

Metonymy of NANG

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ABSTRACT

The metonym NANG refers to the category that includes the forms *ng* and *nang* in Filipino. In various literatures, these morphemes are typically treated as linkers, markers and particles, among others (Kroeger, 1993; Schachter & Otones, 1972). If we look at the different attributes of these elements, such as their syntactic distribution and formal and functional characteristics, we find that there is a motivation to group such morphemes into a single category.

This paper attempts to provide an analysis of NANG as a metonym based on its behavior, distribution, and current usage. In dealing with the status of NANG, we consider evidence from its distributional characteristics with various elements within the phrase and its behavior in preposed environments.

In presenting a more unified approach towards the analysis of problematic word-forms, we find that such issues connect with other fields such as grammar writing, orthography, standardization, and language education.

Keywords: Metonym, particles, linkers, markers, syntax, Filipino

INTRODUCTION

The forms that typically introduce noun phrases have been a topic of interest of linguists for some time. These forms include the Filipino [*ʔaŋ*] and [*naŋ*], illustrated in (1) below.

(1) *Hindi tinanggap ng mga kalaban ang pagkapanalo ni Kuneho.*¹

hindi	tinanggap	naŋ	maŋa	kalaban
NEG	<PFV.PF>.accept	X	P L	enemies
ʔaŋ	pagkapanalo	ni	kuneho	
X	victory	X	Kuneho	

‘Kuneho’s victory was not accepted by his enemies.’

Reid (2002) deals with the problem inherent in determining the syntactic word class of these typically monosyllabic word forms preceding common noun phrases in Philippine languages. These forms have been variously labeled as case-marking particles, construction markers, common noun marker, articles, determiners, specifiers, and proclitics among others (p. 296 - 297).

In the case of Filipino, these forms are some of the most common words in the language (McFarland, 1989). This study's preliminary frequency count² parallels McFarland's 1989 work on Filipino. From a total number of 137,459 word types and a total number of 7,774,480 word tokens, the top ranks belong to the forms in question (Table 1).

Table 1 shows the frequency count of the top ten words in the corpus. The top ranks include the aforementioned word forms /ʔaŋ/, /sa/, /naŋ/, the linker /na/, the conjunction /ʔat/, the plural marker /maŋa /, the personal name marker /ni/, the inversion marker /ʔaj/, another personal name marker /si/, and pronoun /nija/. Also presented is the homophonous³ /naŋ/ ranked 17th, here included as a point of comparison with the other word form ranked 3rd.

Table 1. Most Frequent Words in Filipino

Rank	Freq	Item
1	391765	ang
2	391313	sa
3	326732	ng
4	311066	na
5	135872	at
6	108046	mga
7	103943	ni
8	96856	ay
9	84629	si
10	77792	niya
17	46202	nang

The frequency and the apparent functional saliency of these forms leave no question as to why an investigation of their nature, distribution and categorization is of high interest to linguists. Pobderezsky (1971) discusses the distribution and the various definitions and functions attributed to [ʔaŋ] and [naŋ]. Reid (2002) puts forward the claim that these forms have undergone grammaticalization. Using evidence from languages from the Central Cordilleran subgroup to illustrate the development of preposition into postclitics after nouns, Reid (2002) argues that: "Precisely the same kinds of changes have operated to produce the well-known

[ʔaŋ] and [naŋ] determiners found in Tagalog, except that there was an innovation in the form of the relative preposition (ligature) *na” (p. 302).

According to Reid (2002, p. 295), “a good syntactic typology of the languages requires that a decision be made as to their word class, based not simply on functional characteristics, semantic features, or translational equivalents but on their syntactic distribution.” He concludes that these forms were not determiners but of another syntactic category – extension nouns, defined as nouns that require a dependent predicate.

In dealing with the characterization of these word forms, this paper investigates the form [naŋ], represented orthographically as *ng*. In this study, it is proposed that this form, often treated as a determiner in various literatures, is directly related with the adverbial marker orthographically represented as *nang*.

As illustrated above, several different analyses have been proposed to examine the relationship of these forms. By deconstructing and reformulating the analysis of these elements, not only can the true nature of these forms be revealed, but such a unified approach also converges with other domains such as orthography, standardization, and language education.

CHARACTERIZATION

Orthographic-wise, *ng* and *nang* are written differently yet they have the same phonological form [naŋ]. This graphemic and sound correlation is better explored by considering two important concepts in dealing with the interface of similar sounds and meanings: homophony and polysemy.

