed among Spanish lexical items that are not verbal—that is, adjectives and nouns (i.e. sentence 9), which, albeit Spanish in origin, detach from the necessity to co-occur with *ya* as *saguan* ‘oar’ is a noun, and as an extension, it is believed that an identical case holds true for other lexical items belonging to other syntactic categories. Moreover, the verbs whose origin is non-Spanish oblige the *yan* aspectual marker in a ZCh sentence as can be seen in sentence 10 above which contains a verb that comes from Hiligaynon. The same case has been found from the verbs that emanate from English, Tagalog, Cebuano, and those that are local to ZCh. All these findings are analogous to Riego de Dios’ (1989) description of Ct that requires a verbalizer to morphosyntactically co-occur with the verb prior to forming the whole verb phrase string; however, the findings extend the description in terms of the analysis of the verbalizer as a free morpheme and can potentially transition into a clitic.

The findings in this component of the investigation corroborate those in the corpus analysis where only uninflected Spanish verbs use the *ya* aspect marker in ZCh sentences. Hence, verbs that are non-Spanish in origin and those that are inflected in ZCh or are Spanish in origin but are not Spanish verbs require *yan*. As in the comparison of the related literature with the findings in the corpus analysis section, the same can be remarked pertinent to the authors and their respective works mentioned.

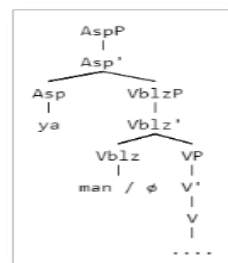
Furthermore, the findings in this section address the first research question which is *In what syntactic environment is man required in a Zamboanga Chavacano sentence?*

At an initial glance, the supposed counterexamples are thought to pose an issue in the analysis that can dismantle the integrity of the analysis in this paper: *Yan desgrasya* ‘met an accident,’ and *Yan disciplina* ‘disciplined,’ have a

penultimate stress suggesting that they are Spanish nouns. When the stress falls on the final syllable, they are verbs. Further, *Ya taya* ‘bet/cut, chopped’ poses another conundrum in the analysis in that the verb originates from Tagalog. However, Spanish has influenced not only ZCh but potentially other Philippine languages as well. Furthermore, the verb *taja* ‘to slice’ is a Spanish verb, and a verb in Asturian *taya* ‘to pay a quantity of money under feudalism’ or ‘to cut’ exists. Asturian is said to have been in contact with Spanish since the 14th century (Barnes, 2013), and that language contact brings about language mixture, change, or the worst case scenario, death (Thomason, 2001).

Now, to address the *second research question*, the following analyses are in order as premised on the syntactic analysis of Nolasco and Ceña (2011) of Tagalog.

Figure 1.



For the ZCh verbs that are non-Spanish in origin, are Spanish but are inflected in the ZCh sentence, or are Spanish but rather belong to a different syntactic category apart from verbs, the verbalizer head rises to the aspect head in order to permit encliticization of the verbalizer with the aspect marker ensuing in the cliticized *yan*. When it opts not to cliticize, the surface form figures as *ya man*, and thus no movement takes place. A similar pattern can be noticed in the imperfective aspect *ta* where the head verbalizer can move up to cliticize with the aspect marker. Depending upon the preference to cliticize or not, the surface structure can either be *tan* when cliticized or *ta man* when otherwise. The preceding validates Crowley’s (2008) remark relative to cliticization, Riego de Dios’ (1989) description of Ct variety necessitating a verbalizer for a certain type of verb, and McWhorter’s (2005) perspective that creoles manifest complexity in time. The fact that creoles are not exclusively isolating in its grammatical architecture is validated, paralleling Kouwenberg (1994) and Farquharson (2007) of their remark in regards Berbice Dutch Creole’s inflectional

proclivity and the Jamaican Creole's affixational feature, only ZCh exhibits cliticization and deletion—as tackled succeedingly. Further, a rather varying observation is seen when the verb is in the contemplative aspect *ay*. When the head verbalizer raises to the aspect head position, the aspect marker *ay* is deleted instead of the verbalizer cliticizing with it. This may be ascribable to phonological grounds—that is, the shortened versions are parallel in their syllable structure and in their form in general: *yan* for perfective; *tan* for imperfective; and simply ~~*ay*~~ *man* for contemplative.

