

THE INTERPRETATION OF SEMI-VOWELS IN TAGBANUA¹ OF PALAWAN ISLAND

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1. Introduction – The Problem.

Crucial to the interpretation of semi-vowels in any language is an analysis of the non-suspicious syllable patterns. The predominant patterns in Tagbanwa are CV² and CVC, although V and VC also occur in more restricted environments.

1.1 Syllable patterns.

1.11 The CV pattern.

The CV pattern can be illustrated by such words as /si/ 'personal focused determiner occurring before names of people', /sa.bap/³ 'because', /pa.naw/ 'walk', /taka?⁴ 'but', /da.kel/ 'many', /ba.nar/ 'very', /ba.sa.en/ '(will) read', /sim.na.kay/ 'rode', /[?]a.ba.ga/ 'shoulder', /ka.da/ 'every', /[?]ag.sa/ 'term of address used with one's peers', /mag.pa.sa.nap/ 'is landing' (the airplane), and /ba.lay/ 'house'. There is no limitation on the distribution of this pattern.

1.12 The CVC pattern.

There is likewise no limitation of distribution with the CVC pattern, which can be illustrated as follows: /pag.[?]a.but/ 'arrival', /sim.na.kay/ 'rode', /da.ku.la?[?] 'big', /si.min.led/ 'went in', /[?]ag.dan/ 'stairway, ladder', /mag.[?]e.beg/ 'spinning', /lim.nam.pud/ 'went down', /da.kel/ 'many', /kak.se.gan/ 'strength', /ma.rang.ga?[?] 'will get broken', /na.[?]gen/ 'satiated', and /ma.bang.lu?[?] 'fragrant, sweet-smelling'.

1.13 The VC pattern.

Examples of the VC pattern are /ba.sa.en/ '(will) read', /tim.pu.an/ 'to time something', /mag.sa?[?]li.sa?[?]li.en/ 'going to and fro', /pag.pu.pun.du.an/ 'storage place', and /ki.a?[?]pu.san/ 'youngest child'. From this we can see that a VC syllable only occurs following a vowel, usually word final.

1.14 The V Pattern.

The V pattern is the most restricted in distribution, as can be seen from these examples: /pi.a.na.wan/ 'where someone walked', /mi.a.gad/ 'riches, wealth', and /pi.a.nga?[?]nan/ 'where someone went to eat'. We can say about this pattern that it only occurs following a CV syllable (where the vowel is /i/, although this may prove to be too restrictive as more data is gathered) and preceding a consonant.

1.15 The CCV pattern.

In indigenous words, consonant clusters do not occur except across syllable boundaries. In loan words, however, consonant clusters can occur within a single syllable. For example, /ma.is.tru/ 'teacher', /kum.pli.an.yu/ 'birthday', and /plin/ 'airplane'.

Thus, the inventory of Tagbanwa syllable patterns is (C)V(C)⁵ with (CC)V(C) in loan words.

1.2 Rules for the formation of syllables.

The following rules emerge for the formation of syllables in Tagbanwa:

- a. A single inter-vocalic C always goes with the following V.
- b. In loan words inter-vocalic CC can go with the following V.
- c. V can be a syllable only in the environment (CV).CV_.C.⁶
- d.
$$\begin{array}{l} u \longrightarrow /w/ \\ i \longrightarrow /y/ \end{array} \left. \vphantom{\begin{array}{l} u \\ i \end{array}} \right\} \text{ in the environments } _V, V_., \text{ or } V_ \#.$$
⁷

Examples: /ban.wa/ 'town, country', /^oa.wak/ 'waist', /ba.ya.wak/ 'lizard', /baw/ 'and', /may/ 'there is, there are', /ba.lay/ 'house', /na.saw.ri.an/ 'late', /kay.ti/ 'now', and /puy.di/ 'possible'.

- e.
$$\begin{array}{l} u \longrightarrow /u/ \\ i \longrightarrow /i/ \end{array} \left. \vphantom{\begin{array}{l} u \\ i \end{array}} \right\} \text{ in the environments } .C_., _C., \text{ or as a V syllable in the environment specified in rule c.}$$

Examples: /^oa.gung/ 'brass gong', /pi.ung.gur/ 'blew down', /bu.at/ 'work', /ma.ma^o.yu^o/ 'will bathe', /si.u.dad/ 'town, city', /si.u.man/ 'whoever', and /mi.u.li^o/ 'went home'.

1.3 The Problem.

Although the interpretation of semi-vowels is greatly aided by analogy with the non-suspicious syllable patterns and by using the rules above, there remains a problem. There are some words in which the syllable pattern is ambiguous, either of two alternatives being possible within the framework established by the non-suspicious patterns. Furthermore, which interpretation of the syllable structure one chooses has a bearing on how [u] and [i] will be written in those words.

2. The Solution — Methodology.

2.1 Checking native speaker reaction with a Test List.

In trying to solve this problem the first thing we did was prepare a Test List of forty-three words containing the problem being worked on. We then selected four of the more educated men of the community⁹ and worked with each one independently on the Test List. Our procedure was to explain to each man the principle of each syllable in a word containing one and only one vowel, or peak. We then emphasized that the number of syllables one hears should govern the number of vowels one writes, and that, if there is any discrepancy, it is to be resolved by aural criteria. Having given this explanation we then read aloud each word on the List, without the language assistant seeing it, and asked him first to tell us how many syllables he had heard, after which he was told to write the word down. Having written it he was told to see if there was any discrepancy between the number of vowels he had written and the number of syllables he had said he had heard. If there was any discrepancy the word was read again in order to see if he still agreed with his previous statement of the number of syllables. If he did, the word was rewritten with the representation of the semi-vowel being altered in order to bring conformity between the number of vowels and the number of syllables heard.

Having worked in this way with each of the four language assistants, we found that, in all but one of the forty-three words, there was absolute conformity in the way in which they had interpreted the syllable structures. This conformity suggested that either the syllable structure of a word was something that native speakers of Tagbanwa intuitive-

ly knew about the words of their language, or that there was some system or set of rules whereby the syllable structure could be unerringly determined. If such a system failed to emerge, the former assumption would have to be made. This would leave the non-native speaker somewhat in the dark, however, requiring him to seek the opinion of a native speaker concerning the syllable structure of every ambiguous pair.

2.2 Grouping of words according to indeterminate syllable structure.

When the Test List was made, the rules for the formation of syllables were not as refined as they are in their presentation above. When they were refined we were able to eliminate eleven of the words from the Test List as having only one possible structure. The remaining thirty two words are listed below according to their alternative syllable patterns. There is an extra word, *nasawrian* 'late', which was not on the original Test List but which was tested with one of the four language assistants on another occasion. It is included here because it represents another pair of ambiguous syllable structures not represented by the other words. The words on the left are the ones which the language assistants chose as showing the correct syllable structure:

CVC / CV.V

puy.(di) / pu.i.(di) 'possible'
kay.(ti) / ka.i.(ti) 'now'

CVC.CV.VC / CV.VC.CVC

(na).saw.ri.an / (na).sa.ur.yan 'late'

CVC.CVC / CV.CV.VC

(ma).ma.?.yu? / (ma).ma.?.i.u? 'will bathe'
(mag.pa).dib.wat / (mag.pa).di.bu.at 'is going up'
(di.ku).ras.yun / (di.ku).ra.si.un 'decoration'
(kun).dis.yun / (kun).di.si.un 'condition'
? ab.wat / ? a.bu.at 'high'
(nag).pab.wat / (nag).pa.bu.at 'went up'
bin.wat / bi.nu.at 'did, made'
(ti.li).bis.yun / (ti.li).bi.si.un 'television'
(nag).pas.yar / (nag).pa.si.ar 'visited'
(ka).? ab.wat / (ka).? a.bu.at 'height'
dib.wat / di.bu.at 'on top'

CV.V. / CVC

si.u.(dad) / siw.(dad) 'city, town'
mi.u.(suy) / miw.(suy) 'left'
mi.u.(li?) / miw.(li?) 'went home'
si.u.(man) / siw.(man) 'whoever'
bi.u.(tu? . bu.tu?) / biw.(tu? . bu.tu?) 'heel'

CV.CV.V(C) / CVC.CV(C)

? i.pi.ag.(tul.du?) / ? ip.yag.(tul.du?) 'taught'
? i.pi.al.(teg) / ? ip.yal.(teg) 'showed'
? i.pi.ag.(li.but.-li.but) / ? ip.yag.(li.but.-li.but) 'went round and round'

| | | |
|---------------|---|---------------------------|
| VC.CVC | / | V.CV.VC |
| (tu).al.yaʔ | / | (tu).a.li.aʔ 'towel' |
| (mi).ap.yat | / | (mi).a.pi.at 'climbed up' |

| | | |
|--------------------|---|----------------------------------|
| CVC.CV | / | CV.CV.V |
| (ʔ i).nap.ya.(tan) | / | (ʔ i).na.pi.a.(tan) 'climbed up' |
| (ʔ a).rub.wa.(tay) | / | (ʔ a).ru.bu.a.(tay) 'tall, high' |
| ʔ ab.wa.(tay) | / | ʔ a.bu.a.(tay) 'high' |
| mas.ya.(du) | / | ma.si.a.(du) 'very' |

| | | |
|----------------------|---|--------------------------------------|
| CVC.CV | / | CV.CVC |
| ʔ ul.yu | / | ʔ u.liw 'July' |
| (nag.pa).rad.yu | / | (nag.pa).ra.diw 'radioed' |
| paʔ .yu.(ʔ an) | / | pa.ʔ iw.(an) 'will bathe' |
| (pag).paʔ .yu.(ʔ an) | / | (pag).pa.ʔ iw.(ʔ an) 'bathing place' |
| (pa).lag.yu | / | (pa).la.giw 'run' |

2.3 Comparison of patterns to determine inconsistency.

The next step was to compare each pair of alternative patterns with each other in order to see if there were any which were the opposite of each other. This would reveal if the native speakers had always consistently chosen the same syllable structure when confronted with the same two possibilities. It was easy to see that the CVC / CV.V alternative is just the opposite of the CV.V / CVC choice. It was also apparent that the CV.CV.V(C) / CVC.CV(C) and CVC.CV / CV.CV.V alternatives are diametrically opposed. This means that, when confronted with a choice between CVC and CV.V, and CV.CV.V and CVC.CV, the language assistants did not always choose CVC and CV.CV.V as being the correct structure. They were all agreed, however, on which times the choice should be CVC and which times it should be CV.CV.V.

2.4 General hypothesis.

It is apparent that, in all cases except CV.V / CVC and CV.CV.V(C) / CVC.CV(C), the general pattern is reduction of the first reducible vowel. In other words the first occurrence of a semi-vowel in a word is written as a consonant unless this would produce an impossible syllable pattern. If such a pattern were produced, that semi-vowel is not considered reducible. It receives full vowel status. It is then possible to continue looking in the same word for the next reducible vowel in sequence, which is then reduced and written as a consonant.

The exceptions to this are the following words: si.u.dad, mi.u.suy, mi.u.liʔ, si.u.man, bi.u.tuʔ .bu.tuʔ, ʔ i.pi.ag.tul.duʔ, ʔ i.pi.al.teg, and ʔ i.pi.ag.li.but.li.but. According to our hypothesis we would expect the first /u/ in the first five words to become /w/, and the second /i/ in the last three words to become /y/.

It is worthy of note that the second /i/ of ʔ i.pi.ag.tul.duʔ, ʔ i.pi.al.teg, and ʔ i.pi.ag.li.but.li.but is a morpheme, namely the completed action infix (which is also the case with the first /i/ of mi.u.suy and mi.u.liʔ). Consequently we can add the restriction to our hypothesis that a vowel does not reduce if it is a morpheme in and of itself.

A further restriction can be gleaned from the other five exceptions si.u.dad, mi.u.suy, mi.u.liʔ, si.u.man, and bi.u.tuʔ .bu.tuʔ, namely that a vowel does not reduce following /i/.

2.5. Further testing.

Having come this far, our next step was to examine more data in order to check the hypothesis. From a 100-plus sentence text we were able to find further twelve examples of words with an ambiguous syllable structure. All of these we were able to incorporate into our previous data, using the syllable pattern pairs already established, as follows:

| | | |
|-----------------------|----------|--|
| CVC | / | CV.V. |
| (si).kay.(tu) | / | (si).ka.i.(tu) 'here' |
| CVC.CVC | / | CV.CV.VC |
| (? i).nap.yat | / | (? i).na.pi.at 'climbed up' |
| (ki).min.yas | / | (ki).mi.ni.as 'scraped' |
| kin.yas | / | ki.ni.as 'scraped' |
| mis.yun | / | mi.si.un 'missionary' |
| CV.CV.V(C) | / | CVC.CV(C) |
| ? i.pi.a.(ke? .pel) | / | ? ip.ya.(ke? .pel) 'applied' |
| ? i.ki.a.(? u.li?) | / | ? ik.ya.(? u.li?) 'was able to go home' |
| ? i.ti.a.(? en) | / | ? it.ya.(? en) 'set' |
| ? i.pi.ag.(? u.gad) | / | ? ip.yag.(? u.gad) 'transferred' |
| ? i.pi.ag.(tu.tu.ran) | / | ? ip.yag.(tu.tu.ran) 'told stories' |
| VC.CVC | / | V.CV.VC |
| (si).ap.yut | / | (si).a.pi.ut 'carried' |
| CVC.CV | / | CV.CV.V. |
| put.yu.(kan) | / | pu.ti.u.(kan) 'bee' |

Although these words were not tested with native speakers using the same technique as with the words on the Test List, they have, nevertheless, been seen by native speakers of Tagbanwa written in the above form, and no objections have been raised to their spelling. Up to this point, therefore, the hypothesis still stands, although it will be tested against future data.

3. Summary.

The inventory of Tagbanwa syllable types may be summarized as (C)V(C), with (CC)V(C) in loan words.

Several rules exist for the formation of Tagbanwa syllables:

- A single inter-vocalic C always goes with the following V.
- In loan words inter-vocalic CC can go with the following V.
- V can be a syllable only in the environment (CV).CV. _ .C.
- $$\begin{array}{l} u \longrightarrow /w/ \\ i \longrightarrow /y/ \end{array} \left\} \text{ in the environments } _V, V_, \text{ or } V_\# \right.$$
- $$\begin{array}{l} u \longrightarrow /u/ \\ i \longrightarrow /i/ \end{array} \left\} \text{ in the environments } .C_, _C, \text{ or as a V syllable in the environ-} \right.$$

ment specified in rule c.
- In those cases where the syllable structure of a word is ambiguous, the correct pattern, according to native speaker reaction, can be ascertained by reducing the

first reducible vowel, except where this would produce an impossible syllable pattern (as determined by non-suspicious syllable patterns), where the first reducible vowel is a morpheme, or where the first reducible vowel follows /i/.

NOTES

¹Tagbanwa is the language spoken by a group of swidden agriculturalists, numbering about twelve thousand, inhabiting the central portion of the island of Palawan, Philippines.

²C is an abbreviation for any consonant and V is an abbreviation for any vowel.

³For the purposes of this paper the period denotes syllable boundaries.

⁴The glottal stop, in the Tagbanwa orthography, is written in every position in which it occurs except word initial. In this paper, however, it is also written word initial so that the syllable patterns can be more readily seen.

⁵The parentheses around a C or a V denote that that item is optional.

⁶The _ indicates the slot which the item under discussion will fill.

⁷The arrow means that the item on its left becomes the item on its right.

⁸# denotes a space and consequently the end of a word.

⁹The men selected were Rebrino Pandod, Limbuan Copong, and Vernon Danglung, all residents of the sitio of Lamani, Aramaywan, and Paking Bisquer of the sitio of Kabugaw. Limbuan completed grade six in the Philippine public school system. The other three men completed grade four.

A PRELIMINARY STUDY OF TAGALOG DISCOURSE

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0. Introduction

This paper is a preliminary study of four discourse types found in selected Tagalog texts.¹

1. Discourse Types.

Four discourse genres are posited for Tagalog: Narrative, Procedural, Hortatory, and Explanatory.

1.1. Narrative Discourse. Narrative discourse recounts a series of events ordered more or less chronologically, usually in past/accomplished time. On the basis of an initial selection of six texts, Tagalog narrative discourse is separable into discrete parts expressed in the following formula²:

\pm Aperture \pm Episode₁ . . . + Episode_n \pm (+ Denouement \pm Anti-De) + Closure \pm Finis

In respect to its internal structure, Narrative Discourse is the most varied of the four discourse types in that it is composed not only of Narrative Paragraphs, but Explanatory, Hortatory, and Dialogue Paragraphs as well. The linkage of one paragraph to another to form a coherent discourse is either through Temporal Margins or by Time Horizons. For example, the onset of a new paragraph is marked by a temporal margin beginning with the sentence initial conjunction *nang* 'when' in the following illustration:

Nang maghatinggabi na ay biglang nagising ang babae.
when about-midnight L S/P sudden-L woke-up NM woman
When it was about midnight, the woman suddenly woke up.

The narrative is either first or third person oriented. The difference lies only in whether the narrator is or is not included in the events narrated. The narrator may reveal where he was when he related the story by the way he employs motion verbs and names of actual places.

Some events appear to be grouped together by common setting, common orientation, and by introduction of new participants. To help identify the participants, a reversal operation is recognized (Wise and Lowe 1968). To change the ordering of only two items so that the one that ranked lower in case in one action becomes the higher ranked and vice versa is an operation of reversal. For two items, say 1 and 2, reversal is symbolized as (12), which expresses a permutation in which the first element in parentheses is moved into position after the last element; the notation is a general one that permits permutations of any number of elements to be included in a single statement. Here it is the effect of interchanging 1 and 2. The reversal operation starts out with one participant as agent and the other as, say, goal, then is applied so that the second participant is agent and the first is a lower ranked role. To apply the Wise-Lowe model to a text, an appropriate order principle or ranking has to be established to permit different orderings to be distinguished. The complete ranking is from high to low involvement: agent, experiencer, source, goal, patient, instrument, noninstigative cause, benefactive factitive, range, essive, and zero. The ranking used is based on underlying role or case (Fillmore 1968, Frantz 1970). Agent is the highest ranked role; the others are ordered below it. A second reversal brings them back into the original orientation which signals a new paragraph.

In a narrative about a hold-up, for example, the participants are Alfredo and the hold-up man. The story starts with the hold-up man asking Alfredo to give him his money, an agent and goal situation, in which the agent ranks higher than the goal. Alfredo in turn surprises the hold-up man by suddenly shining his flashlight into his face. Alfredo now as agent outranks the hold-up man. The structure of the text revolves around the regular return to the configuration.

1.2. Procedural Discourse. The procedural discourse consists basically of a series of procedures leading to a Finished Product. Like the narrative, procedural discourse also shows chronological ordering, but since its purpose is to give instructions to accomplish a task or achieve an object, it more commonly employs future or habitual present tenses. The formula for a Procedural Discourse is:

\pm Aperture \pm Procedure₁ . . . + Procedure_n \pm Closure

The internal structure of this discourse type is more restricted than that of the Narrative Discourse in that only Explanatory Paragraphs or a sentence may expound the Aperture and Closure while only Procedural and Explanatory Paragraphs expound the Procedure Tagmemes.

Action is either present/concurrent time or future/projected time. Sentences simply represent progressive steps which usually begin with verbs in the present time but do not have overt agent, e.g.

- (1) Igisa ang sibuyas at kamatis sa langis.
to-fry NM onion and tomato P oil
Fry the onion and tomato with oil.
- (2) Isunod ang giniling na karne at lutuin hanggang lumambot.
to-follow NM ground L meat and to-cook until be-soft
Next add the ground meat and cook until it becomes soft.

The linkage of one paragraph to another to form a coherent discourse is via Temporal Margins of sentences. The Aperture of a Procedural Discourse is a Title Tagmeme which is expounded by a relator axis noun phrase that tells what is to be made or done. The Title Tagmeme occurs pre-nucleus, and relates the parts of the whole paragraph or discourse rather than being the Sentence Topic of one sentence. There is no instance of any sentence having two Sentence Topic Tagmemes, therefore Title should be regarded as distinct from Sentence Topic.

1.3. Hortatory Discourse. Hortatory Discourse attempts to influence conduct. The purpose of this sort of discourse is to give advice or exhortation but explanatory information may be included. The formula for this type of discourse is:

\pm Aperture \pm Point₁ . . . + Point_n \pm Conclusion

Hortatory Discourse (i.e. commands, suggestions, advice, pleas) usually starts with a statement of the Exhortation. The first person dual and second person pronouns occur in this type of discourse. The discourse is addressed to a specific person and frequently refers to that person throughout. Action is either present/concurrent time or future/projected time. Paragraphs link with each other chiefly through the use of Sentence Topics in the opening sentences of paragraphs.