Homophony is the state of being homophones. It is when two words with different meanings have the same form in speech but not in writing. Homophones have different histories or etymology, and probably had different pronunciations back in time. To illustrate, the English words *fair* and *fare* are pronounced identically today but have completely different origins:

- (2) fair (Harper, Fair, 2012)
O.E. fæger “beautiful, lovely, pleasant”
- (3) fare (Harper, Fare, 2012)
O.E. faran “to journey, set forth, go, travel, wander, get on, undergo, make one’s way”

The two words are separate lexemes with separate etymologies, but as these forms underwent regular sound changes, the two items now share a single phonological form.

It has been mentioned that *ng* and *nang* have distinct orthographic representations but have the same phonological form, and can hence be treated as homophones. However, a concrete claim regarding the homophony these morphemes share cannot be made at this point since this requires a diachronic approach which does not fall within the scope of this study.

The next important concept we can consider is polysemy, which is similar to homophony in that the words share a similar phonological form. When we investigate the meaning, moreover, polysemous words, while carrying apparently distinct meanings, are somehow semantically related. Although the distinction of what exactly comprises polysemy is quite vague, we take here its definition as the property in which words have different yet closely related meaning or function, such as the case of English *play* ‘a drama’ and *play* ‘a game’.

To explore the possible polysemous relation of these forms, consider the following sentences:

(4) *Magbayad ng pilak*

mag-bajad naŋ pilak

INFV.AF-pay RM silver

‘To pay silver’

(5) *Alamat ng gubat*

?alamat naŋ gubat

legend DET jungle

‘Legend of the jungle’

(6) *Huminga nang malalim*

h <um> ija naŋ malalim

<PFV.AF>breathe ADV deep

'Breathed deeply'

(7) *Nabasag ang puso niya nang bigla na lamang sumuko si Pagong*

na-basag ʔaŋ puso nija naŋ bigla na

<PFV.PF>break DET heart 3SG RM suddenly LNK

lamaŋ s <um> uko si pagonŋ

only <PFV.AF>give up DET Pagong

'His heart broke when Pagong suddenly gave up.'

These constructions illustrate some of the different uses of *ng* and *nang*. On the one hand, *ng* in (4) is used as a determiner marking the complement of the verb *magbayad* 'to pay', while it is used in (5) as a marker of possession. On the other hand, *nang* functions as an adverbial marker in (6) and as a marker introducing a subordinate clause in (7).

Given these sentences, it is apparent that the word-forms involved perform distinct functions. However, we can also observe a certain link among the functions of these forms despite their surface multi-functionality, thus comprising a polysemous relationship.

La Polla (2008) characterizes the constructions in (4) – (7) as relator phrases (Y-phrases), in which the word forms in question serve as linkers between two elements (p. 3). Such analysis is schematically presented as:

(8) $Y \rightarrow a \text{ RM } b$

Where Y = relator phrase

a = head

RM = relational marker

b = modifier

In order to substantiate such claim, we now consider various aspects of the word forms *ng* and *nang*, hereafter classified under a single category: relational marker. Although it is said that these markers generally function as linkers, nuances in their use can be observed if we look at the elements involved in this process of linking. In dealing with these nuances, we specifically take into account the following: (1) the morpheme's distribution and co-occurrence relations vis-à-vis its behavior, as in its paradigmatic relations with other word forms and its manifestation in the process of preposing; and (2) its status as a metonym.

Distribution and Co-Occurrence Relations

The relator phrases in (4) – (7), here re-written as (9) – (12), can be classified under three major groups according to the modifying elements involved (the element *b* in the schema above):

Nominal, in which the relator phrase involves a nominal modifier:

(9) *Magbayad ng pilak*

mag-bajad	naŋ	pilak
INFV.AF-pay	RM	silver
'To pay silver'		

(10) *Alamat ng gubat*

?alamat	naŋ	gubat
legend	DET	jungle
'Legend of the jungle'		

Attributive, in which the phrase involves a general modifier, an adverb for instance:

(11) *Huminga nang malalim*

h < um > iŋa	naŋ	malalim
<PFV.AF>breathe	ADVM	deep
'Breathed deeply'		

Clausal, in which the modifying element is a clause:

(12) *Nabasag ang puso niya nang bigla na lamang sumuko si Pagong*

na-basag	ʔaŋ	puso	nija	naŋ	bigla	na
<PFV.PF>break	DET	heart	3SG	RM	suddenly	LNK
lamaŋ	s <um > uko	si	paŋoŋ			
only	<PFV.AF>give up	DET	Pagong			

'His heart broke when Pagong suddenly gave up.'