As in the observation above, for the verbs that are Spanish in origin and are actual Spanish verbs in ZCh, the head verbalizer also has the tendency to rise to a higher position in the structure; however, no cliticization is permissible. In this configuration, since the verbalizer is tacit, no syntactic changes are evident in the surface structure, thereby no cliticization is possible despite the movement of one element to a higher position. Cliticization with the tacit verbalizer is not permissible in both the imperfective and perfective aspects—*ya* and *ta*—due to the phonologically unpronounced verbalizing allomorph \emptyset . Be that as it may, there is evidence that movement indeed is a system occurring in the verbal string. This is apparent in the contemplative aspect *ay* where deletion is possible. It is grammatical to say (*Ay*) *kome le maniana* 'She will eat tomorrow,' where the sentence in the contemplative aspect can either be with the aspect marker or otherwise not. Hence, when an element moves up, deletion of the contemplative aspect marker occurs.

To succinctly present the morphosyntactic behavior of the verbal string in ZCh, the following is provided to simplify the preceding discussions:

ya + *man* → *ya man* or its cliticized form *yan*
ta + *man* → *ta man* or its cliticized form *tan*
ay + *man* → ~~*ay man*~~ or its deleted form *man*

5. Conclusion

The verbalizer *man* is unessential when the ZCh verb is an uninflected Spanish verb in the ZCh utterance. The verbalizer *man* is necessitated in the verb string in the following: with non-Spanish verbs; with Spanish verbs that are inflected in the ZCh sentence; or with a Spanish noun, adjective or—extraneously—with any nonverbal syntactic category used as verbs. Moreover, the aforesaid verbalizer can cliticize with the perfective and

imperfective aspects and thus can appear in the surface form as a cliticized and shortened form. In the contemplative aspect, however, the case is noticeably at variance in that instead of cliticization, the aspect marker undergoes deletion which is attributable to phonological motives. Additionally, the hypotheses established at the outset of the paper have been confirmed: ZCh behaves identically with Ct, and novel findings also have been brought to light, for instance, the nonexclusivity of *man* to non-Spanish lexical items and its cliticizing behavior.

In the purview of education, possessing an understanding of the tacit structural complexities of the grammar of one's native tongue is an advantageous starting point to transition into learning the grammatical system of any second language—in the case of the Philippine educational system—English and/or Filipino. This is grounded on the mother tongue-based multilingual education, a concern that remains unheeded as far as the policymakers are concerned despite the voluminous research tremendously backing up MTB-MLE's beneficial contribution to the success of the learners of L2.

In addition, a study that involves language is concomitantly linked with culture; premised on the foregoing, these current findings have a bearing in culture studies as there is an inherent intertwining between them. Hence, it is assumed that an investigation of the ZCh language is likewise a scrutiny of its speakers' rich culture.

Abbreviations

1 → first person	pl → plural
2 → second person	PRF → perfective
3 → third person	sg → singular
Ceb → Cebuano	Tag → Tagalog
Eng → English	VBLZ → verbalizer
Loc → Location	VP → Verb Phrase

Bibliography

- Almario, V. S. (2010). UP diksiyonaryong Filipino: Binagong edisyon. *Quezon City: UP sentro ng wikang Filipino*.
- Bakker, P. (2002). Pidgin inflectional morphology and its implication for creole morphology. In Booij, Geert & van Marle, Jaap (eds.), *Yearbook of Morphology*, 3-34. New York, Boston, Dordrecht, London, & Moscow: Kluwer Academic Publishers