Aperture is expounded by an Equivalent Sentence or a Discourse Vocative Phrase, which issues a call to the hearers to listen. The nuclear tagmemes are a series of Points which may be expounded by Hortatory or Explanatory Paragraphs. Closure is likewise expounded by Hortatory or Explanatory Paragraph types.

1.4. Explanatory Discourse. Explanatory Discourse seeks to provide information required in particular circumstances, and often does so by providing detailed descriptions of a person, situation, or activity. Chronological factors have little or no significance. The discourse is made up of:

\pm Aperture \pm Point_{ex1} . . . + Point_{exn} \pm Conclusion \pm Finis

Explanatory Discourse usually starts with the theme. It consists of a series of Points developing that theme and it leads up to a Conclusion. The Preliminary Tagmeme is an opening remark which serves as background to the whole paragraph and later serves as a linkage to the paragraph that follows. Within paragraphs linkage is provided through Sentence Topics. Verbs are usually in the present or future time which is indicated by the affixes *nag-* and *mag-* such as: *nagsasalita* 'speaking' *magsasalita* 'will speak'. Nominalized verbs are quite numerous in this type of discourse. These are indicated by the nominalizer *pag-*. Nominals formed by *pag-* express the meaning 'act of' or 'process of' and the like.

Explanatory Discourse tends to use more examples and illustrations, hypothetical or factual, than any other discourse type.

2. Paragraph Types.

Tagmemes of discourse are manifested by paragraph syntagmemes. There are five basic paragraph types in Tagalog: Narrative, Procedural, Hortatory, Explanatory, and Dialogue. In these paragraph types, the sentences of the paragraph nucleus (and sometimes those of opening and closing tagmemes) are divided into Figure and Ground. The latter includes certain sentence margins – specific to the particular paragraph types – which relate lexically to preceding or following sentences. The Figure includes the balance of the sentence.

2.1. Narrative Paragraphs. A Narrative Paragraph relates a series of events or actions together in a chain. Each paragraph usually has one participant who is the focus or topic of the paragraph. The narration follows this participant around. The topic participant must always be involved in the climax. A Narrative Paragraph requires the stating of the general time horizon of the paragraph; this is usually stated at the beginning of the first sentence. Build-up steps in a paragraph generally have actions from the same semantic domain.

Narrative Paragraphs are distinguished by a nucleus which consists of a series of Build-ups (BU's) with BU_n as paragraph climax. Build-ups are chronologically linked. The formula for a Narrative Paragraph is:

\pm Sett \pm BU₁ . . . + BU_n \pm Term

The Setting (Sett) provides information in respect to any of the following: temporal orientation, locale, and dramatis personae. Terminus (Term) provides some closing comment.

Paragraph 15 of the Text (Narrative Paragraph)

| | |
|---|-----------------|
| <p>Nang maghatinggabi na ay biglang nagising ang babae. when about-midnight L S/P sudden-L woke-up NM woman</p> <p>Parang may narinig siyang ingay buhat sa salas. as-if there-is heard she-L noise from P living room.</p> <p>When it was about midnight, the woman suddenly woke up. It seemed that she heard a noise coming from the living room.</p> | Sett |
| <p>Agad na tumindig ang babae. Baka nanakawin immediately L stood-up NM woman perhaps will-steal</p> <p>nito ang salaping nakatago. this NM money-L hidden.</p> <p>The woman stood up immediately. "That man might steal the hidden money."</p> | BU ₁ |
| <p>Sinilip niya ang lalaki. Sa pamagitan ng ilawan ay peeped she NM man P through L lamp S/P</p> <p>nakita niyang tulog ang sugatan. saw she-L slept NM wounded</p> <p>She peeped at the man. By means of a lamp she saw that the wounded man was asleep.</p> | BU ₂ |
| <p>Bumalik siya uli sa kama niya. Pinilit niyang matulog went-back she again P bed her forced she-L to-sleep</p> <p>subalit may narinig na naman siyang kaluskos. but there-is heard L again she-L rustling sound</p> <p>Kinapitan siya ng takot. affected she L fear</p> <p>She went back to bed. She forced herself to go to sleep, but she heard a rustling sound again. She was scared.</p> | BU ₃ |
| <p>Kinuha niya nang dahan-dahan ang kutsilyo sa tabi ng got she L slowly NM knife P beside L</p> <p>kanyang higaan, at humanda na siya. her-L bed and prepared L she</p> <p>Slowly, she got the knife beside her bed and got ready.</p> | Term |

2.2. Procedural Paragraph. In Procedural Paragraphs, i.e. procedural explanations on how to do something, the participant can be left unstated or generic. The goal of the procedure is stated at the beginning.

A Procedural Paragraph is linked to the preceding paragraph by a temporal margin which is sequentially related to the main topic of the preceding paragraph. This margin is restricted to future tense. A single Procedural Paragraph is usually the complete body of a discourse with Aperture and Closure added. The formula for a Procedural Paragraph is:

$$\pm \text{Sett} \pm \text{Activity} \pm \text{Step 1} \dots + \text{Step}_n$$

Example of a Procedural Paragraph

| | |
|---|--------|
| <p>Igisa ang sibuyas at kamatis sa langis. to-fry NM onion and tomato P oil Fry the onion and tomato with oil.</p> | Step 1 |
| <p>Isunod ang giniling na karne at lutuin hanggang lumambot. to-follow NM ground L meat and to-cook until be-soft. Next, add the ground meat and cook until it becomes soft.</p> | Step 2 |
| <p>Idagdag ang hipon at lutuin nang limang minuto. to-follow NM shrimp and cook L five-L minute Add the shrimp and cook for five minutes.</p> | Step 3 |
| <p>Idagdag ang arina at haluing mabuti. to-add NM flour and stir-L well Add the flour and stir it well.</p> | Step 4 |
| <p>Idagdag ang sabaw at haluing uli hanggang lumapot ang sabaw. to-add NM broth and stir-L again until be-thick NM broth Add the broth and stir it again until the broth becomes thick.</p> | Step 5 |
| <p>Isunod ang iba pang mga sangkap. to-follow NM other more-L NM ingredient Next, add the other ingredients.</p> | Step 6 |
| <p>Timplahan ayon sa panlasa. to-season according P sense-of-taste Season according to desired taste.</p> | Step 7 |

2.3. Hortatory Paragraph. In a Hortatory Paragraph (exhortation, advice), the speaker and the addressee are necessarily named. The Exhortation Topic is stated at the beginning and at the end of the paragraph.

The Exhortation Tagmeme is the only obligatory tagmeme of the Hortatory Paragraph. There is an exhortation, command, or plea given (with consequent reference to second person). The Result Tagmeme does not occur in the Hortatory Paragraph here analyzed. The Exhortation Tagmeme contains some advice expressed either directly or obliquely. There is no peculiar grammatical form for giving commands but in sentences manifesting these tagmemes, the tense is restricted to future.

The Reinforcement Tagmeme links back to the Exhortation Tagmeme and restates it in the same form or in a paraphrase.

Hortatory Paragraphs are found embedded in Dialogue Paragraphs in Narrative Discourse.

The formula for a Hortatory Paragraph is:

± Prelim + Exhor ± Reason ± Warn ± Reinf ± Term

Example of a Hortatory Paragraph

| | |
|--|---------|
| <p>Huminto sa paglakad ang matandang lalaki. stopped p act-of-walk NM old-L man</p> <p>Pumihit sa akin. turned-around P me</p> <p>The old man stopped walking. He looked back at me.</p> | Prelim. |
| <p>Anak, manalangin ka. Humingi ka ng tawad sa kanya. child to-pray you to-ask you L forgiveness P her/him.</p> <p>My child, you pray. Ask for forgiveness from her/him.</p> | Exhor. |
| <p>Siya ay Pagibig na hindi pumapatay kundi she/he S/P love L not cause-to-die if-not</p> <p>bumubuhay, may luha ang tinig ng matandang lalaki at tumingin cause-to-live has tear NM voice L old-L man and looked</p> <p>sa dakong kanan niya. Naroon ang silya ng kamatayan. P direction-L right his there-was NM chair L death</p> <p>He/She is a loved one who does not kill but will make you alive. The old man's voice trembled, and he looked to his right. The chair of death was there.</p> | Reason |
| <p>Huwag mong kalilimutan ang bilin ko sa iyo. don't you-L will-forget NM advice my P you</p> <p>Don't forget my advice to you.</p> | Warn. |
| <p>Manalangin ka hanggang sa huling sandali, Carlo, anak. to-pray you until P last-L moment Carlo child</p> <p>You pray up to the last moment, Carlo, my child.</p> | Reinf. |

2.4. Explanatory Paragraph. Explanatory Paragraphs generally proceed logically through an explanation, explaining each part in turn. The topic is stated at the beginning of the paragraph nucleus.

The formula for Explanatory Paragraph is:

$\pm \text{Prelim} \pm \text{Text} \pm \text{Expo}^n \pm \text{Reason}^n \pm \text{Warn} \pm \text{Result} \pm \text{Term}$

Explanatory Paragraphs manifest the opening stage tagmeme of Narrative as well as Procedural Discourse. There are two optional peripheral tagmemes in Explanatory Paragraphs, namely: (1) Preliminary, which occurs before the nucleus and (2) Terminus, which occurs following the nucleus. The Prelim and the Term may be any comment not figuring in the linkage system within the paragraph and in some way related to the whole. The nucleus of an Explanatory Paragraph consists of four tagmemes. The obligatory Text usually occurs first. It announces the subject of the paragraph, which is something to be explained, accounted for as to situation, meaning, function, reason, or result. Linked to the Text in a particular way for each tagmeme may be an Exposition, a Reason, or Result.

The Text Tagmeme may be in portmanteau function on both paragraph and discourse levels. It may simultaneously announce the paragraph and the discourse topic or may more specifically indicate the central character or characters of a discourse.

The Expo Tagmeme is an exposition of the Text by presenting material which paraphrases or parallels the Text through synonyms or repetition of lexical items.

The Reason Tagmeme is one in which the Figure of S₂ is a paraphrase of the Cause Margin of S₁; or the Figure of S₂ exploits and may reverse the negative-affirmative value of the Cause Margin of S₁; or the Conditional Margin of S₂ exploits and likewise may reverse the negative-affirmative value of the Figure of S₁. The example below illustrates Text, Expo, and Reason tagmemes.

Paragraph VI of the Text (Explanatory Paragraph)

| | |
|---|--------|
| <p>Si Ignacio ay kolektor ng isang mayamang may-ari PM Ignacio S/P collector L one-L wealthy owner ng lupa sa San Pablo. L land P San Pablo. Ignacio is a collector for a wealthy landowner in San Pablo.</p> | Text |
| <p>Dahil sa magtatapos na ang buwan, ang kanyang koleksiyon because L will-end L NM month NM his-L collection ay umaabot na sa may sampung libong piso. S/P is-reaching L P has ten-L thousand-L peso Because the month was almost ended, his collection already amounted to about ten thousand pesos.</p> | Expo |
| <p>Ito'y itinago niya sa ilalim ng kanilang sahig, habang this S/P hid he P under L their-L floor while hinihintay nila ang pagdating ng kawani ng mayamang waiting they NM arrival L employee L wealthy-L may-ari ng lupa upang iyon ay kunin. owner L land inorder that S/P get He hid this under their floor while they were waiting for the arrival of an employee of the wealthy landowner to collect it.</p> | Reason |

2.5. Dialogue Paragraph. Longacre (1968) formulated a calculus for the description of dialogue. He suggests three main types of Dialogue Paragraphs, all of which apply to Tagalog. The three main Dialogue Paragraph types are: Simple Dialogue Paragraph, Compound Dialogue Paragraph, and Complex Dialogue Paragraph.

The Dialogue Paragraph may contain a Setting. The nucleus consists of a series of Speech tagmemes of which Speech₁ is the initiating utterance and may be lexically a Question (Ques), Proposal (Prop), or Remark (Rem). Speech₃ is the resolving utterance and is lexically an Answer (A), Response (Resp), or Evaluation (Eval). A dialogue may be prolonged by an intervening Speech₂ which is lexically a Counter-Question (Ques), Counter-Proposal (Prop), or Counter-Remark (Rem). The answer usually omits words or phrases which are restorable from the question.

Speech tagmeme zero rank (Sp₀) constitutes an inner periphery of the Dialogue Paragraph. Sp₀ precedes and/or follows the nucleus proper. Sp₀ is lexically a remark.

The Setting tagmeme introduces the dramatis personae of the paragraph, the time horizon, or a combination of these.

The Build-up tagmemes of the dialogue are much the same as those of the Narrative Paragraph. In dialogue paragraphs the BU tagmemes are peripheral whereas the BU's of Narrative Paragraphs are nuclear.

Dialogue linkage, however, revolves around what is said in one part of the dialogue as related to what is said next in the dialogue.

Dialogues containing Sp₁ plus Sp₃ are Simple Dialogue Paragraphs; those containing a Sp₂ are Complex Dialogue Paragraphs; those containing two or more exchange tagmemes expounded by Simple or Complex Dialogue Paragraphs are Compound Dialogue Paragraphs.

The formula for a Dialogue Paragraph is:

$$\pm \text{Sett} \pm \text{BU}^n [\pm \text{Sp}_0^n + (\pm \text{Sp}_1 \pm \text{Sp}_2 \pm \text{Sp}_3)] \pm \text{Term}$$

Paragraphs 10 & 11 of the Text (Dialogue Paragraphs)

| | |
|---|------------|
| <p>Nang gabing iyon ay umulan. Pakakain, nagdasal si Rosa. when night-L that S/P rained after-eating prayed PM Rosa.</p> <p>Tutungo na sana siya sa kanyang higaan nang siya'y about-to-go L would-be she P her-L bed when sheS/P</p> <p>makarinig ng katok sa pinto. able-to-hear L knock P door</p> <p>That night, it rained. After eating, Rosa prayed. She was about to go to bed, when she heard a knock at the door.</p> | Sett |
| <p>Sino iyan, tanong niya, na ang puso'y halos lumukso sa takot. who that ask she L NM heart S/P almost to-jump P fear</p> <p>"Who's that?" she asked, her heart was beating fast from fear.</p> | Sp1 (Ques) |
| <p>Tulungan mo ako, wika ng isang lalaki. Ako'y sugatan. to-help you me said L one-L man I S/P wounded</p> <p>Papasukin mo ako. to-let-enter you me</p> <p>"Help me," a man said. "I'm wounded. Let me enter."</p> | Sp1 (Prop) |
| <p>Ang utos sa akin ng aking asawa'y huwag NM command P me L my husband S/P don't</p> <p>magpapasok, wika ng babae. will-let-enter said L woman</p> <p>"My husband commanded me not to let anyone enter," the woman said.</p> | Sp2 (Prop) |
| <p>Subalit halos hindi na ako makahinga. but almost not L I able-to-breathe</p> <p>Kailangan ko ang tulong. Malakas ang tulo ng dugo ko. need I NM help strong NM drip L blood my</p> <p>"But I can hardly breathe now. I'm in need of help. I'm bleeding heavily."</p> | Sp3 (Eval) |
| <p>Kung magtatagal pa'y tiyak na mamatay ako if will-stay-longer still-S/P sure L will-die I</p> <p>rito sa pintuan ninyo. here P door your</p> <p>"If you delay longer, I will surely die here at your door."</p> | Term |

3. Linkage.

Linkage between sentences in a paragraph is sometimes carried by sequential time margins in the sentence. The linkage is sometimes carried by the end of one sentence being echoed in the beginning of the next sentence.

Linkage between paragraphs of a Narrative Discourse is of two sorts, lexical and grammatical. Grammatical linkage involves (a) linkage of the final sentence of one paragraph to the initial sentence of the following (tail-head linkage) or summary of one paragraph in the initial sentence of the following, and (b) consecutive time horizons in the initial sentences of consecutive paragraphs (Longacre 1968:1).

3.1. Tail-Head Linkage and Linkage through Summary. Paragraphs 3 and 4 of the text under study illustrates this kind of linkage. S_n of paragraph 3 is about Rosa asking her husband whether he was going to leave her all alone. The next paragraph reintroduces the man's proper name *Ignacio*, which was not mentioned in the preceding paragraph, followed by the adjective *nag-iisa* 'alone' which recapitulates the noun *pag-iisa* 'being alone'. The new paragraph is distinguished from the former by the portion of the sentence which mentions the proper name *Ignacio*, but is linked to the preceding paragraph by the next portion of the sentence which repeats the adjective *nag-iisa* 'alone'.

3.2. Consecutive Time Horizons. In the discourse referred to, the following are Consecutive Time Horizons given in the first sentence of each paragraph.

- P2 ngayong hapon
now-L afternoon
This afternoon
- P8 Nang anyong kakapit sa kanya si Rosa ...
when form-L to-clang P him PM Rosa
When Rosa tried to cling to him ...
- P10 Nang gabing iyon ...
when night-L that
That night ...
- P15 Nang maghatinggabi na ...
When about-midnight L
When it was about midnight ...

Lexical linkage comes via *Dramatis Personae*, by: (1) continuity of a specific *Dramatis Personae*, (2) continuity through the conversation of the *Dramatis Personae*, or (3) continuity of action of the *Dramatis Personae*.

(1) Continuity of a specific *Dramatis Personae* is shown in P14 to P16 in the Text. In P14, the woman is introduced as the agent in the first sentence and S_n is also about the woman, who didn't mind the man sleeping in the living room. P15 links lexically to P14 in that it starts with – 'The woman woke up suddenly because it seemed that she heard a noise coming from the living room.' This goes on until 'she heard the rustling sound again, so finally she took the knife beside her bed, and got ready.' P16 links to P15 by beginning with the sentence – 'She went carefully to the living room' referring to the same participant.

(2) Continuity through the conversation of the *Dramatis Personae* is manifested in P10, which states that she heard a knock at the door and so she asked, 'Who's that?' P11 links to P10 by initiating a proposal of a man who said, 'Help me. I'm wounded. Let me enter.' This is carried through the Counter-Proposal – 'My husband commanded me not to let anybody enter the house'. The man made an evaluation by saying: 'But I can hardly breathe now. I'm in need of help. I'm bleeding heavily'; and a *Terminus* which says – 'If you delay longer, I will surely die here at your door.'

(3) Continuity of action of the *Dramatis Personae* is illustrated in P18, which says – 'The woman took the gun and she held it carefully, while the rustling sound at the door was getting louder. Suddenly, when the door opened, Rosa saw a man with a mask. Without pity Rosa shot him, and the man fell. Rosa took the lamp on the table in order to see the face of the man she killed. She paled when the visitor removed the mask of the man who tried to enter their house.' The action is carried through P19, when the woman looked at the face of the intruder and in P20, when she ran towards her room and there she wept loudly because she killed her husband *Ignacio* who had intended to steal the money hidden under the floor.

4. Participants.

The information that identifies the participants in an event not only links participants to events, but also works within a cohesive system to link one mention of a participant with other mentions of the same participant. In a narrative, one or two, or at most three participants, are involved in the action at any point in the story (Grimes 1972), possibly with two or more individuals acting in concert as one group participant.

4.1. Identification in relation to the grammatical hierarchy (surface structure). The contributions of grammatical structures are divided into the following: the occurrence of certain units, the agreement rules between constituent units of a construction, and the dimensions of contrast in the system of a given level. Noun phrases are among the units which contribute to the identification of participants by their occurrence. Agreement rules between constituent units help to identify the participants as same or different. For example, the subject of each constituent clause in theme and development units of a simple developmental G-paragraph is the same. At least one category from each dimension of contrast in the systems of a level contributes to identification.

Of the grammatical word classes, nouns and pronouns are especially related to the problem of identification of participants. The occurrence of a noun as the head of a modifying noun phrase often identifies the participant referred to by the nature of the morpheme in the stem, e.g. *Ignacio* (name). The morpheme *si* or *ni* indicates that the participant is animate and names him. The following sentences illustrate this:

1. Si Ignacio ay kolektor ng isang mayamang may-ari ng mga
PM Ignacio S/P collector L one-L wealthy-L owner L NM
lupa sa San Pablo.
land P San Pablo.
Ignacio is a collector for a wealthy landowner in San Pablo.
2. Namutla ang mukha ni Rosa.
flushed NM face PM Rosa
Rosa flushed.