1) *Nominal*

The morpheme *ng* is traditionally treated as a nominal marker in quite a number of literatures (Constantino, 1965; Pobderezsky, 1971; Schachter & Otones, 1972; Kroeger, 1993; Reid, 2002; Reid & Liao, 2004; Himmelmann, 2006). Himmelmann (2006), along with other linguists, claims that this morpheme marks the genitive case on noun phrases which are non-subject complements as well as possessors (p. 6).

1.1. Predicate-Argument Relation. Non-nominative/non-subject nominal complements are linked to the relevant predicate via the relational marker *ng*. Sentences (13) to (15) are illustrative.

(13) *Nagtaas ng kamay*

nag-taʔas	naŋ	kamaŋ
PFV.AF-raise	RM	hand

'Raised a hand'

(14) *Binuksan ng talangka ang mga mata.*

b <in > ukas-an	naŋ	talaŋka	ʔaŋ	maŋa	mata
<PFV.PF>open-PF	RM	crab	DET	PL	eye

'The crab opened his eyes.'

(15) *Binabayaran nila ako ng mga pilak.*

b < in > a~bayad-an	nila	ʔako	naŋ	maŋa	pilak
<PF>IPFV~pay.PF	3P L	1SG	RM	P L	silver

'They pay me silver.'

In an intransitive construction such as (13) (also known as anti-passive constructions), *ng* marks the non-nominative complement, as in *kamay* 'hand'. In transitive constructions such as (14) and (15), the morpheme marks the non-nominative agent as in *talangka* 'crab' in (14) and the third complement *pilak* 'silver' in (15).

Moreover, the marker sometimes alternates with the typically locative marker *sa* in some intransitive constructions, specifying the nominal element in terms of definiteness.

(16) McFarland (1978, p. 157)

Ito ang pusang kumain sa daga.

ʔito	ʔaŋ	pusa = ŋ	k < um > aʔin	sa	dagaʔ
PR X	DET	cat=LNK	<PFV.AF>eat	RM	rat

'This is the cat that ate the rat.'

(17) *Ito ang pusang kumain ng daga.*

ʔito	ʔaŋ	pusa = ŋ	k < um > aʔin	naŋ	dagaʔ
PR X	DET	cat=LNK	<PFV.AF>eat	RM	rat

'This is the cat that ate a rat.'

As we see, there is an alternation between the forms *sa* and *ng*, wherein we distinguish the noun in terms of definiteness. Definiteness differentiates an identifiable (hence definite) entity from those that are not. In (16), the nominal phrase has a definite interpretation by using the marker *sa*, whereas the nominal phrase in (13) has an indefinite interpretation by the virtue of the marker *ng*. To

specify definiteness while retaining the marker *ng*, the use of quantifiers or demonstratives is employed, as in (18) and (19).

(18) Himmelmann (2006, p. 6)

Ito ang pusang kumain ng isang daga.

ʔito ʔaŋ pusa = ŋ k <um> aʔin naŋ ʔisa = ŋ dagaʔ

PRX DET cat=LNK <PFV.AF>eat RM one=LNK rat

'This is the cat that ate one rat.'

(19) Himmelmann (2006, p. 6)

Ito ang pusang kumain ng dagang iyon.

ʔito ʔaŋ pusa = ŋ k <um> aʔin naŋ daga = ŋ ʔijon

PRX DET cat=LNK <PFV.AF>eat RM rat=LNK DIST

'This is the cat that ate that rat.'

So far, we have only seen nominal complements linked to the verbal predicate via the relational marker *ng*. Aside from this, there are also non-verbal predicates such as (20) below:

(20) *Puno ng panganib*

punoʔ naŋ paŋanib

full RM danger

'Full of danger'

(21) *Anlalim ng Tagalog*

ʔan = lalim naŋ tagalog

ADJ=archaic RM Tagalog

'(My) Tagalog is really archaic.'