- Bakker, P. (2008). Pidgins versus creoles and pidgincreoles. In: Kouwenberg, S., Singler, J.V. (Eds.), *Handbook of Pidgin and Creole Studies* (pp. 130-157). Blackwell
- Bakker, P., Daval-Markussen, A., Parkvall, M., Plag, I. (2011). *Creoles are typologically distinct from non-creoles*. *Journal of Pidgin and Creole Languages*, 26, 5-42.
- Barnes, S. (2015). Perceptual salience and social categorization of contact features in Asturian Spanish. *Studies in Hispanic and Lusophone Linguistics*, 8(2), 213-241.
- Barrios, A. L. (2006). Austronesian elements in Philippine Creole Spanish. *Philippine Linguistics Journal*, 37, 34-49.
- Barrios, A. L., & Bernardo, A. B. I. (2012). *The acquisition of case marking by L1 Chabacano and L1 Cebuano learners of L2 Filipino: Influence of actancy structure on transfer*. *Language and Linguistics*, 13.3, 499-521.
- Camins, B. S. (1999). *Chabacano de Zamboanga Handbook and Chabacano-English-Spanish Dictionary*. Zamboanga: Claretian Publ.
- Cebuano Dictionary. (2022). Pinoydictionary.com. <https://cebuano.pinoydictionary.com/>
- Celce-Murcia, M., & Larsen-Freeman, D. (2015). *The grammar book: An ESL/EFL teacher's course*. Boston, MA: Heinle & Heinle.
- Ceña, R. M., & Nolasco, R. M. D. (2011). *Gramatikang Filipino: Balangkas*. Quezon City: The University of the Philippines Press.
- Payne, S. G. (2011). *The Franco Regime, 1936-1975*. University of Wisconsin Press.
- Crowley, T. (1997). *An introduction to historical linguistics*. Auckland, Oxford, and New York: Oxford University Press.
- Crowley, T. (2008). Pidgin and Creole Morphology. In Kouwenberg, Silvia & Singler, John Victor (eds.), *The Handbook of Pidgin and Creole Studies*, 74-97. Singapore: Blackwell Publishing Ltd.
- Crystal, D. (2011). *A dictionary of linguistics and phonetics*. John Wiley & Sons.
- Davies, A. (2003). The native speaker: Myth and reality. <https://shorturl.ae/wP2Hg>
- DeGraff, M. (2003). Against creole exceptionalism. *Language*, 79(2), 391-410.
- Eijansantos, A. M., Alieto, E. O., Emmanuel, M. S., Pasoc, M. G. O., & Bangayan-Manera, A. (2021). Interspeaker variation in the negated perfective aspect of Zamboanga Chavacano. *Linguistics and Culture Review*, 5(S3), 287-309. <https://doi.org/10.37028/lingcure.v5nS3.1528>
- Farquharson, J. T. (2007). Typology and grammar: Creole morphology revisited. In Ansaldo, Umberto & Matthews, Stephen & Lim, Lisa (eds.), *Deconstructing creoles* 21-38. Amsterdam & Philadelphia: John Benjamins Publishing Company.
- Fernández R. M. (2001). ¿Por qué el Chabacano?. *Estudios de sociolingüística: Lenguas, sociedades e culturas*, 2(2), 1-12.
- Frank, D. B. (2004). Creoles, contact, and language change. In Escure, Geneviève & Schwegler, Armin (eds.), *TMA and the St. Lucian Creole verb phrase*, 237-258. Amsterdam & Philadelphia: John Benjamins Publishing Company.
- Grant, A.P. (2007). *Some aspects of NPs in Mindanao Chabacano: Structural and historical considerations*. In M. Baptista & J. Gueron (eds.), *Noun Phrases in Creole Languages: A multi-faceted approach*. Amsterdam: Benjamins.
- Hermont, A. B., & Martins, A. L., (2020). Tense, aspect, mood and modality. *SCRIPTA* 24(51), 27-45.
- Holm, J. (1988). *Pidgins and Creoles*. New York and Melbourne: Cambridge University Press.
- Holm, J. (2001). *Chabacano versus related creoles: (socio-) linguistic affinities and differences*. *Estudios de Sociolingüística*, 2(2), 69-93.
- Holm, J. (2004). *An introduction to pidgins and creoles*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Holm, J. (2006). *Portuguese- and Spanish-based creoles and typologies*. *PAPIA* 16: 53-61.
- Kouwenberg, S. (1994). *A grammar of Berbice Dutch creole*. [Mouton Grammar Library 12.] Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter.
- Kouwenberg, S., & Singler, J. V. (2008). *The handbook of pidgin and creole studies*. Chichester, England: Blackwell Publishing Ltd
- Lipski, J. M., & Santoro, S. (2007). Zamboangeño Creole Spanish. In John Holm, & Peter Patrick (Eds.), *Comparative creole syntax. Parallel outlines of 18 creole grammars* (pp. 372-398). Plymouth: Battlebridge Publications.
- Lipski, J. M. (1987). *Chabacano/Spanish and the Philippine linguistic identity*. Unpublished manuscript.