Once a participant has been introduced, later references may give further details. If a very generic term such as *ang matandang lalaki* 'the old man' has been used in the introduction, then a later reference may give a more specific description. If the first mention of the participant has used a kin term like *ang kanyang asawa* 'his wife', then, a later reference may add her name.

When there are two third person participants in a narrative, the distinction between masculine and non-masculine helps to identify the participant. This is shown in the following example:

Si Ignacio ay malupit kay Rosa, kaya napipilitang sumunod
PM Ignacio S/P cruel to Rosa, so being-forced-L to-follow
ang babae sa lahat ng gusto ng asawa.
NM woman P all L want L husband

Ignacio is cruel to Rosa, so the woman is forced to do everything that her husband wants.

The selection of forms for referring to participants is controlled by simultaneous aspects of meaning. The topic of the plot ordinarily controls the referent of the first noun, but the focus of attention of the observer controls the occurrence of some of the other nouns.

The units which occur are in part controlled by the plot, then a noun phrase must occur referring to that participant before other participants are referred to by noun phrase.

4.2. Identification in relation to lexemic hierarchy (deep structure). Lexemic structures also contribute to identification by the occurrence of certain units, e.g. a lexeme naming the participant; agreement rules between units, e.g. the fact that the goal of an L-clause can refer to the same participant as the agent whereas the indirect goal can not; and the dimensions of contrast in the system of a given level, e.g. in clauses marked for focus one participant is identified as the observer's focus of attention.

Participants are characterized by contrastive lexemic units which indicate the roles of the participants or the class of which they are a member. Among the contrastive units which characterize participants' kinship are lexemes which indicate certain social roles of the participants with reference to one another. Other units such as agent and goal characterize participants by their roles or functions in a particular action.

When a participant is referred to by an agent unit, he is characterized as the actual performer of the action in the clause. The agent unit is manifested by an L-participant phrase. For example:

Kinuha ni Rosa ang ilaw sa mesa upang kanyang makita
got PM Rosa NM lamp P table in-order she-L able-to-see
ang mukha ng napatay niya.
NM face L killed she

Rosa took the lamp on the table in order to see the face of the man she killed.

Rosa is the agent.

4.3. Explicit re-naming. Explicit reference with a noun phrase rather than a pronoun is used to establish participant orientation at the beginning of a new paragraph along with a shift in time, setting, or scene. Major participants are usually established in the introduction of the discourse, and often named as *si Alfredo* 'Alfredo', *si Ignacio* 'Ignacio' or given a title such as *ang mangingisda* 'the fisherman', *ang bingi* 'the deaf'. Minor participants may be referred to as *ang aking ama* 'my father', *ang kanyang nanay* 'her mother' rather than by naming them explicitly and thus establishing an independent reference for them that would change the orientation.

In third person oriented narrative discourse, a participant is frequently renamed explicitly as we get closer to the peak. With reference to frequency in occurrence, the hero has the most number of occurrences through explicit re-naming within the whole discourse; this may also lead the reader to identify the hero.

Explicit noun phrases also appear within the paragraph at times to allow a shuffling of case rankings when this is not brought about by a reversal or when no reversal is involved, to refer to a participant who has been uninvolved for a time.

4.4. Pronominal reference. Reference has to do with who or what is being talked about. It goes back to the speaker's assumption that the hearer knows who or what is involved. Identification, on the other hand, has to do with the linguistic means that the speaker uses to communicate to the hearer who or what is involved.

Pronouns are the common means of maintaining identification. Identification and characterization of participants are inseparable in the distribution of lexemic forms. They are also inseparable when grammatical forms and lexemic forms are considered with reference to each other. A participant may be identified by a noun phrase which lexemically characterizes the participant. The characterization in turn helps to identify him in a subsequent action when he is referred to only by a pronominal form. The occurrence of a pronoun within certain clause classes often indicates the introduction of a new participant or refers to a different participant than those referred to in the preceding clauses. In the text given here, the heroine is first introduced in a noun phrase, *wika ni Ignacio sa kanyang asawa* 'Ignacio said to his wife'. The quotative in direct quotation sentences often includes only pronominal affixes referring to the speaker and addressee of the quotation. For example, *Ibig mo bang sabihin ay iwan mo akong nag-iisa rito?* "Do you mean to say that you're leaving me alone here?" The speaker, however, is usually identified by a clause which occurs before the direct quotation sentence.

Pronouns are used whenever possible to refer to participants, yet there is usually enough information in the text so that the native speaker has no difficulty in keeping his reference straight even when pronoun reference is ambiguous, as when several participants are all referred to in the third person singular. In fact, overuse of explicit references such as noun phrases would be considered an unnatural style.

5. Prominence.

The term prominence refers to any device whatever which gives certain events, participants, or objects more significance than others in the same context. In spite of the innumerable overt forms taken by prominence features, there are nevertheless only three main values of prominence in discourse — theme, focus, and emphasis. The theme is the unfolding plot, always seen against its background of minor characters and stage properties. Focus is the spotlight, which may be playing continuously, or switched on and off as appropriate. Emphasis is the clash of cymbals or similar climax in the accompanying music (Callow 1974). These values of prominence operate in a variety of ways in the text under consideration to present a clear theme.

5.1. Prominence with Thematic Value. Thematic material is the material that develops the discourse, by contrast with the background material, which fills out the theme but does not develop it (Callow 1974). Prominence with thematic value is given to the discourse by (1) a title and a topic sentence at the beginning, (2) development of the theme all the way through to the evaluation, and (3) repetition of the theme.

5.2. Prominence with Focus Value. Focus is that type of prominence which acts as a spotlight, playing on the thematic material to bring some of it especially to the attention (Callow 1974). Focus is an obligatory category and one cannot avoid using it; at any point, some clause or participant or event must be in focus. Prominence with focus value is given within sections by (1) concentration of verbs in restating the theme and (2) progression of the setting, build-ups, and terminus within an episode.

5.3. Prominence with Emphatic Value. Emphasis is the kind of prominence which provides the discourse with speaker-hearer factors involving emotion or expectation (Callow 1974). Prominence that occurs with emphatic significance normally involves the speaker-hearer relationship in some way. Emphasis has two different functions. It highlights an item of information which the narrator considers will be surprising to the hearer, or else it warns the hearer that the emotions of the speaker are quite strongly involved. Devices for providing emphasis are normally particles, word-order (especially front-shifting), and repetition. Prominence with emphatic value is given to the discourse by (1) repetition and paraphrase given for emphasis more than for content and (2) stylistic devices such as reduplication.

A NARRATIVE TEXT:

- 01 ANG SALAPI SA ILALIM NG SAHIG
NM money P under L floor
- 02 P1 Ang salapi ay lagi nang isang tukso sa may mahihinang
NM money S/P always L one-L temptation P have weak-L
- 03 loob na naghahangad na magkamal nito nang hindi
inside L desiring L to-be-holding-handfuls this L not
- 04 nagpagod.
worked-hard
- 05 P2 Aalis ako ngayong hapon. – wika ni Ignacio sa kanyang
Leaving I now-L afternoon said PM Ignacio P his-L
- 06 asawa na noo'y nagdadalang tao. – Huwag na huwag kang
wife L that time-S/P pregnant don't L don't you-L
- 07 magpapapasok ng sino man habang ako'y wala. Marahil ay aabutin
will-let-enter L whoever while I-S/P none perhaps S/P reaching
- 08 ako ng tatlong araw.
I L three-L day
- 09 P3 Namutla ang mukha ni Rosa. – Ibig mo bang sabihin ay
flushed NM face PM Rosa want you Intr.-L to-say S/P
- 10 iiwan mo akong nag-iisa rito?
leaving you I-L alone here
- 11 P4 Napangiti si Ignacio. – Bakit, hindi ka pa ba
caused-to-smile PM Ignacio why not you still Intr.
- 12 nabihasa sa pag-iisa? alam ko namang walang mangyayari rito
accustomed L being-alone know I also-L none-L will-happen here
- 13 sa iyo. Isa pa, kung hindi ako aalis ngayon, ay baka may
P you one more if not I leaving now S/P perhaps there-is
- 14 kumuha pa ng kaunti nating aanihin sa Laguna. Sayang din
to-get more L small our-L will-harvest P Laguna waste too
- 15 naman ang kikitain natin sa maliit nating niyugan.
also NM will-profit our P small our-L coconut-plantation
- 16 Alam mo namang malaki pa ang ating pagkakautang.
know you also-L large still NM our-L having-indebted
- 17 P5 Hindi naman natin kailangang-kailangan ang salapi, wika ni Rosa.
not also our in-dire-need NM money said PM Rosa.
- 18 May kaunti pa naman tayong natatago, a. Ako'y lubhang
have small still also we-L is-saving Intr. I S/P very much
- 19 nag-aalaala rin dahil sa malaking halaga ng salaping iiwan mo
is-worried too because P Large-L amount L money-L leaving you
- 20 sa akin.
P me
- 21 P6 Si Ignacio ay kolektor ng isang mayamang may-ari ng mga
PM Ignacio S/P collector L one-L wealthy-L owner L NM
- 22 lupa sa San Pablo. Dahil sa magtatapos na ang buwan, ang kanyang
land P San Pablo. because P about-to-end L NM month NM his-L
- 23 koleksiyon ay umaabot na sa may sampung libong piso.
collection S/P is-reaching L P have ten-L thousand-L peso
- 24 Ito'y itinago niya sa ilalim ng kanilang sahig habang hinihintay
this S/P hid he P under L their-L floor while is-waiting
- 25 nila ang pagdating ng kawani ng mayamang may-ari ng lupa
they NM arrival L employee L wealthy-L owner L land
- 26 upang iyon ay kunin.
in order that S/P to-get

- 27 P7 Ako'y natatakot, Ignacio . . . wika ni Rosa. Para kang
I S/P being-afraid Ignacio said PM Rosa as-if you-L
- 28 loka,- pagalit na wika ni Ignacio. Basta't ako'y aalis.
fool angrily L said PM Ignacio whatever-and I S/P leaving
- 29 Wala kang marami pang salita.
none you-L many more-L word
- 30 P8 Nang anyong kakapit sa kanya si Rosa, ay ubos-lakas
when form-L to-cling P him PM Rosa S/P very-strong
- 31 niyang itinulak ito. Napasadlak ang babae sa hagdan, at
he-L pushed this caused-to-stumble NM woman P stair and
- 32 kamuntik nang nahulog.
nearly L fell
- 33 P9 Si Ignacio ay malupit kay Rosa, kaya napipilitang
PM Ignacio S/P cruel to Rosa so is-being-forced
- 34 sumunod ang babae sa lahat ng gusto ng asawa.
to-follow NM woman P all L want L husband
- 35 P10 Nang gabing iyon ay umulan. Pagkakain nagdasal si Rosa.
when night-L that S/P rained having-eaten prayed PM Rosa
- 36 Tutungo na sana siya sa kanyang higaan nang siya'y
direction-of-going L would she P her-L bed L she S/P
- 37 makarinig ng katok sa pinto. Sino 'yan tanong niya, na ang
able-to-hear L knock P door who that asked she L NM
- 38 puso'y halos lumukso sa takot.
heart S/P almost to-jump P fear
- 39 P11 Tulungan mo ako, wika ng isang lalaki. Ako'y sugatan.
to-help you I NM L one-L man I S/P wounded
- 40 Papasukin mo ako. Ang utos sa akin ng aking asawa'y
to-let-enter you I NM command P me L my husband S/P
- 41 huwag magpapapasok, wika ng babae. Subali't halos hindi na ako
don't will-let-enter said L woman but almost not L I
- 42 makahinga. Kailangan ko ang tulong. Malakas ang tulo ng dugo ko.
able-to-breathe need I NM help strong NM drip L blood my
- 43 Kung magtatagal pa'y tiyak na mamamatay ako rito sa pintuan
if will-stay-long still S/P sure L will-die I here P door
- 44 ninyo.
your
- 45 P12 Nakakaawa ang tinig ng lalaki, kayat nabagbag ang
pitiful NM voice L man therefore aroused-feeling NM
- 46 puso ni Rosa at nahikayat siyang buksan ang pinto. Isang lalaking
hear PM Rosa and persuaded she-L to-open NM door one-L man-L
- 47 may sugat sa kaliwang kamay ang bumulaga sa kanya. Matipuno
has wound P left-L hand NM appeared P her fine-physique
- 48 ang katawan nito subali't ang mukha'y sunog sa araw.
NM body this but NM face /SP burned P sun
- 49 P13 Inabot ako ng sakuna sa kotse ko diyan sa malapit sa inyo,
reached I L accident P car my there P near P you
- 50 paanas na wika ng lalaki. Salamat na lamang at nakita ko ang
softly L said L man thanks L only and saw I NM
- 51 munting ilaw sa bahay ninyo.
little-L light P house your
- 52 P14 Tinulungan ng babae ang lalaki. Nilinis niya ang dugo sa kamay.
helped L woman NM man cleaned she NM blood P hand

- 53 Hindi naman malalim ang sugat. Ilang saglit pa at inaantok
not also deep NM wound how-many-L moment more and got-sleepy
- 54 na sila. Hinayaan ng babaing sa salas matulog ang lalaki.
L they left L woman-L P living-room to-sleep NM man
- 55 P15 Nang maghatinggabi na ay biglang nagising ang babae. Parang
when about-midnight L S/P sudden-L woke-up NM woman as-if
- 56 may narinig siyang ingay buhat sa salas. Agad na
there-is heard she-L noise from P living-room immediately L
- 57 tumindig ang babae. Baka nanakawin nito ang salaping nakatago.
stood-up NM woman perhaps will-steal this NM money-L hidden
- 58 Sinilip niya ang lalaki. Sa pamamagitan ng ilawan ay nakita niyang
peeped she NM man P through L lamp S/P saw she-L
- 59 tulog ang sugatan. Bumalik siya uli sa kama niya. Pinilit
slept NM wounded went-back she again P bed her forced
- 60 niyang matulog subalit may narinig na naman siyang kaluskos.
she-L to-sleep but there-is heard L again she-L rustling-sound
- 61 Kinapitan siya ng takot. Kinuha niya ng dahan-dahan ang kutsilyo sa
affected she L fear got she L slowly NM knife P
- 62 tabi ng kanyang higaan, at humanda na siya.
beside L her-L bed and prepared L she
- 63 P16 Maingat siyang tumungo sa may salas. Noon niya
careful she-L to-go P have living-room that-time she
- 64 nabatid na ang kaluskos ay nagbubuhay sa kanilang pinto.
knew L NM rustling-sound S/P coming-from P their-L door
- 65 May nagbubukas nito! Kinilabutan siya. Hindi niya ngayon malaman
there-is opening this feared she not she now to-know
- 66 kung ano ang gagawin. Ilang saglit pa, at marahan siyang
if what NM to-do. how-many-L a-moment more and slowly she-L
- 67 lumapit sa lalaking nakahiga sa salas. Ginising niya ito.
came-near P man-L lying P living-room awakened she this
- 68 Pabulong na sinabi niyang may nagbubukas ng kanilang
whisper-manner L told she-L there-is opening L their-L
- 69 pinto. — Tulungan mo ako, wika ng babae.
door to-help you I said L woman
- 70 P17 Ang kamay ko'y namamanhid sa sakit — wika ng lalaki.
NM hand my S/P being-numb P pain said L man
- 71 Subalit kunin mo ang baril sa aking bulsa. May kargang bala iyan.
but get you NM gun P my-L pocket has load-L bullet that
- 72 Sa oras na may magbukas ng pinto ay barilin mo agad.
P time L there-is will-open L door S/P to-shoot you immediately
- 73 Huwag na huwag kang magbibigay ng pagkakataong maunahan.
don't L don't you-L will-give L having-chance cause-to-act first
- 74 P18 Kinuha ng babae ang baril, at maingat na hinawakan niya ito,
got L woman NM gun and careful L held she this
- 75 habang ang kaluskos sa pintuan ay lumalakas. Nang biglang
while NM rustling-sound P door SP becoming-loud when sudden-L
- 76 mabuksan ang pinto, ay nakita ni Rosa ang isang lalaking may
being opened NM door S/P saw PM Rosa NM one-L man-L have
- 77 maskara. Walang awang pinaputukan ito ni Rosa, at ang lalaki'y
mask none-L pity-L shot this PM Rosa and NM man S/P
- 78 napahandusay. Kinuha ni Rosa ang ilaw sa mesa, upang kanyang
lying-prostrate took PM Rosa NM lamp P table in-order she-L

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- 79 makita ang mukha ng napatay niya. Namutla siya nang alisin
able-to-see NM face L killed she paled she L to-remove
- 80 ng panauhin niya ang maskara ng nagtangkang pumasok sa bahay nila.
L visitor her NM mask L intended-L to-enter P house their
- 81 Kilala mo ba siya? — tanong ng lalaki.
know you Intr. him asked L man
- 82 P19 Tiningnang muli ng babae ang mukha ng magnanakaw. Hindi, —
looked-L again L woman NM face L thief no
- 83 wika ni Rosa. Hindi ko siya kilala. At patakpong tumungo sa
said PM Rosa no I him know and ran towards P
- 84 silid niya ang babae.
room her NM woman
- 85 P20 Doon siya humagulgol ng iyak. Pagka't ang napatay niya'y
there she loud-weeping L cry because NM killed She S/P
- 86 si Ignacio, ang kanyang asawa, na nagtangkang nakawin ang salaping
PM Ignacio NM her-L husband L intended-L to steal NM money-L
- 87 nakatago sa ilalim ng kanilang sahig.
hidden P under L their -L floor.
- 88 P21 Patawarin siya ng Diyos, — dasal ni Rosa, — Patawarin
may-forgive him L God prayed PM Rosa may-forgive
- 89 siya ng Diyos!
him L God

A NARRATIVE TEXT:

MONEY UNDER THE FLOOR

- 01
02 P1 Money is always a temptation to those who have a weakness
03 for desiring to have handfuls of it without
04 working hard.
- 05 P2 "I'm leaving this afternoon" — Ignacio said to his
06 wife who was then pregnant. — "Don't ever let anyone enter
07 the house while I'm away. Perhaps I'll be away
08 for three days."
- 09 P3 Rosa flushed. — "Do you mean to say that
10 you're leaving me alone here?"
- 11 P4 Ignacio smiled. — "Why, aren't you
12 accustomed to being alone? I know that nothing will happen with
13 you here. One thing more, if I don't leave now, someone else might
14 get our small harvest in Laguna.
- 15 Our profit from our small coconut plantation will then just disappear.
16 You know very well that we still have a large amount of debt."
- 17 P5 "We are not in dire need of money." Rosa said.
18 "We still have a small amount saved. I'm also very worried,
19 because of the large amount of money which you are leaving
20 with me."
- 21 P6 Ignacio is a collector for a wealthy landowner
22 in San Pablo. Because the month was almost ended
23 his collection already amounted to about ten thousand pesos.
24 He hid this under the floor while they were waiting
25 for the arrival of an employee of the wealthy landowner
26 to collect it.
- 27 P7 "I'm afraid, Ignacio . . .," Rosa said. "You're acting like
28 a fool," — Ignacio said angrily. "Whatever happens I've got to leave.
29 Don't say anything more."
- 30 P8 When Rosa tried to cling to him,
31 he shoved her away. The woman stumbled and
32 nearly fell down the stairs.
33 P9 Ignacio is cruel to Rosa, so the woman is forced

34 to do everything that her husband wants.
 35 P10 That night it rained. After eating, Rosa prayed.
 36 She was about to go to bed, when she heard
 37 a knock at the door. "Who's that?" she asked,
 38 her heart was beating fast from fear.
 39 P11 "Help me," a man said. "I'm wounded.
 40 Let me enter." "My husband commanded me
 41 not to let anyone enter," the woman said. "But I can hardly breathe
 42 now. I'm in need of help. I'm bleeding heavily.
 43 If you delay longer, I will surely die here
 44 at your door."
 45 P12 The man's voice was so pitiful that Rosa's heart
 46 was stirred with sympathy and she was persuaded to
 47 open the door. A man with a wound on the left hand appeared before her.
 48 He had a fine body physique, but with a sun-burned face.
 49 P13 "I had an accident with my car here near your place,"
 50 the man said softly. "I am thankful that I saw
 51 a small light in your house."
 52 P14 The woman helped the man. She cleaned the blood on his hand.
 53 The wound was not deep. After some moments he felt sleepy.
 54 The woman left him sleeping in the living room.
 55 P15 When it was about midnight, the woman suddenly woke up. It
 56 seemed that she heard a noise coming from the living room. The
 57 woman stood up immediately. "That man might steal the hidden money."
 58 She peeped at the man. By means of a lamp she saw
 59 that the wounded man was asleep. She went back to bed. She forced
 60 herself to sleep, but she heard the rustling sound again.
 61 She was scared. Slowly, she got the knife
 62 beside her bed, and got ready.
 63 P16 She went carefully to the living room. By then,
 64 she knew that the rustling sound was coming from the door.
 65 Someone was opening it! She was scared. Now, she didn't know what
 66 to do. After some moments, she slowly
 67 approached the man lying in the living room. She awakened him.
 68 She whispered that there was someone opening their door.
 69 "Help me," the woman said.
 70 P17 "My hand is numb with pain," the man said.
 71 "But then, take the gun inside my pocket. It is loaded.
 72 When someone opens the door, shoot him at once.
 73 Don't give him a chance to act before you do."
 74 P18 The woman took the gun and she held it carefully,
 75 while the rustling sound at the door was getting louder. Suddenly,
 76 when the door opened, Rosa saw a man with a mask.
 77 Without pity Rosa shot him.
 78 The man fell. Rosa took the lamp on the table in order
 79 to see the face of the man she killed. She paled when the visitor
 80 removed the mask of the man who tried to enter their house.
 81 "Do you know him?" - the man asked.
 82 P19 The woman looked again at the face of the intruder. "No" -
 83 said Rosa. "I don't know him." And the woman ran towards
 84 her room.
 85 P20 There she wept loudly because the man she killed
 86 was Ignacio, her husband, who had intended to steal the money
 87 hidden under the floor.
 88 P21 "May God forgive him," - Rosa prayed - "May God
 89 forgive him!"