In (20), the nominal phrase serves as a complement of the adjective *puno* 'full', here functioning as a non-verbal (i.e. adjectival) predicate. In (21), the construction is stative, in which the adjectival affix *ma-* is replaced with the intensive marker *ang*, and the *ang* phrase is transformed to a *ng* phrase (Schachter & Otones, 1972, p. 280). Here, the *ng* phrase may be analyzed as a complement of the adjective, parallel to the structure of (20).

Lastly, we have a rather special type of phrase which involves constructions expressing similarity or sequence. Here, the stative verb is followed by its complement, the *ng* phrase. Such phrases may occur as predicate in various simple constructions or as adjuncts modifying a predicate.

(22) *Tulad ng maraming hari*

tulad	naŋ	marami = ŋ	hari?
like	RM	many=LNK	king
'Like many kings'			

(23) *Kasunod ng pagkanta ng Silent Night*

ka-sunod	naŋ	pagkantanaŋ	sajlɔnt	najt
ADJ-after	RM	singing	RM	Silent Night
'After the singing of Silent Night'				

Following the schema presented in Section 2, the constructions discussed so far illustrate how the predicate stands as the head of the relator phrase, linked to its argument/complement via the relational marker *ng*.

(24) Y → Predicate RM Complement

1.2. Pertinence relation. Traditionally labeled as statements of possession, Malicsi (2012) treats the statements in (25) to (27) as that of pertinence, in which a noun (the modifier) generally pertains to something (the head) (p. 51). Moreover, this category also includes a wide range of relationships such as composition, specification, and direction. The following sentences are illustrative.

(25) *Hari ng gubat*

hari?	naŋ	gubat
king	RM	jungle
‘King of the jungle’		

(26) *Piraso ng pilak*

piraso	naŋ	pilak
piece	RM	silver
‘Piece of silver’		

(27) *ilalim ng dagat*

ʔilalim	naŋ	dagat
under	RM	sea
‘Under the sea’		

This category also includes nominals modifying a pronominal element. Consider the following sentence:

(28) *Ang masayang alaala nila ni Dalagang Bukid*

ʔaŋ	ma-saya = ŋ	ʔalaʔala	nila	ni	dalaga = ŋ	bukid
DET	ADJ-fond=LNK	memory	3PL	RM	Dalaga=LNK	Bukid
‘Their (his & Dalagang Bukid’s) fond memories’						

The relational marker *ni*, marking the proper noun *Dalagang Bukid*, marks a nominal expression modifying a pronominal element *nila* ‘3PL, genitive pronoun’. If we modify the sentence to derive a parallel *ng* phrase, we get:

(29) *Ang masayang alaala nila ng kasintahan*

ʔaŋ ma-saya = ŋ ʔalaʔala nila naŋ kasintahan

DET ADJ-fond=LNK memory 3PL RM lover

'Their (his & his lover's) fond memories'

Such expressions are treated as compound pronouns, in which an element (a nominal expression marked by *ng*) provides additional information to the pronominal head. In (28) and (29), the noun introduced by the marker *ng* modifies or defines the pronoun *nila* '3PL, genitive pronoun' in such a way that the referents included in the pronoun are made clear. Such constructions fall under the pertinence relational type since there is a partitive interpretation of the *ng* phrase, in which it is interpreted as a part of the head, here the pronominal element. To further illustrate, consider the structure of (30):

(30) *Kinain namin ng nanay ko ang isda.*

[k <in> aʔin [namin naŋ nanaj ko]_{RP}]_{RP} ʔaŋ ʔisda

<PFV.PF>eat 1PL RM mother 1SG DET fish

'My mother and I ate the fish.'

The construction above is different from a predicate-argument relator phrase discussed in Section 1.1 since the *ng* phrase is not a modifier of the predicate but of the head of the smaller relator phrase, the pronominal *namin* '1PL, genitive pronoun'. Here, the noun introduced by the relational marker *ng* is interpreted as a member of the agents who performed the action.

Moreover, it seems that such relation is restricted to a pronominal head, as substituting a common noun would entail a different structure altogether, as in (31) below:

(31) *Kinain ng bata at ng nanay niya ang isda.*

[k<in>aʔin naŋ bataʔ ʔat naŋ nanaj nija]_{RP} ʔaŋ ʔisda
 <PFV.PF>eat RM child CONJ RM mother 3SG DET fish

‘The child and his mother ate the fish.’