- Lipski, J. M. (2001). *The place of Chabacano in the Philippine linguistic profile*. *Estudios de Sociolingüística* 2(2) 2. 119-163.
- Lipski, J. M. (2012). *Remixing a mixed language: The emergenc of a new pronominal system in Chabacano (Philippine Creole Spanish)*. *International Journal of Bilingualism*, 17(4), 448-478.
- Lee, J. J. (2005). The native speaker: An achievable model. *Asian EFL Journal*, 7(2), 152-163.
- Leong, S.K., Tsung, L.T.H., Tse, S.K., Shum, M.S.K., & Ki, W.W. (2012). *Grammaticality judgment of Chinese and English sentences by native speakers of alphasyllabary: a reaction time study*. *International Journal of Bilingualism*, 16(4), 428-445.
- McWhorter, J. (2001). *The world's simplest grammars are creole grammars*. *Linguistic Typology* 5(2-3): 125-166.
- McWhorter, J. H. (2005). *Defining Creole*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- McWhorter, J. H. (2018). *The creole debate*. Cambridge University Press.
- Meyerhoff, M. (2008). *The Handbook of Pidgin and Creole Studies*. In S. Kouwenberg & J. Singler (eds.), West Sussex: Blackwell Publishing Ltd.
- Paz, C. J., Hernandez, V. V., & Peneyra, I. U. (2010). *Ang Pag- aaral ng Wika*. Quezon: The University of the Philippines Press.
- Plag, I. (2002). *Introduction: The morphology of creole languages*. In Booij, Geert & van Marle, Jaap (eds.), *Yearbook of Mophology*, 1-2. New York, Boston, Dordecht, London, & Moscow: Kluwer Academic Publishers.
- Payne, S. G. (2011). *The Franco Regime, 1936-1975*. University of Wisconsin Pres.
- Porras, J. E. (2013). *Noun phrase marking in Chabacano (Philippine Creole Spanish): A comparative perspective*. *California Linguistic Notes*, 38(1), 122-142.
- Riego de Dios, M.I.O., & Otones, F.T. (1989). *Studies in Philippine linguistics*. Linguistics Society of the Philippines and Summer Institute of Linguistics.
- Santos, R. A. (2010). *Chavacano de Zamboanga: Compendio y diccionario: Chavacano-English, English-Chavacano*. Zamboanga: Ateneo de Zamboanga University Press.
- Steinkrüger, P. (2006). *The puzzling case of Chabacano: Creolization, substrate, mixing and secondary contact*. Presented at tenth international conference on Austronesian linguistics, Puerto Princesa City, Palawan, Philippines. Retrieved from <http://www.sil.org/asia/philippines/ical/papers.html>
- Steinkrüger, P. O. (2008). *The puzzling case of Chabacano: Creolization, substrate, mixing and secondary contact*. *Studies in Philippine Languages and Cultures*, 19, 142-157.
- Steinkrüger, P. O. (2013). Zamboanga Chabacano structure data set. In S. M. Michaelis, P. Maurer, M. Haspelmath, & M. Huber (Eds.), *Atlas of Pidgins and Creole Languages Structures Online*. Leipzig: Max Plank Institute for Evolutionary Anthropology. <https://apics-online.info/contributions/46#tprimary>
- Summer Institute of Linguistics. (2021). *Glossary of Linguistic Terms*. <https://glossary.sil.org/term/tense>
- Summer Institute of Linguistics. (2022). *Glossary of Linguistic Terms*. <https://glossary.sil.org/term/clitic-grammar>
- Thomason, S. G. (2001). *Language contact*. Edinburgh University Press.
- Velupillai, V. (2015). *Pidgins, creoles and mixed languages: An introduction*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins Publishing Company.
- Viti, C. (2016). Synthetic and analytic structures for tense and aspect in Indo-european. In Bubenik, Vit & Drinka, Bridget & Hewson, John & Šeřčik, Ondřej (eds.), *Exploring Universals of Tense and Aspect*.
- Winford, D. (2005). Contact-induced changes. *Diachronica* 22 (2). 373-427.
- Winford, D. (2006). *The restructuring of tense/aspect systems in creole formation*. In Ana Deumert, & Stephanie Durrleman (Eds.), *Structure and Variation in Language Contact* (pp. 85-110). Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
- Wolff, J. U. (2006). *Encyclopedia of Language and Linguistics*. Boston: Elsevier.