NOTES

¹Tagalog is the basis of Pilipino, one of the official languages of the Philippines. Of the numerous languages spoken in the Philippines, Tagalog ranks first in number of first-and second – language speakers; it is spoken by people all over the country.

For the analysis described in this paper, six separate texts were initially selected from an inventory of texts. These texts included three first person oriented narratives and three third person oriented narratives. In addition, other texts were skimmed to corroborate the analysis.

²Here I followed tagmemic procedures as utilized by Longacre (1968).

This paper was written at a linguistic workshop held at Nasuli, Malaybalay, Bukidnon, Philippines, during the months of January to March 1976, conducted by Dr. Elmer Wolfenden, Linguistic Department Chairman for the Summer Institute of Linguistics. I am very grateful to him for his untiring help and guidance in the analysis of the data and in the initial write-up.

My gratitude also goes to Dir. Ponciano Pineda of the Institute of National Language and Dir. Daniel Weaver of the Summer Institute of Linguistics (Philippine Branch) for the scholarship grant that enabled me to work on this project.

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THE SEMANTIC COMPONENT *REALIZATION*
IN PHILIPPINE LANGUAGES

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Meaning components are not always unique to a single lexeme; rather, it is common in language for the same meaning component to recur systematically throughout a language, as a constituent of several lexemes.

A familiar example of this phenomenon is the English causative. In English, the difference between 'die' and 'kill', between 'eat' and 'feed', and between 'go home' and 'send home' is the causative component. More commonly in English the causative component is manifested overtly as 'cause to' or 'make', as in 'He made me forget the appointment.' In Philippine languages, verbal affixation (usually the prefix *pa-*) indicates causative. Another recurring component in English is the directional component, seen in such pairs as 'go' and 'come', 'take' and 'bring'. Generally, however, this component is carried in the clause by a preposition or locative word. In Philippine languages direction is implicit in roots indicating motion, and in addition, affixation often carries a direction component.

Thus, it can be seen that a single semantic component can be manifested on different levels in a given language, as well as between languages. Its presence has been found to be variously indicated: by a verbal complement, by morphological elements, or by a different lexeme.

The **realization** component in Philippine languages is unusual in that its presence is often not overtly marked; it is only discerned in context — either the linguistic context or the extra-linguistic context or both. For example, in Inibaloi¹ *awis* means both 'to invite' and 'to win over', the difference — the successful, effectual outcome — being one only of context. When the **realization** component is clearly absent in context, *awis* means 'invite'; when it is clearly present, it means 'win over'; and in some contexts it is ambiguous. In the sentence **Inawis (Inewis)² ko nem eg ali dimaw* 'I invited him but he didn't come', **realization** is absent; it is present, however, in *Shakel noman i *inawis (inewis) to'n too nen miyol* 'He has really won over a lot of the mayor's followers': while in **Inawis (inewis) to's Inoy ja mengibot* 'He invited (i.e. tempted/induced) Inoy to steal', the outcome of the effect is in doubt.

The **realization** component,³ or sometimes its absence, is variously marked in different languages; for example, (1) by lexical pairs, one with, and one without, the component, (2) by post-verbal complements, (3) by morphological elements, and (4) by context only.

(1) Lexical pairs. In English the **realization** component often appears as a component in one member of a lexical pair, in contrast to its absence in the other member. The following pairs are examples of this: 'seek' — 'find', 'pursue' — 'catch', 'study' — 'learn', 'listen' — 'hear', 'look' — 'see', 'aim' — 'hit', 'investigate' — 'solve'.

(2) Post-verbal complements that mark the presence or absence of the **realization** component are of various kinds. In English, a preposition after a verb often serves either to indicate its absence, or sometimes to indicate that the outcome is in doubt. Note, for example, the following pairs: 'feel for' — 'feel', 'strike at' — 'strike'. A doubtful/uncertain outcome in English is often disambiguated also by the addition of such words or phrases

as 'unsuccessfully' or 'in vain', or by negating the member of the lexical pair which expresses **realization**, as, for example, 'He chased it but did not catch it.'

In Vietnamese *thấy* 'perceive' lends the **realization** component when conjoined to certain lexemes, as, for example, *tim thấy* 'seek-perceive (i.e. find)' and *nghe thấy* 'listen-perceive (i.e. hear)'.

(3) Morphological elements. In Inibaloi the suffix *-an*, with one class of verb roots, adds the **realization** component. With roots of this same class the suffix *-en* indicates only effort toward success, with no indication usually of the outcome. For example:

anop 'hunt', **anopen (enopen)* 'to hunt game', **anopan (enopan)* 'to bag game'

bengwit 'hook and line', *bengwiten* 'to fish for something thus', *bengwitan* 'to catch something thus'

balais 'booby-trap', **balaisen (bedaisen)* 'to set a booby-trap for something', **balaisan (bedaisan)* 'to kill something thus'

anap 'look for', **anapen (enapen)* 'to look for something', **anapan (enapan)* 'to find something after looking for it'

(4) Context. A large number of verbs in Philippine languages do not of themselves indicate success or non-success in the action they represent, that is, the presence or absence of the **realization** component. In all such cases **realization** is to be known only by context. The following verbs are a few examples from Inibaloi. For each, two meanings are given: the first without, and the second with, the **realization** component:

**paras(en) (peshasen)* 'to try', 'to experience'

(i)awat 'to offer', 'to hand over'

botos(an) 'to vote for', 'to elect'

binat(en) 'to pull on', 'to stretch'

**bolang(en) (bodangen)* 'to strike at with horns', 'to butt, gore'

**(ma)jagas(an) (maekasan)* 'to be medicated', 'to be healed'

Context usually clarifies the meaning, as the following sentences illustrate:

**Pinaras (Pineshas) ko 'n obda-en nem ekak posi-en.*

tried I work/on but not-I able

'I tried to do that work, but I wasn't able.'

**Pinaras (Pineshas) ko sotan 'na obda; isonga mebedin to ngo.*

tried I that work so possible he also

'I've tried (i.e. done) that job, so (I know) he can do it too.'

In-awat ko nem eg to inda.

offered I but not he take

'I offered it (to him) but he didn't take it.'

Kinastos to sota in-awat ko son si-kato nonta na-shem.
 spent he the offered I to him past evening
 'He spent (the money) I handed over to him last evening.'

The same phenomenon can be seen in other Philippine languages, as seen in the following examples from Ilocano and Hiligaynon. In Ilocano, for example, the verb root *singir* 'to collect a debt' has verb forms that are disambiguated only by context:

Bassit laeng ti siningir ko.
 little only collected I
 'I only collected a little (of the debt).'

Siningir ko ngem awan ti inted na.
 collected I but none gave he
 'I tried to collect (the debt) but he didn't give anything.'

And in Hiligaynon the following two sentences illustrate that, whereas the verb of the first clause would seem to indicate the presence of **realization**, the linguistic context (the 'but' second clause) is conclusive that it is absent:

Ginbali ko ang kahoy pero indi mautod.
 broke I stick but not part
 'I broke (i.e. tried to break) the stick, but it didn't part in two.'

Ginbuksan ko ang puertahan pero sirado.
 opened I door but locked
 'I opened (i.e. tried to open) the door, but it was locked.'

A lexicographer in a Philippine language finds verbs such as those cited above to be relatively easy to label, because English has ready verb forms both with and without the **realization** component. Other verbs, however, are difficult, because it is necessary to include in the second gloss 'try to'. In fact, since the **realization** component in these instances is apparent only in context, it usually goes unnoticed. The English gloss commonly given to these verbs implies success in the attempt, but in actual use the verbs often occur without the **realization** component, since context indicates non-success, as the following sentences illustrate:

**Dinagak (Dingkak); eg mebedin.*
 did-I not possible
 'I did it (i.e. tried to do it), (but) it couldn't be (done).'

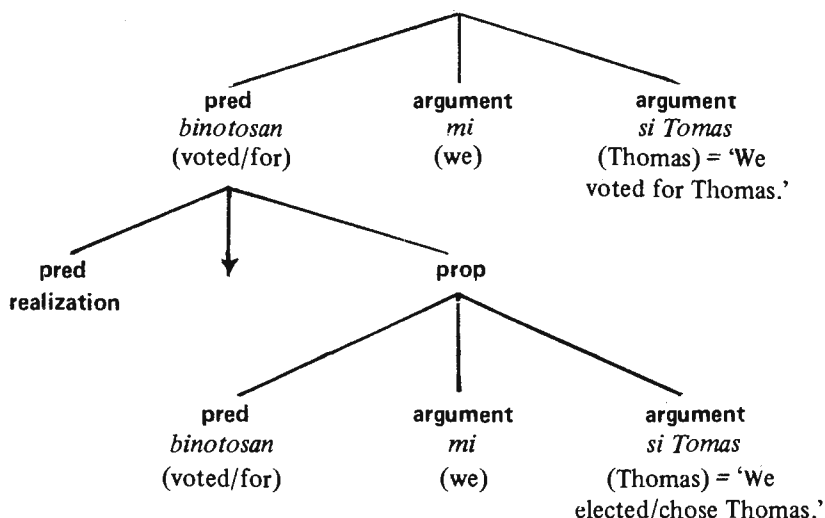
**Binatang (Binetang) ko, nem endayot.*
 felled I but resistant
 'I cut it down (i.e. tried to cut it down), but (the wood) was too hard.'

Inpan-akad ko, nem eg nan-akad.
 made/walk I but not walked
 'I made him walk (i.e. tried to make him walk), but he didn't walk.'

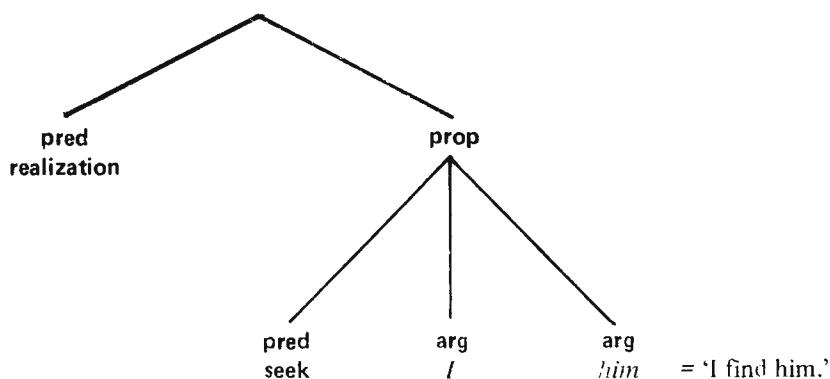
Dinansaan ko, nem eg medansaan.
 nailed I but not be/nailed
 'I drove (i.e. tried to drive) a nail into it, but it couldn't be penetrated.'

English also has certain verbs for which the **realization** component is only contextually marked. Usually, however, these are not accepted as well-formed English surface structures. Notice, for example, 'call' and 'send' in the following sentences: 'He called the waiter to his table, but he was busy elsewhere', and 'I sent him on an errand, and there he is watching television!'

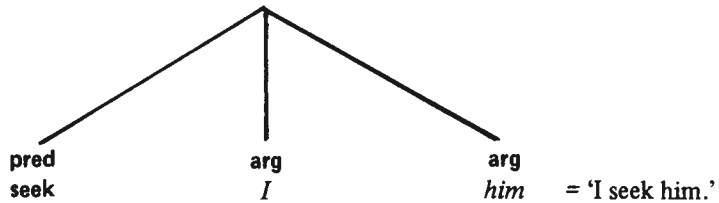
When sentences are lexically analyzed to ascertain their semantic structure, it is found that those sentences with the **realization** component, however it is indicated, are more complex than those without it. Represented in a semantic tree diagram, **realization** is a predicate that lends that additional meaning to a proposition not expressing it otherwise. That is, when an event represented by a proposition is carried out within the scope of the predicate **realization**, success in the attempted event is to be understood. Thus, a sentence with *botosan* would be represented as follows:



The same type of lexical display explains English lexical pairs such as 'seek' – 'find', 'pursue' – 'catch', and 'look' – 'see':



Seek in the scope of the higher semantic abstract predicate realization becomes the lexical form 'find', in the sentence 'I find him.' *Seek* with no higher realization is simply 'seek.'



FOOTNOTES

¹Inibaloi is the language spoken by 70,000 people in the southern two-thirds of Benguet province in the mountains of Central Luzon. The author has been resident in the Inibaloi area for eleven years. Dr. Kenneth Gregerson of the S.I.L. Vietnam Branch gave some especially helpful advice in theoretical matters. Mr. Gonzalo Tigo of Atok, Benguet, supplied the Inibaloi illustrative sentences.

²Since the Inibaloi morphophonemic system is a highly complex affair, regularized forms of verbs are given first to make root recognition easier for the reader. Asterisked forms (those which do not actually occur in Inibaloi) are followed by the form in parentheses that does occur.

³It could just as easily be argued that there is an optional **attempt** component, and if the English point of view were followed, this perhaps would be more pleasing. In English, for example, 'look' and 'see' are a pair whose lexical difference is the **realization** (or **attempt**) component. But the *overt* marker of the component in English is 'try to', and most verbs, such as 'lift', 'fold', 'clobber', imply success unless qualified by 'try to'. Thus, 'I look' and 'I see' could best be described lexically as 'I attempt to see' and 'I see'. We have chosen for Philippine languages to describe the phenomenon in terms of a **realization** component because intuitively it seems more appropriate.

TOWARD THE STANDARDIZATION OF PILIPINO ORTHOGRAPHY:
STANDARDIZING THE SPELLING OF SPANISH LOANS ASSIMILATED INTO TAGALOG

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O. Introduction

0.1 *Purpose of the paper.* This paper will be concerned with the spelling of Spanish loan words which have been assimilated into Tagalog (henceforth SLAT).

It is hoped that the standardization of the spelling overlay¹ in Tagalog (hereafter T.) will help in the standardization of Filipino orthography inasmuch as Tagalog is the basis of Pilipino, and as is well known, Spanish assimilated loan words make up a big percentage² of Tagalog content words.

One of the problems³ in the standardization of Pilipino orthography is the consistent spelling of Spanish assimilated loans. It is known that although the alphabets of both Spanish and Pilipino are phonetic — each is spelled as pronounced and each has a one-to-one correspondence (or almost so in the case of Spanish) between the spoken and the written form, there are differences in the value of their letters or in the letter or letters each language uses to represent a sound. For instance, to represent /k/ Pilipino uses *k*, but Spanish uses *c* before *a*, *o*, *u*, and *qu* before *e* and *i*; to represent /s/, Pilipino uses *s* before any vowel, but Spanish, besides using *s* before any vowel, also uses *c* before *e* and *i*. To spell /g/, Spanish uses *g* before *a*, *o*, *u*, and *gu* before *e* and *i*, but Pilipino uses only *g* before any vowel. Again, Spanish uses *g* before *e* and *i*, and *j* (a letter Pilipino does not have) before any vowel to represent /h/, which sound Pilipino represents with *h*. Spanish in turn writes *h* but gives it no sound.

Tagalog-based Pilipino does not have certain letters⁴ which Spanish does either because the sounds they spell are not found in the language, or if the sounds are there, it has other letters to spell them with. Accordingly, it does not have *f* and *v*; *q*, *c*, and *j*; whose functions are, however, served by *k* (which S. does not have), *s* and *h*, respectively; it does not have *ch*, *ll*, *ñ*, *rr*, *x* and *z*.

When Spanish loan words were assimilated in the major languages, they had to be spelled as the Filipinos pronounced them, and letters were gradually added to the alphabets to accommodate them. Take Tagalog as an example. One of the changes in the old Tagalog syllabary called *baybayin*, which was Romanized by the Spanish missionaries, was the addition of the vowels *e* and *o*, making Tagalog vowels five in all. Later, came the addition of *k*, suggested independently by Rizal and Pardo de Tavera, in place of the

¹Cecilio Lopez' term. See his 'The Spanish overlay in Tagalog' in *Readings in Philippine linguistics*, (1973:737-66).

²An actual count of the words in a random one hundred consecutive pages (pp. 210-310) of Panganiban's *Tesaurus-diksiyunariyo Pilipino-Ingles* yielded 1284 SLAT out of 2718 entries, or 46.17%.

³Two other problems are whether or not to indicate the orthographic accent and how to indicate the glottal stop, which is just as much a phoneme as any other Pilipino sound that makes a distinction in meaning, and which therefore should have a letter or an unambiguous symbol rather than the hyphen to represent it.

⁴That is, until the INL (Institute of National Language) proposal of October 19, 1971, q.v.

ungainly *cq* (as in *bacquit*), which the Spanish missionaries used for *k* in their *catecismos* and *vocabularios*, and the addition of *w* to take the place of *u* when it is used as a consonant (as in *S. huelguista*, *T. welgista*).

Other changes were made in the Tagalog alphabet (subsequently the Pilipino alphabet) to accommodate *S.* loans assimilated into the language. The latest proposal⁵ to add eleven foreign letters; viz., *c*, *ch*, *f*, *j*, *ll*, *ñ*, *q*, *rr*, *v*, *x*, and *z* will result in greater conflict between the values of the letters in the *S.* and the *P.* alphabets, necessitating acceptance of too many spelling variants for SLAT. The longer the SLAT word and the more foreign letters it has, the more the number of its spelling variants. (See Section 3.4)

A problem of Pilipino orthography is to prevent the use of more than one letter to represent one sound and to have a letter represent only one sound. For instance, should the foreign letters *x* and *j* be used for spelling SLAT, there will be added to the two Pilipino spellings, *ekstranhero* and *estranhero*, four more spellings of *S. extranjero*; namely, *extranjero* itself, and *estranjero*, *extranhero*, *ekstranjero*, making a total of six. This does not include another possible six (or more?) spellings, where the *n* in *S. extranjero* is pronounced /ng/ and represented by *T. ng*. With regard to reading the language, spelling this word with *j*, the Filipino, who associates *j* with its English value, might pronounce the word /ekstrandzero/.

Assumption

The writer considers *T.* orthography to be identical with Pilipino orthography and assumes that the orthographic problems met in standardizing the spelling of SLAT are identical with the problems connected with the standardization of *S.* loans assimilated into Pilipino, inasmuch as except for a handful of words adopted from other Philippine languages, the vocabulary of Pilipino is Tagalog vocabulary.

0. 3. Corpus used

For the corpus of her work, the writer has made use of Lopez' 'The Spanish Overlay in Tagalog', an article published in *Lingua*, 14.467-504 (1965) and reprinted in *Readings in Philippine Linguistics*, q.v. and her own knowledge of Tagalog, which is the Manila dialect. This dialect has more than its share of SLAT. The writer herself grew up in a home where Spanish was spoken by both her paternal and maternal grandfathers. These two sources were supplemented by words looked up in the Vocabulary portion of Pattison's *Representative Spanish Authors* (1942), Cardenas' *Diccionario Moderno* (1963), and the *University of Chicago Spanish Dictionary* (1948).