Here, we see that the *ng* phrase *ng nanay niya* ‘his mother’ does not modify the preceding noun *bata* ‘child’, but instead conjoins with the said nominal element to modify the predicate *kinain* ‘ate’. Such construction categorically falls under the predicate-argument type discussed earlier.

Following the constructions discussed in this section, the schema is rewritten as:

(32) Y → Noun/Pronoun RM Noun

2) *Attributive*

The morpheme [naŋ] represented orthographically as *nang*, functions as a particle that introduces adjunctive elements modifying the verb or predicate. Such constructions can be divided into two types: (1) adverbial, and (2) modal.

2.1. Adverbial. As a modifier of the verb, the adverb is linked to the head of the relator phrase by *nang*. Consider the following:

(33) *Nakahinga nang maluwag*

naka-hiŋa naŋ ma-luwag
 PFV.AF-breathe RM ADJ-free

‘Was able to breathe a sigh of relief’

We also see here certain clauses functioning as a modifier of the verb. Consider (34) below:

(34) *Sagot ni Tipaklong nang may nakataas na kamao*

sagot	ni	tipaklong	nang
answer	RM	Tipaklong	RM
maj	naka-taas	na	kamao
EXIST	PFV.AF-raise	LNK	fist

'Answered Tipaklong with raised fists'

The element preceded by the relational marker *nang* here serves as an adverb modifying the main verb *sagot* 'answer'.

2.2. Modal. There also exists a special type of attributive construction specifying the mode of the verb. Example (35) below is illustrative:

(35) *Putak nang putak*

putak	nang	putak
cackle	RM	cackle

'Cackle continuously'

In the sentence above, the reduplication of the verb indicates an intensive mode. The use of *nang* in such constructions would entail that the head of the construction is the first verb, while the second reduplicated verb functions as the modifier indicating the mode of the action.

To summarize, both adverbial and modal relator phrases fall under the proposed schema, rewritten here as:

(36) Y → Verb RM Attributive

As mentioned, the verb serves as the head of the phrase linked to an attributive element through the relational marker *nang*.

3) Clausal

Nang also serves as a linker for subordinating clauses. Schachter & Otones (1972) describe such constructions as “equivalent to English ‘when’ clauses that refer to situations or actions confined to the past” (p. 476). Consider (37):

(37) *Hindi na nakasabat nang magsalita ulit si Buwaya*

hindi	na	naka-sabat	naj	mag-salita
NEG	CSM	PFV.AF-intrude	RM	IPFV-speak
ʔulit	si	buwaja		
again	DET	Buwaya		

‘(He) wasn’t able to intrude anymore when Buwaya spoke again.’

Constructions involving clausal elements as the modifier of relator phrases are formed according to the schema below:

(38) Y → Matrix Clause RM Subordinate Clause

Behavior: Evidence from Preposing

In the previous section, we have demonstrated how relator phrases are categorized into three groups according to the elements involved. In this section, the behavior of these phrases is investigated in terms of the process of preposing, which involves fronting the relevant element to the sentence-initial position. It is observed that the categorization presented above still applies, in that a formal difference among these groups can be observed.

In preposing the argument of a predicate, consider (39) and (40) below.

(39) *Nagbayad ng pilak ang talangka.*

nag-bayad	naj	pilak	ʔaj	talaŋkaʔ
PFV.AF-pay	RM	silver	DET	crab

‘The crab paid silver.’

Preposing the *ang* phrase or the subject of the sentence would give us:

(40) *Ang talangka ay nagbayad ng pilak.*

ʔaŋ	talaŋkaʔ	ʔaj	nag-bajad	naŋ	pilak
DET	crab	FT	PFV.AF-pay	RM	silver

'The crab paid silver.'

La Polla (2008) discusses the impossibility of preposing the *ng* phrase in (39) and (40). Treating the particle *ng* as a relational marker linking two elements, here the predicate to its argument, extracting the complement from the relator phrase would indeed give rise to ungrammaticality as the schema presented previously is violated (p. 42).

We can prepose the *ng* phrase involved but this would give rise to a number of repercussions. For instance, the form of the verb is affected, and the case of the relevant noun would be changed. Example (41) below is illustrative:

(41) *Ang pilak ay binayad ng talangka.*

ʔaŋ	pilak	ʔaj	b < in > ayad	naŋ	talaŋkaʔ
DET	crab	FT	<PFV.PF>pay	RM	crab

'The crab paid silver.'