0.4. Parts of the paper

The paper consists of four parts. Part 1 will summarize the present Pilipino orthographic system (which is also the Tagalog orthography). Part 2 will give an exposition of the spelling correspondences between *T.* and *S.* letters and the attendant problems. Part 3 will present the problems of orthography related to SLAT. Part 4 will give suggestions for the solution of the problems.

⁵ INL, October 19, 1971. The INL recommended the addition of the eleven foreign letters because of the need to write words that Pilipino borrows from both English and Spanish. Eight of these letters are in both the Spanish and English alphabets, although they do not all represent identical sounds in both languages. The three other letters, *ll*, *ñ*, and *rr* represent sounds found only in *S.*

1.0 Part 1. *The present orthographic system of Pilipino*

1.1. The Pilipino abakada of 1939. The one-letter-one-sound rule

The orthographic system followed in present-day Pilipino textbooks, writings, and Pilipino dictionaries, including Jose Villa Panganiban's *Diksiyunariyo-Tesaurus Pilipino-Ingles* is the 'standard spelling adopted since 1940' (1970:x). This standard spelling was based on the qualities and values of the Pilipino *Abakada*⁶ of 1939, which in turn, was based on the romanized *Baybayin* of the Spanish regime. Among the rules in the *Abakada*, and the most important one, is the one-letter-one-sound rule for which Pilipino orthography is famous, it being described by Panganiban as 'one of the most nearly perfect in the world'. Each of its letters has 'one and only one definite, specific, and unchanging phonetic value or sound, and every sound is represented by one and only one letter'. In other words 'it is pronounced as it is spelled and spelled as it is pronounced', according to the 1940 *Balarila ng Wikang Pambansa*.

1.2. The INL proposal of October 19, 1971

This one-letter-one-sound characteristic of the Pilipino alphabet and the consequent one-to-one correspondence of the written and the spoken language will, however, be lost with the approval of the proposed addition to the Pilipino alphabet of eleven 'foreign letters'. Formal inclusion of these letters in the Pilipino alphabet was proposed by the INL (INL, "The Alphabet and Rules of Spelling of the Pilipino National Language", 1971) in order to allow the spelling of new loans from both English and Spanish, the two LWCs (Language of Wider Communication) that Pilipino has had to turn to for enrichment and development.

1.3. The 'foreign letters' and the new proposed alphabet

With the formal⁷ addition of the eleven foreign letters, which are *c, ch, f, j, ll, n, q, rr, v, x, z*, the Filipino alphabet will have 31 letters instead of the former 20. These foreign letters take their place in alphabetical order in the new alphabet with *ll, n, rr* following *l, n, r*, respectively. In addition *k* (which has been for dictionary users a source of disorientation) no longer comes as the third letter but takes its usual place as in all Roman alphabets. The new alphabet, then, in its new order is:

a b c ch d e f g h i j k l ll m n ñ ng
o p q r rr s t u v w x y z

⁶The name *Abakada* comes from the names of the first letters of the Tagalog alphabet: *a ba ka da* (just as the word *alphabet* comes from *alpha* and *beta*), while *Baybayin* comes from the second letter of the old T. alphabet, the consonants of which were pronounced *baybay, kaykay, dayday*, etc.

⁷These foreign letters have been an informal part of the Pilipino alphabet since 1939, when the INL formed the *Abakada* and informally adopted them to be used 'particularly in the names of persons and identification of geographical places' (See Jose Villa Panganiban, 'On the so-called exclusion of foreign letters' 1966, which was written to answer INL critics who accused INL of purism and which concluded with 'the Pilipino writing system though not its alphabet has, therefore, from 1939 consisted of 31 letters, 20 of which, are based on native traditions and 11 taken from influential cultures'.)

Of the eleven foreign letters, F and V are to be used presumably⁸ like the other old letters in the alphabet; i.e. used exclusively to spell 'common' words (Rule 1) while *c, ch, j, ll, ñ, q, rr* 'shall be used only in spelling borrowed words and proper names' (Rule 4).

1.4. The exclusion of the loan letters C and Q from spelling 'common words'

It is well that the INL has excluded *c* and *q* from spelling 'common words' (common words presumably include assimilated foreign words, Spanish as well as English). Their exclusion precludes the use of more than one letter to spell one sound and prevents the problem of too many spelling variants and other spelling complications.

Examples:

(1) Using *c* besides *s* to represent /s/ results in six spelling variants for S. *circulación*: T. *cirkulacion, cirkulasiyon, cirkulasyon, sirkulacion, sirkulasiyon, sirkulasyon*.

(2) Using *c* besides *k* to represent /k/ results in six more variants for the same word: T. *circulacion, sirkulacion, sirkulasyon, sirkulacion, sirkulasiyon, sirkulasyon*.

Twelve different spellings for just one SLAT do not make for standardization.

The other spelling complication that would result from adding *c* to the alphabet to spell other than personal and geographic proper names and to spell both /s/ and /k/ in 'common words' is the fact that it is not possible to use *c* with the infix *-in-* with some SLAT or the infix with others. For example, borrowing from Santiago (1967):

- (3) With the infix *-in-* it is possible to use *k* but not *c*:
S. *cajon* – T. *kahon, kinahon*; but T. *cahon, *cinahon*
S. *cambio* – T. *kambyo, kinambyo*, but T. *cambyo, *cinambyo*
- (4) With the infix *-um-* it is possible to use *s* but not *c*:
S. *centro* – T. *sentro, sumentro*; but *centro, *cumentro*
S. *circo* – T. *sirko, sumirko*; but *cirko, *cumirko*

In addition, the use of *c* to spell both /k/ and /s/ may result in the learner or reader of SLAT to puzzle out whether the *c* is to be sounded as /s/ or as /k/. For one who does not know the rules about the use of *c* as /s/ or as /k/, how is *cir* in SLAT *circulación* to be read: /kir/ or /sir/? Or *cu* in the same word: /su/ or /ku/? Whereas *sirkulasion* is unambiguous and therefore easy to read.

Similar exclusion of *q* to spell 'common words' prevents the problem of too many spelling variants (S. *quinque* 'lamp', T. *kinke, kinque, quinke, quinque*) not to speak of the needed knowledge of *q* requiring an accompanying *u*, and the difficulty of reading the spelling variant with *q*: *q* as (k/ or as /kw/?

1.5. Similar exclusion of *ch*

Though I am of the opinion, as a native speaker of Tagalog, that long, continued exposure to the numerous loans from both S. and English, especially the latter, has enabled Filipinos to pronounce /tʃ/, which is spelled *ch* in both Spanish and English, I

⁸The INL does not include *f* and *v* among the letters which 'shall be used only in spelling borrowed words and proper names' (italics mine), an omission which I take the INL to mean that they can spell words other than [unassimilated] borrowed words and [borrowed] proper names'.

have changed my position regarding the use of *ch* to supersede *ts* in spelling /tʃ/ in SLAT. Instead, I would see *ch* as a variant. This variant spelling is not to be considered the less acceptable of two pronunciations. In other words, there is to be no such thing as preferred spelling. If a certain spelling reflects substandard pronunciation that fact may be stated in dictionaries. Pronunciation is to be indicated as sophisticated pronunciation (sp) or folk pronunciation (fp). Regarding the use of *ch* and *ts* as spelling variants, there should be no combinations of *ts* and *ch* in one word. Thus S. *achara* 'pickles', T. *atsara*, *achara*; S. *chicharron* 'cracklings', T. *sitsaron*, T. *chicharon*, but not **sicharon*, **tsicharon*, **chitsaron*. *Chabacano* 'Philippine Spanish creole', being a proper name, will be spelled in the original.

1.6. *j* as a loan letter

j should cease as a loan letter and be employed to spell the sound /dʒ/, which the INL spells, as did the Balarila of 1940, with *diy* or *dy* as the nearest graphemic representation of the pronunciation of a sound foreign to the Tagalog or the Pilipino sound system. But several generations which have gone through an educational system using English as a medium of instruction have since then enabled Filipinos to pronounce /dʒ/. It is high time that this sound be represented by *j* as in English. For purposes of SLAT, however, *j* duplicates Tagalog *h* in representing /h/. I would therefore, like the INL, exclude it from spelling sound /h/ in SLAT in order to avoid such spelling complications as S. *jamba* 'jamb', T. *hamba*, *jamba*, *hinahambahan*, *hinahambajan*, *hinajambajan*, *hinajambahan*, *jinajambajan*, *jinajambahan*, *jinahambahan*, *jinahambajan* — eight different spellings. In other words, since /h/ is adequately spelled by *h*, and no additional advantage, but rather disadvantages, would result from using *j* besides, it would be well to limit *j* to spelling Filipino proper names taken from Spanish, which is the only use INL sets for it.

1.7. The loan letters *ll*, *n*, *rr*

Previous to the October 1971 proposal to add the eleven foreign letters, *ll*, *n*, *rr* have been represented in Pilipino (as also in Tagalog) as *ly*, *ng*, and *r*, respectively to spell SLAT. Together with the other foreign letters, they are added only in order to spell S. proper names — which would be unrecognizable if spelled following the Tagalog word structure: e.g. S. *Chavarria*, T. **Tsabariya*, **Sabariya*; S. *Nuñez*, T. **Nunyes*, S. *Villarreal*, T. *Bilyariyal*, etc.

1.8. The loan letters *x* and *z*

Like *ll*, *n*, and *rr*, *x* and *z* have been added for their Spanish value principally to spell Spanish surnames of Filipinos, like Roxas, Xeres (also Rojas, Jeres respectively), Quezon, and Rizal.

2.0 Part 2. *Spelling the Spanish loans assimilated into Tagalog (SLAT)*

The spelling of Spanish loans assimilated into Tagalog (SLAT) is of course based on the Tagalog production of Spanish phonemes and the letters T. uses to represent those equivalent sounds. Because there are sounds in the S. sound system not found in the T. sound system, like *f*, *ch*, *j*, *ll*, *ñ*, *q*, *v*, there will be changes in some sounds in the former to accommodate them in the latter.

STANDARDIZATION OF PILIPINO ORTHOGRAPHY

Below are put together the S. and T. letter correspondences.

I. Consonants

| Spanish | Tagalog |
|-------------|--|
| b | b |
| c (a, o, u) | k |
| c (e, i) | s |
| ch | ts |
| d | d (sometimes <i>r</i> , when <i>d</i> is intervocalic) |
| f | p |
| g (a, o, u) | g |
| g (e, i) | h |
| h | h |
| j | h (s in old SLAT: S. <i>jabon</i> , T. <i>sabon</i>) |
| l | l |
| ll | ly |
| m | m |
| n | n |
| ñ | ny |
| p | p |
| q | k |
| r | r |
| rr | r |
| s | s |
| t | t |
| v | b |
| x | ks, s |
| y | y |
| z | s |

II. Vowels

| Spanish | Tagalog |
|---------|-------------------|
| a | a |
| e | e, i; sometimes a |
| i | i |
| o | o, u |
| u | u |

III. Diphthongs

| Spanish | Tagalog |
|---------|---------|
| ai | ay |
| ei | ey |
| oi | oy |
| au | aw |
| eu | ew, yu |
| ia | ya |
| ie | ye |
| ua | wa |
| uo | wo |
| ui | wi |

IV. Consonant clusters

Initial

| Spanish | Tagalog |
|---------|---|
| br(a)– | bar(a)– S. <i>brazo</i> , T. <i>baraso</i> |
| fr(i)– | pir(i)– (CCV) (CVCV) |
| gr(a)– | gar(a)– |
| pr(o)– | par(u)– S. <i>proseguir</i> , T. <i>pursigi</i> (<i>purusigi</i>) |
| bl(a)– | bal(a)– |
| cl(a)– | kal(a)– |
| bl(a)– | bal(a)– |
| pl(e)– | pel(e)– |

Medial

| | |
|------|--|
| –br– | –br– S. <i>sabroso</i> , T. <i>sabroso</i> |
| –cr– | –kr– S. <i>sacristia</i> , T. <i>sakristiya</i> (CCV) (CCV) |
| –fr– | –pr– S. <i>refresco</i> , T. <i>ripresko</i> |
| –pr– | –pr– |
| –tr– | –tr– |
| –tr– | –tr– |
| –bl– | –bl– |
| –cl– | –kl– |
| –fl– | –pl– |
| –gl– | –gl– |

2.1. Consonant correspondences

For convenience, the spelling correspondences of S. and T. are listed by categories and illustrated with one or two examples.

2.1.1. Consonant letters that have the same phoneme as referent:

b, l, m, n, p, r, s, t, y

To illustrate these, we have S. *barbero*, T. *barbero*; S. *largo* 'long', T. *largo*; S. *maleta*, T. *maleta*; S. *nene* 'baby', T. *nene*; S. *perla* 'pearl', T. *perlas*, S. *regalo* 'gift', T. *rigalo*; S. *salsa* 'sauce', T. *sarsa*; S. *tabique* 'wall, partition', T. *tabike*; S. *yarda* 'yard'; S. *tabla* T. *tabla*.

2.1.2. One S. consonant letter corresponded by two T. letters:

1. S. *c* (a, o, u), *c* (e, i), T. *k* and *s*, respectively
2. S. *d*, T. *d*, sometimes *r*
3. S. *g*(a, o, u), *g* (e, i) , T. *g*, *h*, respectively
4. S. *h* (silent), T. ϕ or *h*

For S. *c* (before *a, o, u*) and *c* (before *e, i*) becoming T. *k* and *s*, respectively, we have *cabecera* 'head of bed' becoming T. *kabisera* 'head of table'; S. *conciencia* 'conscience' becoming T. *konsiyensiya*. For S. *d* becoming T. *d* and sometimes *r* (in some words where *d* is intervocalic) we have S. *cargado* 'loaded, laden', *caridad* 'charity' and *arado* 'ploughed', *candado* 'locked' becoming respectively T. *kargado*, *karidad*, *araro* 'plow', and *kandaro*, a dialect form in Batangas of *kandado*.

For S. *g* (before *a, o, u*), *g* (before *e* and *i*) becoming T. *g* and T. *h*, respectively, we have S. *garbanzo* 'chick pea' becoming T. *garbansos* (the plural form again); S. *gelatina* 'gelatine' becoming T. *gelatina*; S. *gigante*, T. *ligante*.

S. *h*, which in standard form, is silent, is sometimes actualized in T. and sometimes not. Examples are S. *hablar* 'to speak, to talk' becoming T. *habla* 'suit' (law); S. *harina* (fp); S. *hora* 'hour, time', T. *oras* (plural in form); S. *habilidad* 'ability skill, talent', T. *abilidad*, with the added meaning of cleverness.

Other examples of variations in S. *h* are S. *hebilla* 'buckle', T. *ebilya* (sp), *hibilya*, S. *harapo* 'rag' becoming T. *trapo* (perhaps originally misheard as *tarapo* and later becoming a hypercorrect form, *trapo*). S. *horno* 'oven', T. *hurno*, *urno* (sp); S. *haragan* 'loafer, idler', T. *haragan* 'hooligan, rough fellow'; S. *hotel*, T. *otel*. Of this variation, Lopez says:

It is believed that the actualization of *h* in T., where in modern Spanish it is mute, may be attributed to the influence of Andalusian speech where *h* is pronounced due to the predominance of Spaniards from . . . Andalusia who settled in the Philippines during the Spanish regime. (1973: 743)

There are examples of S. *h* becoming T. *g*: T. *laguerta* is from S. *la huerta* 'the orchard' (vide T. *lamesa*, from S. *la mesa*, 'the table'); *vihueta* 'guitar', T. *bigwela*.

2.13. More than one consonant letter in S. corresponded by one letter in T:

- | | |
|--------------------------|----------------------|
| 1. S. c(a, o, u), q (u), | T. k |
| 2. S. c(e, i), s, z, | T. s |
| 3. S. g(e, i), j; (h), | T. h; (h or ϕ) |
| 4. S. f, p, | T. p |
| 5. S. v, b, | T. b |
| 6. S. r, rr | T. r |

For examples of S. *q* becoming T. *k* we have S. *queja* 'complaint', T. *keha*, and S. *quilate* 'karat', T. *kilates* (pl. form). For S. *c* (*a, o, u*) becoming *k*, see examples in 2.1.

For examples of S. *c(e, i)* becoming T. *s*, see examples in 2.1; for S. *s* remaining *s*, see 1.1; for S. *z* becoming *s*, we have S. *zapatero* 'shoemaker', T. *sapatero*, and S. *zaguan* 'entrance hall', T. *sagwan*, defined in Panganiban's *Talasalitaan* as 'paddle' but from my experience as a child I know to be that part of a (big) house that is the entrance hall right after the main door of a two-story house.

For examples of S. *g* (before *e, i*), *j*, and *h*, all becoming *h* in T, we have S. *general* 'general'; S. *giro* (in *giro postal*) 'money order', T. *hiro* (postal).

For examples of S. *p*, remaining T. *p*, see 1.1. For S. *f* becoming T. *p*, we have S. *fandanguero* 'dizzy' from the other, familiar meaning of *fandango* meaning 'noise' becoming T. *pandanguero* with the meaning of 'one who plays fandango music'; S. *fogon*, T. *pugon*.

For examples of S. *b* remaining T. *b*, see 1.1; for S. *v* becoming T. *b*, we have S. *voz* 'voice', T. *boses* (plural form), S. *vuelta* 'return, turn', T. *buwelta*.

For the T. correspondence of S. *r*, see 1.1 (and footnote 29). For S. *rr* becoming T. *r*, we have S. *garrote* 'club, cudgel', T. *garrote* (v) 'to beat'; S. *carreton* 'cart', T. *kariton*;

S. *carromata* 'rig', T. *karumata*; S. *garrafa* 'decanter', T. *garapa* 'small bottles'; S. *garra-
fon* 'large decanter', T. *garapon* 'glass container for sugar, biscuits, etc.'; S. *arras* 'wedding
gift', T. *aras* 'coins used in the wedding ceremony'.

Barrio (var. *bariyo*, *baryo*) seems to be one SLAT, aside from personal and geogra-
phic names, that is spelled with its original double *r*.

2.14. S. Consonant letters represented by their original letters as well as by their T. corres-
pondences:

1. S. *ch*, T. *ts*, *s*, and S. *ch*
2. S. *ll*, T. *ly* and S. *ll*
3. S. *ñ*, T. *ny* and S. *ñ*
4. S. *rr*, T. *r* and S. *rr*
5. S. *x*, T. *ks*, *s* and S. *x*
6. S. *z*, T. *s*, and S. *z*

These letters, *ch*, *ll*, *n*, *rr*, *x*, and *z*, together with *c*, *j*, and *q*, have been designated as
letters used solely for spelling unassimilated 'foreign words and personal and geographical
names that must be retained in their original and/or orthography and sound, unless there
is a [established] local or native version'.⁹

S. *ch* is T. *ts*, and often T. *s* in initial position, inasmuch as there are no consonant
clusters in T. Native speakers have difficulty pronouncing even the *ch* Tagalog equivalent
ts in initial position, where it must be pronounced as a cluster, but which can be phoneti-
cally syllabified in medial position. The *t* in *ts* is syllabified with the vowel (sometimes
with the consonant) ending the preceding syllable. For example, S. *chapin* 'slipper', T.
sapin, and S. *chocolate*, T. *sikolate*, *sokolate* (*tsokolate*, representing a sophisticated
pronunciation), but S. *salchicha* 'sausage', T. *salsitsas* (*sal-sit-sas*) and S. *chucheria* 'trifle,
tidbit', t. *sitsirya* (*sit-sir-ya*). The *sp* of these last two words is indicated by *saltsitsas* or
even *salchichas*, and by *tsitserya* or *chicherya*, respectively.

A lone word spelled with the original *ch* is *Chabacano*, a Philippine creole language,
the name probably having originated from the S. word *chabacano*, meaning 'rude, rough',
the adjective the Spaniards must have used to describe the pidgin Spanish which is
Chabacano: 'rude, rough Spanish'.

Personal names like *Chavez*, *Sanchez*, must, however, be written in their original
spelling, according to the INL rules of both 1962 and 1971.

S. *ll* is spelled in T. as *ly*, but in the case of S. words where the *ll* is pronounced *y*,
is spelled with *y*.¹⁰ The pronunciation of *ll* as *y*, called *yeismo*, has left a number of
words in SLAT, like T. *kabayo* (from S. *cabayo* <S. *caballo* 'horse'), T. *sibuyas* (from S.
ceboyas <S. *cebollas* 'onions'), T. *yano* (from S. *yano* <*llano* 'plain, simple'), but the
majority of *ll* words are spelled in SLAT with T. *ly*: S. *calle* 'street', T. *kalye*; S. *callejon*
'narrow street', T. *kalyehon*; S. *toalla* 'towel', T. *tuwalya*; S. *llamado* 'popular racehorse', T.
lyamado; S. *pillo* 'naughty', T. *pilyo*; S. *camilla* 'narrow portable bed', T. *kamilya*; S.
paella 'rice dish with chicken, vegetables, etc.', T. *paelya*.