Similarly, preposing part-whole constructions such as (42) would entail a change of case.

(42) *Alamat ng gubat*

ʔalamat	naŋ	gubat
legend	DET	jungle

'Legend of the jungle'

(43) *Sa gubat na alamat*

sa	gubat	na	ʔalamat
DET	jungle	LNK	legend

'Legend of the jungle'

The genitive case of the noun *gubat* 'jungle', when preposed, becomes the oblique case indicated by the determiner *sa*. Here, it is evident that if we prepose nominal complements, a change of case follows.

Preposing adverbs, in comparison, illustrates a different syntactic behavior. Consider (44) and (45) below:

(44) *Huminga nang malalim*

h < um > iŋa	nang	malalim
<PFV.AF>breathe	ADVM	deep

'Breathed deeply'

(45) *Malalim na huminga*

malalim	na	h < um > iŋa
deep	LNK	<PFV.AF>breathe

'Breathed deeply'

We see that if we prepose the modifying adverb to the front of the verbal head, a change in the structure and type of phrase would follow. La Polla (2008) describes constructions such as (45) as X-phrases or linker phrases (in contrast with our Y-phrases or relator phrases) in which different types of modification are involved, namely adjectival, numeral and measurement, relative clause, demonstrative, adverbial, intra-predicate, indirect quotes, possessive, non-possessive, and referential predicate-argument constructions (pp. 41-42). In (45), the grammatical head is still the verb, and the adverb *malalim* 'deeply' serves as an adjunct which can be omitted. The particle *nang*, before the preposing, is clearly a relational marker.

When preposed, the particle used in the process of linking changes to *na* (or the nasal clitic =ŋ).

A number of structural differences between X and Y phrases can be observed. However, a full analysis requires a separate study, and thus we leave this topic out for further research. What is interesting at this point is the apparent change of structure of the adverbial relator phrase to an adverbial linker phrase when preposed.

If we now look at the behavior of clausal relator phrases, we see that sentence-initial *nang* phrases are permitted. Clausal relator phrases illustrate subordination, a relationship where one element (subordinating clause) is structurally dependent on another element (matrix clause) (Pavey, 2010). One of the tests for subordination is movement or preposition. A subordinating clause can move to a sentence-initial position without any difficulty, thus explaining the permissible sentence-initial *nang* phrase. This is illustrated by sentences (46) and (47):

(46) *Nabasag ang puso niya nang bigla na lamang sumuko si Pagong.*

na-basag	ʔaŋ	puso	nija	naŋ	bigla	na
<PFV.PF>break	DET	heart	3SG	RM	suddenly	LNK
lamaŋ	s<um>uko		si	pagonŋ		
only	<PFV.AF>give up		DET	Pagong		

‘His heart broke when Pagong suddenly gave up.’

(47) *Nang bigla na lamang sumuko si Pagong, nabasag ang puso niya.*

naŋ	bigla	na	lamaŋ	s<um>uko	si	pagonŋ
RM	suddenly	LNK	only	<PFV.AF>give up	DET	Pagong
na-basag	ʔaŋ	puso	nija			
<PFV.PF>break	DET	heart	3SG			

‘When Pagong suddenly gave up, his heart broke.’

Subordination can function as modification (Pavey, 2010, p. 224). In this sense, the subordinating clause provides additional information about the main clause. These are traditionally called adverbial clauses. Looking at sentence (46), the subordinating clause *nang bigla na lamang sumuko si Pagong* ‘when Pagong suddenly gave up’ provides a temporal marker of when the event (of the main clause) occurs. In this note, clausal relator phrases such as (46) and (47) are similar to attributive relator phrases, such as (44), here rewritten as (48), in that they act as modifiers.

(48) *Nakahinga nang maluwag*

naka-hiŋa naŋ ma-luwag

PFV.AF-breathe RM ADJ-free

‘Was able to breathe a sigh of relief’

The difference is that in attributive relator phrases, the modification is done by a phrase or a bare word, while the modification in clausal relator phrases is done by a subordinate clause.

Having looked at the process of preposing, we see three different syntactic behaviors relative to the elements involved. Such difference reflects how we categorize the relator phrases in terms of the modifying element.

Going back, we saw how *ng* and *nang* exist in polysemy, as these linkers perform different but related functions. These functions can generally be characterized as linking or relational marking, but we see apparent nuances in behavior, as substantiated by the process of preposing. This general relational marking function of the NANG forms, furthermore, can be analyzed via another concept: metonymy.