⁹INL 'Guiding principles for a nationally uniform orthography of all Philippine
languages', Feb. 28, 1962, Rule w, and INL 'The alphabet and rules on spelling of the
Pilipino National Language', October 19, 1971, Rule 4.

¹⁰ Another effect of the speech of Andalusian Spaniards, Andalusia being among
'las regiones mas yeistas de España' (Navarro 1957:135).

Again personal as well as geographical names of Spanish origin are to keep their original spelling: *Llamas*, *Llamado*, *Valladolid*, etc.

S. *ñ* is spelled in T. as *ny*. Examples are: S. *pañ*o 'woolen cloth', T. *pany*ò 'kerchief'; S. *pañuelo* 'handkerchief', T. *panyuelo* 'T. *alampay*'. Again, however, personal and geographic names retain their original spellings: *Nuñez*, *Meñez*, *Las Piñas*, *Cataluña*.

For examples of S. *rr* becoming T. *r* see 2.13 above.

S. *x* is spelled *ks* in T. Examples are: S. *exacto* 'exact', T. *eksakto*; S. *excomunion* 'excommunication', T. *ekskomunyon*. Again, the spelling of proper names of Spanish origin like *Xeres*, *Roxas*, must be spelled in the original.

S. *z* is spelled *s* in T. For examples of this, see 4.6 below. Personal and geographic proper names must be written in their original spelling: *Gonzales*, *Chavez*, *Nuñez*, *Zabala*, *Zaragoza*.

2.2. *Spelling of the vowels in SLAT*

The vowels in SLAT are represented by the letters that reflect the changes they undergo when they are assimilated into Tagalog. The list below shows the correspondence of Spanish and Tagalog vowel letters:

| Spanish | Tagalog |
|---------|---------------------------------------|
| a | a |
| e | e, i Sometimes a (sais) S. seis 'six' |
| i | i |
| o | o, u |
| u | u |

S. *a*, *i*, and *u* are spelled *a*, *i*, *u*, respectively in T., but S. *e* and *o* both undergo raising in unstressed non-final positions. The unstressed, non-final *e* in S. *atrevido* become *i* in T. *atribido* 'daring', but the *e* in both S. *negro* and S. *azogue* (where it is stressed in the first one and in final position in the other) remains *e*: T. *negro* and T. *asoge*. There are instances where the *e* in S. diphthong *ey* is *a*: S. *veinte*, *seis*, *peineta*, T. *baynte*, *says*, *payneta*, also S. *telefono*, T. *talepono* (*fp*). S. *o* also undergoes raising in unstressed, non-final position: e.g. S. *completo*, T. *kumpleto*, but note S. *goma*, T. *goma*, and S. *antiguo*, T. *antigo*.

The S. vowels *i* and *u*, when unstressed, combine with each other or with other vowels to form diphthongs. They are semivowels when they occur at the end of a diphthong and are semiconsonants when they occur at the beginning.

2.3. *Spelling the V-sequences and diphthongs in SLAT*

As explained in the previous paragraph, certain vowel sequences are diphthongs in Spanish. Other vowel sequences are mere vowel clusters. Where *i* or *u* is stressed, it must be pronounced separately from the other vowel in the sequence.

Regarding vowel sequences in S., Lopez says:

¹¹ This must be another vestige of Andalusian pronunciation. T. Navarro gives these words among those of 'pronunciación vulgar en algunos lugares de Castilla y Andalucía' (Navarro 1957:53).

Certain V-sequences in S. which are articulated with a hiatus are diphthongs in T.: S. *suave*, T. *swabe* 'delicate, gentle'; S. *piano*, T. *pyano*, 'piano'. (1973:143).

Here Lopez does not define what constitute S. diphthongs, but only tells us how vowel sequences with a *u* and *i* are pronounced and, therefore spelled in T. He goes on to say:

This articulation in T. is also true in cases where in medial position *i* and *u* carry strong stress, especially in verbal /sic/ forms: *fianza*, T. *pyansa*, 'surety, bail, security'; S. *guia* T. *giya*, *gya* 'guide'. Similarly, with nouns S. *diario*, T. *dyaryo* 'daily newspaper'; S. *viaje*, T. *byahe*, 'journey, trip'.

Of the words containing S. vowel-sequences that Lopez gives above, only *guia* has a v-sequence with a stressed or strong *i*, and this sequence, not being a diphthong, requires a different spelling from the v-sequences that are diphthongs. While I would spell the *ia* in S. *fianza*, *diario*, *viaje*, with either *iya* or *ya*: *piyansa* (also *pyansa*) *diyariyo* (also *dyaryo*); *biyahe* (also *byahe*), I would spell S. *guia* only with *iya*, and with *i* stressed: *giya*, to distinguish it from the other SLAT spelled with *iya* but with *i* unstressed. This will prevent second-language learners of T. from pronouncing SLAT like *basiyo* as /basyo/ or /basiyo/ and *ekonomiya* as /ekonómya/ or /ekonómiya/.

2.31. Spelling S. v-sequences that are diphthongs

Below are the corresponding spellings in S. and T. of the vowel sequences which are considered S. diphthongs:

| | |
|-------------------|---------------------------------------|
| S. ai, ei, oi, | T. ay, ey, oy |
| S. au, eu, ou | T. aw, ew, |
| S. ia, ie, io, iu | T. iya, ya; iyo, yo, iyo, yo, iyu, yu |
| S. ua, ue, uo, ui | T. wa, we, wo, wi |

Examples are: S. *aire* 'air, tune, conceit', S. *baile*, 'dance', S. *reina* 'queen'; T. *ayre*, *bayle* (*bele* -fp), *reyna* (*rena* -fp), respectively; S. *veinte* 'twenty', T. *beynte*, *baynte* (fp), *bente* (fp); S. *seis* 'six', T. *seys*, *sa-is*¹²; S. *oidores* 'hearers, judges', T. *oydores* (obs.)

S. *viaje* 'trip, journey', *bienes* 'property', *piorrhea*, 'pyorrhea', *viuda* 'widow', T. *biyahe*, *byahe*, *biyenes*, *byenes*, *piyorea*, *pyorea*, *pyoreya* (fp); *biyuda*, *byuda*; respectively.

S. *jaula* 'bird cage', T. *hawla*, *ha-ula* (fp), but *Paula*; S. *reuma* 'rheumatism', S. *Europeo* 'European', T. *rayuma*¹³ and T. *yuropeyo*, respectively.

S. *cuidado* 'care, attention'; *cuadro* 'frame'; *fuera* 'force, strength', *casafuego* 'matches'; T. *kuwidado*, *kwidado*; *kuwadro*, *kwadro*; *puwersa*, *pwersa*; *kasapuwego*, *kasapwego*, respectively.

2.32 Spelling of S. V-sequences that are not diphthongs

2.321. The following S. v-sequences are by definition not diphthongs because they do not contain *i* or *u*:

| |
|---|
| S. ea — (S. <i>pasear</i> 'to take a walk'; S. <i>real</i> 'a Spanish coin' |
| S. <i>teatro</i> 'theater'; S. <i>ideal</i> 'ideal') |

¹²The hyphen represents a glottal stop. See below, Sec. 3.

¹³Andalusian pronunciation of *e* = *a*, and then *au* > *ay*, hence, T. *rayuma*.

¹⁴In fp, *eu* > *yu*, *eo* > *yo*; hence T. *yuropeyo* (See Navarro 1957:68).

- S. eo – (S. *peon* ‘unskilled laborer’; *leon* ‘lion’)
 S. ao – (S. *sarao* ‘soiree, evening party’; *caoba* ‘mahogany tree’; *caos* ‘chaos’)
 S. oa – (S. *cloaca* ‘sewer’; *toalla* ‘towel’)

In a S. syllable containing two vowels, one a peak and the other a satellite (Hockett’s terms), as in *peón*, Tagalog uses two syllables thus: S. CVVC > T. CV – CV(C): S. *peon* > T. *pi-yon*; but also *pyon*; S. *leon*, T. *liyon* (T. *layon* (fp) – must be the Andalusian *a* in place of *e* as explained elsewhere in this paper), *lyon*. The change from *eo* > *yo* (as also *êa* > *ya*, and *oa* > *wa*) is described by Tomas Navarro as the speech of uncultured persons (*el habla popular*) and also happens ‘abundantemente en America hasta en la pronunciacion de las personas cultas’. When words containing these vowel clusters have heavy functional load, the *iyo* (*yo*), *iya* (*ya*), *uwa* (*wa*) pronunciation is general; thus we have *pasiyal*, *pasyal*; *piyon*, *pyon*; *tuwalya*, *twalya*, but words that have low functional load and are known only to the cultured have both the sophisticated as well as the folk pronunciation, thus: T. *teatro* (sp) *tyatro* (fp); (Cine) *Ideal*, *Idyal*; which pronunciations are reflected in the spelling. *Joaquin* is pronounced T. /hwakin/ or /huwakin/ and would be phonetically written the same way but for the INL orthographic rule about personal and geographic proper names being spelled in the original language; hence, *Joaquin*.

2.322. The following v-sequences do not by definition constitute diphthongs in Spanish because the *i* or *u* in them are stressed, but since in SLAT they are spelled as T. diphthongs, provision must be made to differentiate their spelling so that this may reflect the difference between folk and sophisticated pronunciation:

- S. ia – (S. *guia* ‘guide’; *via* ‘way’; *Mesias* ‘the Messiah’)
 S. io – (S. *genitio* ‘crowd, throng’)
 S. ai – (S. *caida* ‘fall’; part of a house’)
 S. au – (S. *baul* ‘large trunk’)

In such vowel sequences, ‘se usa la tilde para deshacer un diptongo: *raíz*, *baúl*, *laúd*, *gentío*, etc. (Cardenas 1961: 566). Thus, there are two syllables in the first three words and three in *gentío*. T. uses *iya* (*ya*), *iyo* (*yo*), and *ay* for the S. *ia*, *io*, and *ai*, respectively, the same spelling used to represent diphthongs. T. folk pronunciation is reflected by the spelling *gya*, *vya*, *Mesyas*. The separate vowels in S. *baúl* is reflected in SLAT by a glottal stop before *u*, and indicates this in spelling by a hyphen; T. *ba-ul*.

2.4. *Spelling the Consonant Clusters in SLAT*

The consonant clusters in S. have two spellings as SLAT: the spelling which represents fp and that which represent sp. Because there are no consonant clusters in T. or in any Philippine language for that matter, Filipinos who are naive in foreign languages have difficulty pronouncing consonant clusters especially if they come in initial position. Those Filipinos who speak either Spanish or English can pronounce consonant clusters without difficulty.

In initial position, folk pronunciation breaks the cluster by inserting a vowel between the consonants in the cluster, the vowel being that which follows the cluster; for instance S. *brazo*, T. *ba-ra-so*, or *baraso* (fp), but *braso* (sp); S. *tren* T. *teren* (fp), *tren* (sp); S. *frito*, T. *pirito* (fp), *prito* (sp).

In medial position consonant clusters are broken by syllabifying the first member of the cluster with the preceding syllable leaving only one consonant in the succeeding syllable. For example, S. *negro* – T. *neg-ro*; S. *abrigo*, – T. *ab-rigo*; S. *atrevido* – T.

at-ribido. This phonetic syllabication is common with folk pronunciation; it is not usual with sophisticated pronunciation inasmuch as knowledge of both S. and E. has made it easy for those speakers to produce consonant clusters.

A problem that arises with the *sp* spelling of consonant clusters is the use of Tagalog infixes with this spelling. For example how would T. *prito* take the infix *-in-*? *prito* + *-in-* *pinrito*? or *prinrito*? With *pirito*, it is easier and the resulting word seems the more usual: *pirito* + *-in* = *pinirito*. *Pinirito*, which is based on the fp *pirito* is, however, both *sp* and *fp*.

The following SLAT are considered substandard or fp: *palatito*, *porbinsya*, *tarabaho*, or *tarbaho*, *tarankaso*, *parasko*, *kilyente*, from S. *platito* 'saucer', *provincia* 'province', *trabajo* 'work', *trancaso* 'influenza', *frasco* 'small bottle', and *cliente* 'client'. *Porbinsya*, *tarbaho* and *kilyente* look like cases of metathesis, but they are more likely the result of the elision of a vowel so common in T., like T. *kitlan* from *kitilan* 'cut, kill'; *tangnan* 'hold'. First, the consonant cluster in SLAT *probinsya*, *trabaho*, *kilente* was broken by the insertion of the vowel in the syllable containing the cluster thus: *porbinsya*, *tarabaho*, *kiliyente*. Fast speech elided the second vowel resulting in *porbinsya*, *tarbaho*, *kilyente*.

The problem connected with spelling SLAT consonant clusters is whether to accept both spellings representing fp and sp.

3.0 Part 3. *Problems of orthography relating to SLAT; suggestions for solutions*

Among the problems to be threshed out in Tagalog orthography and Pilipino orthography are (1) the problem of diacritical marks for orthographic accent, (2) the related problem of representing the glottal stop, (3) the problem of differentiating the spelling of vowel clusters of S. that are not diphthongs from that of vowel clusters that are, (4) the problem of too many variant spellings.

3.1. *The problem of indicating the orthographic accent*

Orthographic accent is indicated in Tagalog and Pilipino by the use of diacritical marks, the acute accent, ´, the grave, ` , the circumflex, ^, and no mark.

The acute accent mark is placed over the vowel of the syllable to indicate the stressed syllable; e.g. *buháy* 'alive', *talagá* 'indeed', *malíít*, 'small', *labí* 'remainder'. It is omitted whenever the stress falls on the penultima; e.g. *buhay* 'life', *dalaga* 'maiden'. Syllable stress other than that in the final syllable, which is indicated, and that in the penultima, which is unmarked, 'may be found — (a) in combination with the acute stress, in which all the stresses are marked, like *káwaniháñ* 'bureau', *náriritó* 'is (are) here', or (b) in combinations with the penultimate", where again the penultima is not marked: *táhanan* 'home', *mákita* 'be seen' (Panganiban 1970: xiii).

The grave accent mark ` is 'placed on the end vowel that takes a glottal stop sound': *batà*, *binatà*, *labì*, *paglalahò*, 'child, young man, lip, disappearance', respectively. Again the penultima is not marked. Where, however, the final syllable is stressed and at the same time the vowel in it takes a glottal stop, the circumflex accent mark is used. As Panganiban explains, the circumflex accent mark is not 'to be considered a third accent', by which he means it is, like the acute and the grave accent marks, not indicative of degree of stress, but merely a means of indicating the coincidence of the syllable stress and the glottal stop on one and the same syllable. The circumflex accent mark,

would, for instance, contrast with the acute accent and with the grave accent, as in the following examples of the homograph *baga*.

1. Stressed on the last syllable: *baga'* 'question particle'
2. Stressed on the last syllable and the vowel in that syllable taking a glottal stop: *baga̰* 'an abscess'
3. Cf. Stressed on the penultima, with the vowel on the ultima taking a glottal stop: *baga̰* 'lungs'
4. Cf. Unmarked: *baga* 'live coal'

Should orthographic accent be indicated? If it is to be optional, and a writer omits it, should there be no exceptions? How should the exceptions apply to SLAT? When should orthographic accent be used in SLAT?

3.2. *The related problem of indicating the glottal stop*

The glottal stop coming between a consonant and a vowel is indicated by a hyphen (INL 1971: Rule 8). That this hyphen is optional is indicated by the examples the INL gives: *pag-asa*, *pagasa*; *pag-ibig*, *pagibig*; *mag-alis*, *magalis*; *mag-ingat*, *mingat*.

With regard to T. words like the examples given, there are minimal pairs where the indication of the glottal stop would make a semantic difference. One such minimal pair is found in the examples given above: *mag-alis* and *magalis*. *Magalis* depending on the context could mean (1) 'to remove' and that would be the word spelled with the glottal stop indicated: *mag-alis*. It could mean (2) 'full of sarna' and that would be the word spelled without the glottal stop diacritic or symbol: *magalis* (the prefix *ma-* and the root *galis*). Many such examples could be found in Tagalog. Another pair comes to mind which is not exactly minimal: *pag-iba* 'a change' and *pagiba* 'in a razing manner'. Of course in *pag-ibá* the last syllable has the acute accent mark on *a* while in *pagibá*, the second *a* has a circumflex mark. The hyphen should, therefore, not be optional as a symbol of the glottal stop.

What is the problem in indicating the glottal stop in SLAT? Are there assimilated Spanish loans whose meanings would be different because of the presence or absence of the glottal stop symbol?

3.3. *The problem of spelling S. vowel clusters in SLAT*

As explained in 2.322, there are vowel clusters in S. that are diphthongs and vowel clusters that are not. The vowel clusters that are not diphthongs should not be pronounced as if they were. Pronouncing the non-diphthongal clusters as diphthongs marks folk pronunciation. Sophisticated pronunciation separates the cluster as two vowels. Another pronunciation separates the two vowels with a glottal stop. How should these pronunciations be spelled?

3.4. *The problem of too many variant spellings*

3.41 *The addition of f and v among the letters that may spell common words.*

The letters *f* and *v* are among the eleven foreign letters that have been added to the Pilipino alphabet by the INL proposal of October 19, 1971, but the INL rules for spelling do not include them among those foreign letters that are to spell only unassimilated English or Spanish words and proper names and geographic names. This will mean that with the exception of those loan words that have long-established spellings, we can now spell SLAT that have *f* and *v* not only with *p* and *b* but also with *f* and *v*. A word like S.

fugitivo, containing *f* and *v*, would have four spellings as a SLAT: *puhitibo*, *puhitivo*, *fuhitivo*, and *fuhitibo*, where formerly there was only one: *puhitibo*. *S. veintinueve*, which formerly had only two variant spellings as a SLAT – *beyntinuwebe* and *beyntinwebe* – would now have eight: *beyntinuwebe* and *beyntinwebe*; *veyntinuweve* and *veyntinweve*; *veyntinuwebe* and *veyntinwebe*; *beyntinuweve* and *beyntinweve*¹⁵.

3.42. *The three INL-accepted spellings of the high-front glide and of the high-back glide.* When finally the INL added the eleven ‘foreign’ letters to the Pilipino alphabet, it also added to the spelling rules three accepted alternative spellings of the high front glide (the INL *iy*, the mass media *i*, and the phonemic *y*) and of the high-back glide (the INL *uw*, the mass media *u*, and the phonemic *w*). We have seen in the *veintinueve* example how two variant spellings of the high back glide *u* has increased the spelling variants of the SLAT *beyntinwebe* (see footnote 15 for the other variants). Let us see how the three accepted variant spellings of the high-front glide *i* affect the number of variant spellings of a word. With a word that has no other sound which may be spelled in more than one way, like *S. ocioso*, there will be three: *osiyoso*, *osioso*, *osyoso*. Let’s take the word *S. farmacia*, which may now be spelled with either *f* or *p*. We have *parmasiya*, *parmasia*, *parmasya*; *farmasiya*, *farmasia*, *farmasya* – six spellings. With *S. fotografía*, we have *fotografiya*, *fotografia*, *fotografya*; *fotograpiya*; *fotografía*, *fotographya*; *potografiya*, *potografía*, *potografya*; *potograpiya*, *potografía*, *potographya* – twelve spellings.

Too many variant spellings make it difficult for even the native speaker to handle the written language and for the second language learner doubly hard to read and write it. It is true that the INL has provided that the ‘most commonly used spelling is the preferred spelling’, but how is a native speaker to know that a certain spelling is the most commonly used? And if this is not easy for the native speaker, the more difficult it is going to be the second-language learner. This state of affairs would be a far cry from the one-to-one correspondence between the spoken and written language for which the Pilipino alphabet is justly famous. English, reputed to be the most difficult language to spell, is more consistent and has at the most only two variants for some patterns: *s* or *z* for *civilization*; *s* or *c* for *practice*; *or* or *our* for *honor*, *labor*, etc.