Metonymy

Metonymy is the state of being a metonym. Palmer (2003, p. 193) provides four questions that would help in investigating a metonym:

- (49) a. Is there a category schema?
 b. Is there a category prototype?
 c. Is there a well motivated polysemous structure that is a set of conventional meanings explainable in terms of reasonable or natural elaborations and extensions?

- d. Can the lexemes be categorized using theoretical concepts from cognitive linguistics?

Metonyms are things that are in contiguity, referring to a close or direct relationship between two things. The first question pertains to the existence of a category schema. This is directly related to whether the *ng/nang* forms constitute a domain. Let us recall the different functions of *ng* and *nang* as presented in the previous discussion:

- (50) a. Nominal relational marking/linking
b. Attributive relational marking/linking
c. Clausal relational marking/linking

From here, it is possible to posit that *ng* and *nang* form what can be called a DOMAIN of LINKING. The second and third question of Palmer (2003) relates to the consequence of positing this domain. The domain is illustrated by a prototype or a schema, A links B as illustrated in the previous section. This mirrors the proposal of La Polla (2008) in also positing a Y-phrase (also called a relator phrase). The motivation of linking elements stems not only from syntagmatic relations but also from paradigmatic relations, an idea introduced by Ferdinand de Saussure.

The symbol NANG refers to the two orthographical forms, *ng* and *nang*, as a metonym or as a single category. The metonym NANG is said to have these features:

- (51) a. Domain: Linking
b. Prototype: A RM B
c. Polysemy: Nominal Linking
Attributive Linking
Clausal Linking

The feature of a metonym where one can stand for another (paradigmatic relation) is a probable cause of errors. Problems in the use of the different orthographic forms, *ng* and *nang*, as shown in the next section reflect the metonymous properties of the said forms.

CURRENT USAGE AND ERROR ANALYSIS

Since it has been established that a formal relation in the metonym NANG exists, possible confusion could arise from the representations of the metonym from the categorical prototype. This confusion leads to errors, as illustrated by the alternation

of the forms in question in the corpus⁴ examined. A preliminary error analysis is given below.

One of the significant errors found is in items in a series. Items in a series occur whenever a sentence includes a list of two or more things. The items can be any type of grammatical unit but for the sake and purposes of this study, the items will be limited to noun phrases. Consider the following:

- (52) a. ...*hindi tulad nang ibang kilala niya*...
 '...not like the other people she knows...'
- b. ...*tulad nang gabing iyon*...
 '...like that night...'
- c. ...*hindi tulad nang araw na iyon*...
 '...not like that day...'

(52a) – (52c) are samples of statements of comparison. In Filipino, these are introduced by words *tulad* 'same as, similar' or *katulad* 'like that of'. Instead of using the orthographic form *ng*, the common error encountered is the use of the other [na], orthographically represented as *nang*. Here, it is apparent that such error is committed as both *ng* and *nang* are used in the process of linking, and are thus commonly confused with each other.

Having established the functional relationship between these two word-forms in terms of metonymy, it is then easier to explain the problems encountered by language users in distinguishing the two forms when it comes to orthography.

CONCLUSION

The usual analysis for the word form *ng* treats the morpheme as a determiner which introduces non-nominative or possessive nouns. This determiner, moreover, marks the genitive case, and carries the [-definite] feature. Another form, *nang*, although sharing a similar phonological form [na], functions differently as a marker of adverbs or clauses. However, we saw how both forms share similarities in function, and in treating both morphemes as relational markers, we are presented with a unified analysis of these NANG forms. Existing as metonyms, these relational markers fall under the domain of linking, represented schematically as [Y → a RM b]. Figure 1 is presented below to illustrate the shared relationship, i.e. metonymy of *ng* and *nang* phrases.

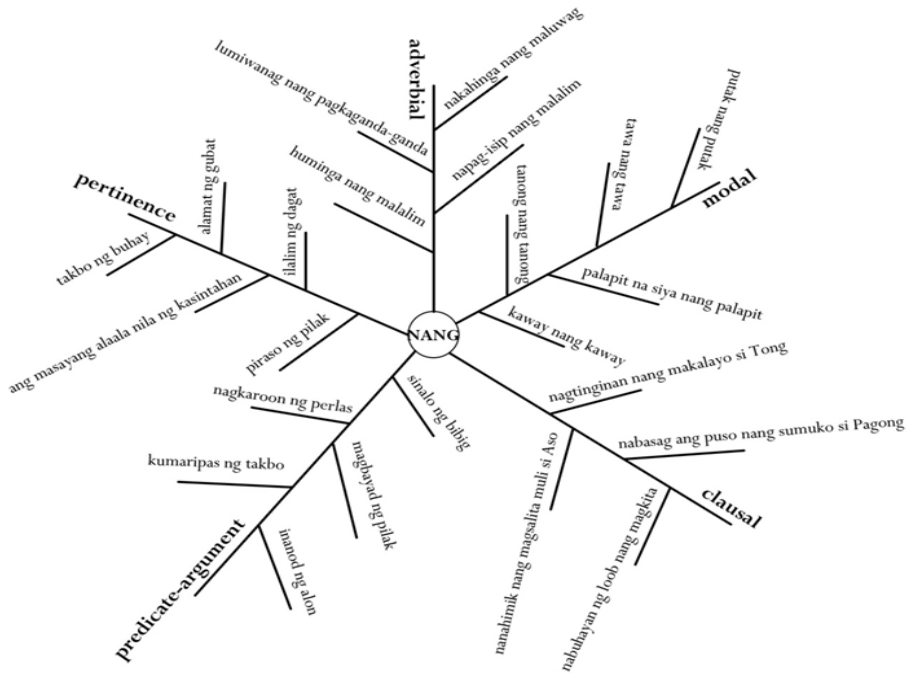


Figure 1. Mapping *ng* and *nang*

The function of both *ng* and *nang* as a relational marker connects with other fields such as orthography and grammar teaching. As the two forms function similarly, it is not rare to encounter errors in distinguishing their orthographic forms.

Consider the traditional principle that a word's orthographic representation should reflect its pronunciation: *kung ano ang bigkas, siyang baybay* [trans. 'the pronunciation is the spelling'], which is reflected in several guidelines such as *Gabay Tungkol sa Ispeling*, *Bokabularyo at Balarilang Pilipino*, and *Revisyon ng Alfabeto at Patnubay sa Ispeling ng Wikang Filipino*. If one strictly adheres to this principle, there is motivation to propose a single orthographic form <nang> for both morphemes, since it has been previously established that these morphemes share the same phonetic form. Moreover, errors in distinguishing *ng* and *nang* would be avoided. However, we also see that despite their status as metonyms functioning as relational markers, the two morphemes still differ in behavior, distribution, and co-occurrence relations. Such is the argument on the other side of the orthographic debate, pushing for the distinction of both forms.

Linguistically speaking, errors in spelling are indeed caused by confusing the two forms as these function quite similarly in the language. However, if we indeed

merge the two morphemes into a single orthographic representation, the obvious differences in behavior and distribution would be overlooked. It is suggested that the orthographic distinction between *ng* and *nang* be retained since there are still major differences existing between the two forms. However, teaching the usage of the two morphemes must be fine-tuned, not only focusing on their distribution, but more importantly, on their minute differences in function and co-occurrence relations as illustrated above.

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

1	1st person
3	3rd person
ADJ	Adjectival forming affix
ADVM	Adverb Marker
AF	Actor focus
CONJ	Conjunction
CSM	Change of state marker (La Polla, 2008)
DET	Determiner
DIST	Distal
EXIST	Existential marker
FT	Links a predicate with a fronted topic (La Polla, 2008)
INFV	Infinitive
IPFV	Imperfective
LNK	Linker
NEG	Negative marker
PF	Patient focus
PFV	Perfective aspect
PL	Plural
PRX	Proximal
RM	Relational marker
RP	Relator phrase
SG	Singular

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ENDNOTES

- ¹ A randomly selected text in Filipino, *Alamat ng Gubat* by Bob Ong (2004), was analyzed inductively for this study. The full text was utilized, but only representative constructions are presented in this paper.
- ² Based on a corpus of 15,500 lines of Tagalog texts.
- ³ The term “homophony” to characterize the orthographically distinct ‘ng’ and ‘nang’ (both pronounced as [naŋ]) is discussed in detail in the Section on Metonymy (see page 60).
- ⁴ Based on a corpus of 15,500 lines of Tagalog texts.

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