4.0 Part 4. *Suggestions for the solution of the problems*

4.1. *What I would do with the orthographic accent.* With reference to the use of the orthographic accent, I would, like the INL (INL 1971: Rule 7), leave the marking of accentuation to be an optional matter. In written discourse and even in dictionary entries I would leave it out and leave the orthographic accent as one of the matters for which a dictionary is consulted about a word. I would, however, in the case of homographs differing only in the matter of diacritical accents, mark the homograph so as to immediately disambiguate the sentence where it is found. Let me use in sentences Panganiban’s example of a word which can have four different meanings because of differing orthographic accents. The homograph is *kaibigan*.

1. Ito ang kanilang *kaibigan*. (Unmarked: ‘friend’)
2. Ito ang kanilang *kaibigán*. (‘desire, preference’)
3. Ito ang kanilang *káibigán*. (‘mutual consent’)
4. Ito ang kanilang *kaíbigan*. (‘sweetheart’)

¹⁵ Actually, with the INL 1971 proposal of spelling the highback glide three different ways – INL *uw*, mass media *u*, and phonemic *w*, there would be twelve. The mass media *u* is not given in these examples.

Marking homographs diacritically would help the reader's comprehension. R. A. Reyes Jose (1939:6) gives a similar instance of the need for diacritical marks for easier comprehension and gives *magnanakaw* as the word that must be disambiguated. He, however, advocated diacritic marking for all words.

4.2. Although I would leave orthographic accent unindicated except for homographs that must be disambiguated, I would mark the glottal stop where it is obligatory and for purposes of dialectology where it is not phonemic. For purposes of SLAT, however, it is merely the latter purpose which would be served by the glottal stop symbol. For instance, the SLAT of the S. *laurel* and *jaula* are pronounced /laʔurel/ and /haʔula/, respectively. This pronunciation is to be indicated by using a symbol for the glottal stop. Instead of using the hyphen to indicate the presence of the glottal stop between vowels, I would use both the grave accent mark and the hyphen – the grave accent on the first vowel and the hyphen to separate the two vowels. In a SLAT made up of a T. prefix ending in a consonant and a S. assimilated loan as the other part of the SLAT, I would use only the hyphen. Actually, here the glottal stop may or may not be present and where it is present, it is not indicative of a dialect form or of folk pronunciation and here, the glottal stop may be optionally marked. E.G. *Mag-abrigo* may also be written *magabrigo*.

Likewise, to separate a Tagalog prefix *ma*, *na*, from a SLAT word beginning with a vowel and prevent it from being mistaken as a Tagalog diphthong *ay*, *oy*, *ey*, *iy*, *aw*, *yu*, etc., the hyphen and the grave accent mark would be used to separate what would otherwise become vowel clusters or diphthongs; e.g.

- | | |
|------------------------|--|
| na + S. embargo, T. | ná-imbargo, not naymbargo, which would be difficult to understand |
| napaka + S. ocioso, T. | napaka-usyoso (where the hyphen is used only to separate the prefix from the rest of the word), making the word more easily comprehended as against napakawusyoso. |
| naka + S. invento, T. | naka-imbento (like napaka-usyoso), is more easily understood than a possible nakaymbento. |

4.3. *Spelling S. ia and io in SLAT so as to distinguish between ia and io as diphthongs and as mere vowel clusters with the vowels to be separately pronounced.* The Tagalog spelling *iya*, *iyo* may represent the S. v-cluster *ía* and *ió*, which are not diphthongs since the *i* is stressed, provided the *iya*, *iyo* spelling for these clusters is stressed on the *i*. E.g. S. *economía*, T. *ekonomiýa*; S. *vacío*, T. *basíyo* as against S. *penitencia*, T. *penitensiya*, *penitensya*; S. *diccionario*, T. *diksiyunariyo*, *diksyunaryo*. Moreover, the *íya*, *íyo* spelling cannot have the variants *ya* and *yo*, which are allowed for the diphthongs: T. *penitensya* and *diksiunaryo* (phonemic spelling).

Attention to the diacritic marking of *iyo* and *iya* in SLAT would prevent folk pronunciation like /bwéndya/ (rather than /bwendíya/ for S. *Buendía*; and /potográpya/ (rather than /potograpiya/ for S. *fotografía*; /éspyá/ (rather than /espiya/ for S. *espía*).

Note, however, the following exceptions, which usage has established as accepted:

- | | |
|-----------------------------|-----------------------------------|
| S. lotería, | T. loteriya, loterya, loteria |
| S. mejoría | T. mehoriya, mehorya, mehoria |
| S. librería | T. libreriya, librerya, libreria. |
| S. barrilla 'loose change', | T. bariya, barya, baria |
| (where ll = y) | |

4.4. *What to do with the spelling of consonant clusters*

Both spellings of consonant clusters will be entered in the dictionary, with the spelling representing *fp* listed after the *sp* spelling and described as the spelling that reflects *fp* pronunciation of the word. The *fp* spelling will also be made an entry in the dictionary and properly described as the *fp* spelling variant. A cross reference will refer the dictionary user to the *sp* spelling.

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REVIEWS

Comparative Philippine Word-List. By CECILIO LOPEZ. (Special Monograph Issue No. 1) Quezon City: Archives of Philippine Languages and Dialects. University of the Philippines, 1974. Pp. ii, 165.

A Comparative Philippine Word-List: Sequels I & II. By CECILIO LOPEZ. (Special Monograph Issues Nos. 3 & 4) Quezon City: Archives of Philippine Languages and Dialects, University of the Philippines, 1976. Pp. x, 131, iv, 77.

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Comparative Philippine word-list (hereafter CPWL), with its two sequels (hereafter CPWL I and II), is the latest in a long list of important contributions which Cecilio Lopez has made to the study of Philippine linguistics. It is also a large step forward in our efforts both to reconstruct 'Proto-Philippine' (by which I mean the ancestor language of all contemporary Philippine languages; it may also have been the ancestor of some non-Philippine languages).

It has been forty years since the publication of Otto Dempwolff's monumental *Austronesisches Wörterverzeichnis*. Since that time many articles have been written discussing the reflexes of proto-phonemes (as reconstructed by Dempwolff) in particular Philippine languages, or in some cases the reflexes of one or two proto-phonemes in a large number of Philippine languages; most notably, Carlos E. Conant's work on the pepet vowel, the RGH Law and the RLD Law. Until the present, however, no one has completed a comprehensive statement of the reconstructed phonology of the ancestor language of all Philippine languages or a listing of its reconstructed lexicon.

One major obstacle to the completion of such a statement is the extreme difficulty and laboriousness of compiling the cognate sets to provide the necessary data base. Analysis is 'relatively' easy once the cognate sets have been found. Dempwolff's work is based on an agonizing search and comparison of dictionaries, wordlists, etc., from a large number of Austronesian languages – not only those cited in AW. Nowadays few scholars have sufficient leisure to carry out such a search. And no such search has been completed for a large sampling of Philippine languages. However, the existence of Dempwolff's work makes possible a second approach; namely, a search in Philippine languages for the modern forms developed from Dempwolff's reconstructed forms. A third approach is to start with a base language, e.g. Tagalog, and find as many cognates as possible in other Philippine languages. CPWL and CPWL I and II represent the second and third approaches. The task of compiling cognate sets for which Tagalog has no member remains to be completed.

CPWL is a listing of cognate sets for which Tagalog has a form, whether or not the cognate sets represent a development from a reconstructed form. The sets are arranged alphabetically according to the Tagalog form. CPWL I contains those cognate sets which represent developments from Dempwolff's reconstructed forms, arranged alphabetically according to the reconstructions. Since some of these do not include a Tagalog member – e.g. */dD/anum 'water', */dD/araq 'blood' – CPWL I contains some cognate sets not to be found in CPWL. CPWL II presents additional cognate sets for which there is a Tagalog member, arranged alphabetically according to the English meaning of the Tagalog word.

First of all, let me state that I am delighted that this material has now been published and that a copy has been added to my library. Allow me also to pay tribute to the massive amount of work that is represented in this publication. Perhaps only those who have spent countless days and nights collecting, comparing, copying, and shuffling forms in different languages can truly appreciate the thousands of hours and headaches that went into the task. If you have never tried to do it, don't underestimate the difficulty of this kind of work.

Unlike many publications comparing Philippine languages, this work reflects an advanced knowledge of the regular sound correspondences holding among Philippine languages. On the whole, I think most linguists will accept the cognate sets which he has grouped together. Of course, there are points subject to disputation and a few obvious errors. However, I appreciate the policy stated on pages vii-viii of CPWL I:

In listing the cognates, I have taken some liberty in including items which may, at this stage, look discrepant because their phonetic and semantic cognation may be open to questions. But I would rather have erred — if I erred at all — on the side of commission than of omission for later investigation may prove the discrepant reconcilable.

It is very easy for us in a later generation to reject listed forms which don't belong. But if cognate forms — albeit problematic ones — have already been discarded, there is nothing we can do.

I do have a few critical comments to make. I hope these will be taken less as criticisms than as suggestions and words of caution for anyone who intends to use this wordlist in further studies. The CPWL and in particular CPWL I and II are not written for beginners or for those casually interested in the field. Such persons will have difficulty making much sense of the materials. On the other hand, someone with a fair amount of knowledge of comparative Philippine linguistics and is patient and resourceful enough to do a bit of searching will find a wealth of information.

The arrangements of items could be improved. CPWL I on the whole follows the order found in Dempwolff, that is, alphabetically according to reconstructed forms. As such, it is extremely useful. It should be pointed out, however, that in revising Dempwolff's spelling, Lopez has not followed Dyen completely. In particular, Lopez has substituted *h* for Dempwolff's ' and *q* for Dempwolff's *h*. It should be pointed out that Dyen's *The Proto-Austronesian laryngeals* did more than make a one-for-one substitution of symbols. More importantly, Dyen corrected the formulation of the correspondences upon which the reconstructed laryngeals are based. As a result, Lopez's use of *h* and *q* is at variance with Dyen's use of *h*, *q*, and *ʔ*. There are other points of discrepancy with Dyen's work, but this one is the most troublesome.

The English index appearing at the end of CPWL I is a helpful addition. It can also be frustrating, however, in those cases in which the Tagalog or general Philippine meaning is different from the reconstructed meaning. For example, to find the reconstruction for *dugo* 'blood', it is necessary to look under 'fluidity; liquidity', the meaning reconstructed by Dempwolff for *duRuq. This problem might have been corrected if a Tagalog index to the reconstructions had been provided.

A similar problem develops in CPWL II when the Tagalog meaning differs from the meaning found in other languages. For example, the cognate set for Bkl, Seb, etc. *gamut* 'root' will be found listed not under 'root' but under 'medicine', the Tagalog meaning.

Lopez has listed his forms in a 'broadly phonemic' manner, and has given us a very brief discussion of some of the more unusual symbols used. In order to use these forms

effectively, it is essential to have a more extensive description of the respective phonological systems including such points as (1) are /o/ and /u/ distinctive phonemes, (2) is accent or vowel length distinctive? The system used in the CPWL is more completely phonemic in that the glottal stop is represented by a distinctive symbol (ʔ) and the location of accent/vowel length is indicated by an acute accent in every word. In CPWL I and II, Lopez has changed horses, so to speak. First, he uses *q* instead of ʔ for glottal stop. Both symbols are in widespread use, but it is inconsistent to switch from one to the other. A more serious matter is his use of a marking convention currently in favor at the Institute of National Language and elsewhere. Namely, 'accent' is marked only on the final syllable, never on the penultimate. 'Accent' or vowel length in the penultimate syllable is indicated by the *absence* of marking on the final syllable. Whether this system is appropriate for Tagalog is debatable, but that's another matter. The point here is that in presenting data from diverse languages with diverse phonologies, it is preferable to present the phonological information as completely as possible, and avoid marking conventions altogether. It would have been better if Lopez had persisted with the system used in CPWL.

There are at least two phonemic distinctions which Lopez has missed. (I am not familiar with the phonological system of all of the languages included.) On page 11 of CPWL, he states that 'Brandes and Scheerer distinguish a mid-central vowel in Ibg /Ibanag/, but my informants pronounce it *a* and it is so transcribed here.' The vowels /a/ and /ə/ are indeed distinctive in Ibanag and its closely related languages. However, the distinction is neutralized in a number of environments. Inibaloi has a number of unusual phonemic distinctions such as a front and a back /k/ which are not represented in CPWL. Perhaps it is too much to expect one scholar to acquire all of the necessary phonological information. However, anyone using the wordlist should be aware of this shortcoming and consult phonological description available elsewhere.

One final point having to do with the selection and reliability of informants. Again, this may be an unavoidable problem. It is, nonetheless, a difficulty which does develop and of which users should be aware. I notice (page 8 of CPWL) that one of the Bikol informants is from Libon, Albay. Since I have made a study of the Bikol dialects, I am in a position to point out that the residents of Libon speak a different dialect of Bikol which is not intelligible to residents of Naga or Legaspi. Data from that dialect should be properly identified and treated as reflecting a different phonological system.

In any case, a general rule of thumb is: Don't place too much emphasis on a particular form unless you find it listed in at least two independent sources. Any given form elicited by Lopez — or by anybody else — could be wrong. If you find the same form listed in Panganiban's *Tesaurus*, Reid's *Philippine minor languages*, or elsewhere, it is probably correct. If you don't find it elsewhere, you should proceed with caution.

The preceding points are intended as words of caution. They are not intended to detract in any way from the value of these books as a source of data and as a tremendous contribution to our search for 'proto-Philippine.' Congratulations to Cecilio Lopez.

A Dumagat (Casiguran) – English Dictionary. By THOMAS N. and JANET D. HEADLAND. The Australian National University. 1974.

Reviewed by CURTIS D. McFARLAND, De La Salle University

I suppose the first question that arises is why one would want to buy a dictionary of Casiguran Dumagat. The speakers of these language number at most a few thousand and live in remote areas in eastern Luzon. Few of us, including linguists, are likely ever to meet and converse with a Dumagat. Nor are we likely to have occasion to read anything written in this language. Thus this dictionary does not serve the most usual purpose of a dictionary, as does a dictionary of Tagalog, Ilocano, or for that matter, a dictionary of Bontoc or Tausog.

If on the other hand, you are interested in comparative Philippine linguistics, either for the purpose of reconstructing the historical development of Philippine languages or for the purpose of broadening your insights about Philippine languages in general, you will find this dictionary a very interesting and valuable contribution to your library.

Data on Casiguran Dumagat will contribute to the investigation of a number of historical questions. The first of these has to do with the subgrouping of the language itself. As pointed out on page *ix*, Casiguran Dumagat, along with its close relatives, constitutes one of the more remote divisions of Philippine grouping. These languages appear to be as different from the main body of Philippine languages as Ilongot, Ivatan, Tiruray, and T'boli. Their exact position has still to be resolved.

Another question has to do with the mid-level sub-grouping of the Austronesian languages in the Philippines. We have made considerable progress in recent years with regard to lower level sub-grouping, e.g. the determination of such groups as Northern Cordilleran, Central Cordilleran, Tagalic or Meso-Philippine, etc. We haven't really begun to attack the question of mid-level sub-grouping. For example, is there a clearly defined Proto-Philippine, the ancestor of a Philippine subgrouping; that is, a sub-group including nearly all of the languages of the Philippines and few languages outside the Philippines? Do the languages of the central and southern Philippines constitute a single sub-group? Data from a language such as Casiguran Dumagat will make a big contribution in investigating such questions.

A third very intriguing question has to do with (1) the history of the Negritos and (2) the question of how they came to adopt Austronesian languages and of what happened to their original idioms. It is widely held that the Negritos are descended from the earliest or earlier inhabitants of the Philippines. And yet they all seem to speak languages which are clearly Austronesian, and, furthermore, usually closely related to nearby Philippine languages. For example, the Negritos of Botolan, Zambales, speak the same dialect of Sambal as the "Pilipino" residents of Botolan. The Agta of Pamplona, Cagayan, speak a dialect which is very similar to the Northern dialect of Ibanag. Similarly, as Headland points out, Casiguran Dumagat is quite similar to Casiguranin 'the language of the indigenous non-Negrito population of Casiguran' (page *vii*). Clearly, at some point, the Negritos abandoned their original languages and adopted Austronesian languages. We will not here speculate on the circumstances which motivated such a development. What we would like to know is whether these original languages have disappeared totally and without a trace, or whether it is possible to discover an earlier sub-stratum which has survived up to the pre-

sent. Investigation of this question will not only contribute to our understanding of the development of the Negrito languages in the Philippines but also to the investigation of languages in other areas, such as Melanesia, where the presence of sub-strata has been offered as one of the reasons for the great diversity in that area.

This dictionary satisfies both purposes discussed above. It presents a solid synchronic lexicon. It also contains a number of features of distinctly comparative-historical interest.

The occurrence of an eight-vowel system in Casiguran Dumagat is very interesting. And Headland has presented a very thorough and reasonable explanation for the development of eight vowels out of the original four vowels of Proto-Austronesian. The question that comes to my mind is whether the eight-way distinction is maintained in all environments or whether neutralization occurs in some environments as happens in a number of Philippine languages. For example, for most speakers of Tagalog, a long *o* is phonemically distinct from a long *u* (e.g. *oso* 'bear', *uso* 'current style'). The corresponding short vowels are not distinct. In Ibanag and other Northern Cordilleran languages, *a* and *ə* are distinct in some environments but not in all. I observe that many of the minimal pairs listed on pages *xiv-xviii* illustrated distinctions which occur in final syllables or in doubled monosyllables. Can minimal pairs be found to support eight-vowel distinctions in other environments, in particular in the penultimate syllable of a non-doubled word? I leave this as a question, but I suspect that the answer is 'no'.

By the way, this vowel system illustrates one of the orthographic problems which is still to be solved. There are simply not enough symbols to represent more than five or six vowels. Headland has solved the problem by using diacritics for three vowels. This is not a particularly satisfactory solution, but I don't know any better way.

As mentioned above, Headland's discussion of the historic development of Casiguran vowels is thorough and interesting. I wish he had also shown us the development of Casiguran consonants, which would seem to be equally interesting.

The discussion of grammar is brief, but I think quite clear, at least to anyone familiar with another Philippine language. This approach is also a more satisfactory approach to defining or demonstrating the meanings of the various pronominal forms, noun markers, verbal affixes, rather than trying to deal with them in the body of the dictionary.

Looking now at the body of the dictionary, I find a number of attractive features which are frequently not contained in dictionaries.

Headland has marked the 400 most frequent words in the language on the basis of 25,000 words of text, and has indicated the number of occurrences of these words in the texts. This is very useful on a number of grounds. If you are doing lexicostatistics and find a number of words listed with the same meaning, this marking enables you to determine which is the more frequent or preferred of the various synonyms. Also if you are scanning the dictionary looking for cognates, it is possible to look first at the most frequent items, since this is where most of the interesting cognates are to be found. This feature is an excellent illustration of the uses that can be made of concordance programs in preparing a dictionary. I assume that Headland also found these concordance data very useful in selecting the less frequent items to be included in his dictionary.

In the entries themselves Headland deserves high marks on a number of scores. His definitions seem to be quite complete and precise. They are supplemented by ample examples. His cross-referencing is excellent. He identifies numerous synonyms and makes

frequent reference to words with related though not synonymous meanings. In certain areas of 'semantic clustering' he includes extensive lists of related items, such as types and stages of development of rice. A related point is that the English index seems to be quite complete, and well prepared.

In principle the practice of identifying borrowings is very useful in comparative work. Unfortunately, Headland has confined himself to the identification of Spanish, English, Chinese, and a very few Tagalog borrowings, that is, to words whose source is probably obvious to any scholar in the field. In view of the extensive borrowing into Dumagat from Tagalog, Ilocano, and other Philippine languages, and in view of our interest in distinguishing these borrowings from what is genuinely Dumagat, it would have been much more useful if Headland had been able to identify those borrowings for us. With his knowledge of the historical phonology of Dumagat, and the great distance separating Dumagat from these languages, it should have been relatively easy to identify these borrowings.

Just a couple of additional negative points about an otherwise excellent piece of work: In most cases, Headland has identified various stems as verbs. From his discussion of verbs in the introduction, we can see that the choice of affixes is unpredictable, or at best based on a complicated set of rules. It is to be desired that he adopt some method of identifying the primary affixes with which the stem combines, either by listing the full forms or through some symbolic representation. The same is true for sub-entries for verbs derived from nouns or adjectives.

Headland tells us (page *vii*) that accent is shown only on the stems at the head of entries but not on sub-entries or examples. It would have been better either to mark the accent on the sub-entries or to explain at some point the rules governing the shifting of accent. If accent does not shift, he should tell us this.

On the whole it is an outstanding job with many strong points and only a few weaknesses.

The Filipino bilingual: Studies on Philippine bilingualism and bilingual education. Edited by EMY M. PASCASIO. Quezon City: Ateneo de Manila University Press, 1977.

Reviewed by CASILDA E. LUZARES, De La Salle University

The Filipino Bilingual is a compilation of papers read at the First National Seminar on Bilingual Education held at the Ateneo de Manila University during the summer of 1974. It took three years for the book to finally come off the press, and it is worth all the waiting.

Going through the book is like taking a full course in multilingualism and it will not be surprising if the book becomes a standard text in multilingualism courses. This volume is significant not only because this is the first major book published on the subject but also because it provides a sampling of scholarship from people in the various fields related to language education. It seems that this volume includes practically all the names in Philippine linguistics and language teaching. The list of contributors included at the end of the volume is an almost complete Who's Who in the field of Philippine bilingualism.

The twenty-five articles in the book are divided into three parts: Part One includes articles that discuss the Rationale and General Approach to Bilingual Education; the articles in Part Two are classified as Research Studies and Strategies for Further Research, while the articles in Part Three fall under Ongoing Bilingual Education Programs. The classification is generally logical, except that Enriquez's 'Ang alamat ng bilinggwal na Pilipino' might have been better classified under Part One than under Part Two. Pascasio's 'Bilingual education research and its directions' could also have become a section of its own since this is the only article that tries to consolidate research that has been done in this area and to pinpoint the general direction of research in the future.

It is not possible for me to comment on each of the articles in this volume because of their number. Suffice it to say at this point that the book is a landmark for having appeared at a most propitious time. The rest of this paper will make a few comments on a few of the articles.

The following articles in Part One are highly informative and enlightening: 'Bilingualism in Philippine education' by Soriano, 'Bilingual education under the New Constitution' by Juco, 'Tentative typology of Philippine bilingualism' by Sibayan, and 'Manpower and materials resources for bilingual education' by Gonzalez. The article 'Cost-benefit analysis of bilingual education' by Valdepeñas is mistitled. The reader expects to find a cost-benefit analysis, as the title suggests; however, he reads only about why a cost-benefit analysis of bilingual education is difficult, presumably a justification for the absence of the cost-benefit analysis in the article. The least that the author or the editor could have done was to change the title into something more honest like 'Problems involved in a cost-benefit analysis of bilingual education'.

Part Two presents a lot of interesting and useful information about the Filipino bilingual as reported in the different surveys and experiments included in this section. Some of the results simply confirm what we already know; but this confirmation provides solid basis for future decisions and actions. One, however, notes some weaknesses in this section. For example, the article 'The Filipino bilingual's language orientation' by

Bautista *et al.* does not make a clear distinction between *fluency* and *dominance* both in their definition (p. 74) and in their discussion (pp. 78-9; 81-2). These notions are basic to their study and it is therefore surprising that they should leave the distinction blurred. It is only in their discussion of the methodology that one may infer the distinction. Could this be a case of 'Too many cooks spoil the broth' or were they following Macnamara's model (1967) too closely to bother with basic things like definitions?

Chan-Yap's 'Language loyalty and language assimilation among the Philippine Chinese' accepts a hypothesis without question and passes it on as a generalization. On page 93, she writes:

American sociologist Richard Collier (1960) has theorized that Filipinos' hatred for the Chinese stems not only from the role that the latter have historically played as shrewd middlemen in business but also from 'group self-hatred'. He says that Filipinos look upon the Chinese as a symbol of the Oriental elements in their own culture and physique and have displaced a hatred of their own 'Orientalness' to 'a convenient minority which is similar in culture and physique and yet definitely Oriental' (Collier 1960: 56). The colonial mentality Filipinos have developed from almost four centuries of Western rule have made them admire and appreciate anything Western and look down on anything Filipino or Oriental.

How true is this allegation? I agree that if an intelligent Filipino were to choose between Western culture (e.g. American) and Chinese culture, he would choose Western culture. However, if he were to choose between Western culture and his own, he would choose his own in spite of the fact that there might be aspects of Western culture that he wishes were in his own. My own feeling is that if a verification survey of this allegation is conducted the result would show that the Filipinos' negative feelings for the Chinese are rooted in their resentment of the economic superiority of the latter. The other cultural non-economic aspects of this resentment have been magnified merely as a consequence of this situation.

Pascasio's 'Bilingual education research and its directions' contains some inconsistencies. On page 123 she pushes for a program that will 'produce coordinate *bicultural* bilinguals' (underscoring mine). Yet, on page 124 she describes a plan which is not *bicultural* but *monocultural*. She says:

In this plan, Pilipino and English can be maintained for *different purposes*: culture-based subjects such as art, history, literature and geography *could be taught in Pilipino*, while *English remains the medium in subjects not limited to Philippine contexts* such as arithmetic and the physical sciences. (Underscoring mine.)

The other inconsistency has to do with coordinate bilingualism and the use of *mix-mix*. On page 125 she says:

Certain innovative approaches may be tried. A teacher may, for instance, use 'mix-mix' whenever necessary without losing track of the ultimate objective — to produce a bilingually coordinate Filipino competent in Pilipino and English.

In the same volume Enriquez (pp. 128-9) discusses the differing contexts that produce the compound and the coordinate bilingual. If it is true that context is a significant influence on the kind of bilingual that a person becomes, isn't using 'mix-mix' in the classroom a sure way of producing a compound rather than a coordinate bilingual? Or is

the distinction between coordinate and compound bilingualism not at all pertinent, as Enriquez heretically suggests?

I admit I had an initial difficulty reading and understanding Enriquez's 'Ang alamat ng bilingwal na Pilipino', but the article displays a refreshing style. Enriquez seems to delight in demolishing the notions sacred to the sociolinguist.

Part Three describes some bilingual education programs: the De La Salle Grade School program, the Ateneo Grade School program, the Philippine Normal College programs, the University of the Philippines program, the Bureau of Secondary Education program, and to a certain extent, the Ateneo program in literature. The articles in this section are healthy indications that something *is* going on.

It is interesting to note that while Enriquez and Constantino both belong to U.P., which is supposedly using Filipino, not Pilipino, their writing styles vary. Enriquez writes in the formal style while Constantino writes in the non-formal style. So what is Filipino? Or is this a demonstration of what they call 'malayang bilinggwalismo' (Constantino spells it as 'bilinggwalismo')?

Constantino argues the case for Filipino by employing an exaggeration. On page 169, Constantino writes:

. . . dahil sa kahinaan natin sa Ingles, madalas na hindi natin nalalaman kung mayroon tayong naiintindihan o natutuhan sa mga binabasa natin sa wikang ito. Basta memorays na lang tayo nang memorays, at ang ating namemorays ay nireresayt natin nang eksaktong-eksakto hanggang sa period at comma. Tunay na hindi tayo natututong mag-isip sa wikang Ingles, at nagiging parasitiko na lamang tayo sa 'western scholarship and thinking'. Ang ating 'bookishness' at 'paste-and-scissors scholarship' ay manipestasyon ng ating pagiging parasitiko sa 'western scholarship and thinking'.

Is the problem which Constantino is raising a linguistic problem or a methodological one? Can a person be taught to think and to be critical by simply giving him a language? If we look around us we find native speakers of Tagalog (or Filipino) who cannot think critically in Tagalog (or Filipino) not because they do not have the language to think in but because they have not been trained to think seriously and critically at all.

Tinio, in his 'Pilipino as a medium for higher learning', thinks along the same lines as Constantino. On pages 159-60 we read the following sweeping generalization:

I suppose that I am suggesting that a native Tagalog who cannot express complicated thinking in Tagalog has not really been doing complicated thinking, but has merely been remembering and reciting English statements which convey complicated thought. In other words, if he cannot express his philosophy of social science, his chemistry or mathematics, in Tagalog, he is giving evidence not of his inadequacy in Tagalog, or the inadequacy of Tagalog, but the inadequacy of his grasp of philosophy, social science, chemistry, or mathematics. Conversely, anyone with a real grasp of his subject, if he is a native Tagalog, can give full evidence of it by expressing the subject in Tagalog.

I find that the above generalization is a convenient way of coping out of the language problem. Language and thought are inextricably linked but the problem of the Filipino bilingual is that he has been trained to do this 'complicated thinking' in one language (a foreign language) rather than the other (his native language). A person who has learned to write with his right hand all his life cannot all at once write with the same facility with his left.

Tinio ends his article by drawing an analogy between the ability of Pilipino to become a medium in higher education and the ability of bats to see at night. It should interest Tinio to know that bats have very poor eyesight and cannot see very well during the day, much less at night. Rather, bats have a built-in radar system that directs their movements.

On the whole, the book is a significant milestone in the documentation and study of Philippine bilingualism. There is no doubt that the literature in this area in the future will include numerous references to this volume. The references and the bibliography at the end of the book will prove of tremendous value to students of multilingualism.

This volume is of interest not only to linguists in general and sociolinguists in particular, and to teachers of Pilipino and the culture-loaded subjects, but also to teachers of English. This book has been able to clarify, among other things, the differentiating roles of English and Pilipino. This has provided a conducive support atmosphere for English for Special Purposes, particularly its sub-branch English for Science and Technology. Bautista (1977) pinpoints the following as the implications of the Bilingual Education Policy for teachers of English:

Our students will have less exposure to English in their other classes and the English they will be exposed to will be the special register of English for science and mathematics; consequently, we must make better use of our class time and be more discerning in our choice of what and how to teach.

There is no way to be absolutely sure about the direction the language problem is going to take. One thing that is certain, though, is that educators and language planners will be consulting this book to find out what the people who have the most to say on the problem think.

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Surian ng Wikang Pambansa. 1977. Patnubay sa korespondensiya opisyal. Maynila: Surian ng Wikang Pambansa. Pp. iii, 173.

Reviewed by ANDREW B. GONZALEZ, FSC, De La Salle University

The latest guide for official correspondence, the Institute of National Language's (hereinafter, INL) latest publication contains prescriptions for different types of correspondence in Pilipino and photographed samples of official letters of various types, and presents models for office correspondence in a bureaucracy (circulars, orders, proclamations, memoranda).

There is a section containing a glossary of terms and expressions (English-Pilipino) commonly used in official correspondence.

A third part contains samples of printed government forms in Pilipino (oath of office, daily time record, application for leave, power of attorney, routing slip, personal sheet, pay envelope, clearance slip, different types of certificates).

Another division contains names of government offices and a glossary of public administration and parliamentary terms (English-Pilipino).

The supplements (undoubtedly containing what is distinctively new in this edition) include the constitution and by-laws of KASAPI (Kalipunan ng Katipunan ng mga Nagasabay sa Pilipino), an organization for the promotion of using Pilipino in official correspondence; rules for barangay meetings; guidelines on the basic requirements of organizing barangays; the Treaty of Amity and Cooperation in Southeast Asia; and the latest guidelines on Filipino orthography (issued on April 1, 1976).

The guide deserves careful review by a student of language development since it is one of the few official documents issued by the INL for the standardization of Pilipino (note however, that unobtrusively the last supplement, on orthography, uses the term FILIPINO, a change of orthography fraught with important implications which are outside the scope of discussion of this review).

In the literature on language standardization, this guide is akin to Malaysian and Indonesian *istilahs* or publications of special lexicon for specific domains, in this case, foreign affairs, legislation, government bureaucracy, and community development.

In matters of translating technical terminology from a Western language (in this case, English) for a special register (communications within a bureaucracy), there will be as many opinions as there are users. In prescribing a standard form, as the INL does, it fulfills its function as an academy and performs a service to Filipinos who would like to take the nationalistic mandate of disseminating Pilipino seriously.

What the INL needs to continue doing is to publish more guides of this type, for other domains, and thus extend the use of Pilipino to new areas hitherto reserved for English in Philippine life. While Filipinos have to learn these terms through English, unfortunate from a nationalist viewpoint, present realities dictate a bilingual format since in effect the bureaucracy of the Philippines (and for a long time, its science) is derived from the West through the medium of English.

The utility of the guide is evident, although one gets the impression that it is a random collection of individual parts not put together as part of a central scheme. What unifies the various sections is that they do provide the necessary lexicon and collocations for usage in official government correspondence, although the section on pages 108-54

on parliamentary terms and usage would perhaps be better published as a separate *istilah* or specialized lexical handbook.

Connected with the section on parliamentary terms would be the rules for barangay meetings (which use modified parliamentary procedure) and guidelines on the basic requirements of barangay organization. Again, these sections belong more logically to a separate volume on parliamentary usage.

Not too defensible is the inclusion in the supplements of the constitution and the rules of KASAPI.

The section on orthography, hitherto circulated only in mimeographed form, is now officially circulated but as a supplement. Again, given the importance of orthography in the process of standardization, it would have been better to publish this part as a separate booklet.

Totally out of place, except to give an example of the extension of the domain of Pilipino to the area of international politics, is the Pilipino translation of the Treaty of Amity and Cooperation in Southeast Asia, an ASEAN document signed in Denpasar, Bali on February 24, 1976.

Selected writings of Cecilio Lopez in Philippine linguistics. Edited by ERNESTO CONSTANTINO. Diliman, Quezon City: University of the Philippines, 1977.

Reviewed by HOWARD P. McKAUGHAN, University of Hawaii

Ernesto Constantino, Professor of Linguistics at the University of the Philippines, puts together nine articles from the writings of Cecilio Lopez, now Professor Emeritus of Linguistics and Oriental Studies, also at the University of the Philippines, in a book entitled *Selected writings of Cecilio Lopez in Philippine linguistics*. The first four articles are descriptive in nature, and the last five are comparative materials. The writings chosen range in date from the earliest originally submitted as a paper in a class under Otto Scheerer in 1925 to a 1972 publication. The Curriculum Vitae of Professor Lopez, included at the end of the book, indicates that he has continued publishing with articles or books in 1974, 1976, and in press.

Constantino in his preface tells us that the nine articles chosen are considered representative of Dr. Lopez's various writings on Philippine languages and dialects. It is interesting to note that the earlier articles are synchronic descriptions of Tagalog and Sugbuanon (Cebuano) while the later articles are all diachronic.

Dr. Lopez has been called the 'Father of Philippine Linguistics'. His contributions over the years, his encouragement to his students, and his leadership in the field of Philippine linguistics are admired and appreciated by those of us that follow him. We are especially cognizant of his continued scholarship even after retirement (1963), a time when he has published more than at any other period in his life. This reviewer with his colleagues wishes to pay special tribute to Professor Lopez for his inspiration in Philippine Linguistics.

The first article in the *Selected writings* is a text of Boak Tagalog spoken on the island of Marinduque. One possible conclusion from the article is that Tagalog in 1925 was quite homogenous, exhibiting only a few dialect differences. Manila represented the central and standard dialect area, though the 'Tagalog used in the Province of Bulakan, north of Manila', Dr. Lopez says, is looked 'upon as the best spoken Tagalog' (p.1). I use the past tense here, since I am sure the Metro-Manila area now encompasses a wider variety of Tagalog dialects, influenced and rapidly changing due to contact with the other Philippine languages and with English. In fact a study in depth needs to be made now of what Tagalog or perhaps better, what 'Filipino' is as spoken in Metro-Manila.

After presenting the text and its translation, Professor Lopez notes lexical peculiarities, idiomatic differences of expression, phonetic differences and some grammatical peculiarities of Boak Tagalog. He writes in conclusion that 'modern natural forms have sprung' from these more remote areas, and that Boak Tagalog may have 'remnants of a more archaic' form of the language than that spoken in Manila (p. 27). It is hoped that students of linguistics will be encouraged in term papers and M.A. theses to make similar contributions; similar in that even a class paper can result in an excellent publication, and similar in that linguistic observations of the language situation today are needed for both theoretical and practical (teaching, planning) purposes.

The article entitled 'Preliminary study of the affixes in Tagalog' (1937) is paralleled by a second entitled 'Studies on Sugbuanon affixes' (1949). Dr. Lopez uses a similar

outline for the two articles, the second utilizing English headings rather than the Latin used in the Tagalog article. He references in his study of Tagalog affixes Bloomfield's 1917 *Tagalog texts*, Laktaw's 1929 *Estudios gramaticales* and his own 1928 *Comparison of Tagalog and Iloko*, not cited in the list of his publications in the Curriculum Vitae given at the end of the book.

Professor Lopez's approach in his study of the affixes in these languages is to cite complete sentences, giving a discussion of what he calls the derivatives utilizing a particular affix, and then a summary of the affixes with their functions. For example, he gives numerals first, called in the Tagalog article 'nomen quantitates'. He cites full forms for ordinals, numerical adverbs, restrictives, distributives, etc. A summary gives the affixes as mentioned above with their functions, but does not always give full morphophonemic details (e.g. *pa-* + prenasalization is given for ordinals, where *pangatlo* is from *tatlo* with initial /t/ lost). Further, Dr. Lopez gives the 'nomen agendi' (p. 31) of Tagalog which corresponds to the 'verbal' (p. 137) of Sugbuanon, both formed with *pag-* and its respective derivatives in the two languages.

A detailed comparison of the information in the two articles is not possible here, but could be a very profitable exercise. For instance, the 'nomen substantivum' in Tagalog (pp. 32-40) and the 'substantive' of Sugbuanon (pp. 127-37) have many corresponding affixes with interesting semantic differences. This leads to the observation that Professor Lopez's treatment of the affixes of these two languages is more from a semantic point of view than a structural description. His treatment of what he calls the 'Quasi-Verb' in each language (pp. 46-104 and pp. 146-84), the largest sections in the articles, is replete with the meanings of affixes, information not found elsewhere in as succinct a form.

In neither article dealing with Tagalog affixes and Sugbuanon affixes does Professor Lopez go into detail why he designates the words that manifest the predicate 'quasi-verbs'. He does say of the Tagalog words that they 'are not finite verbs in the sense that that grammatical category is understood in the European languages' (p. 47). In both articles he also says: 'The attributive possessive suffix *ko* after the predicate shows that a noun and not a verb is being dealt with' (p. 65 and p. 162). Dr. Capell prefers to call these forms 'verbal nouns' (1964) for the same reason (see my articles of 1970, 1971, and 1973 for my response to this suggestion).

Most linguists agree that following the preposed particles, forms in Tagalog and other Philippine languages are nominal. For example the phrase *ang bumabasa* means 'the one who reads', *bumabasa* taken as being nominalized. In a recent conversation, Dr. Rufino Alejandro, formerly of the Institute of National Language, proposed that in such phrases there is an ellipsis, something like *bata* 'child' being understood. This would mean that the underlying structure for *ang bumabasa* is *ang bata ay bumabasa*, possibly a transformation from *bumabasa ang bata* 'the child reads'. This reasoning seems good to me, suggesting that in *ang bumabasa* the *bumabasa* is a verb not a noun.

Professor Lopez explains subject selection as the designation of that part of the sentence that is known (p. 62 for Tagalog, p. 159 for Sugbuanon). He writes of the Tagalog sentence *ang anluwagi'y gumawá nang bahay*, 'The carpenter made a house' that 'the carpenter' is 'the part which is known and is therefore the subject' (p. 62). If the situation is reversed, and 'the house' is the known with 'is made by the carpenter' the unknown, 'then "the house" becomes the subject of the sentence' (cf. *Ang bahay ay ginawá nang anluwagi*). He says of the latter: 'In this construction, the predicate is verbal in English and is expressed in the passive, but in Tagalog it is nominal in nature and is expressed by the "nomen actionis simplex" with *-in* (infix *-in-*)' (p. 62, and see p. 159 for the same statement on Sugbuanon construction with *gi-* or *-on*). However, I do not

find it necessary to designate either the so-called active or passive forms as quasi-verbs nor as verbal nouns whatever the construction is in which they appear. They are clearly predicates, and by carrying the usual properties of time elements in them are surely verbs. Professor Lopez utilizes inverted constructions which I suggest are the result of topicalization (see my article 1973), and are less frequent, I believe, than the more normal order (e.g. *Gumagawá ang anluwagi nang bahay*), a matter that needs a more definitive resolution than has appeared to my knowledge.

I find the two articles on the affixes of Tagalog and Sugbuanon excellent reference materials, especially on the semantics involved. I reemphasize that the information given warrants careful comparison between the two languages as well as with the other Philippine languages. The similarity bares out the reason Filipinos learn each other's languages easily, and makes a national language based on one of them (Tagalog) sensible.

Between the two articles just discussed, editor Constantino has placed Professor Lopez's 'The Tagalog language: An outline of its psychomorphological analysis' (1940). His inspiration for the article seems to come from Otto Jespersen's *Philosophy of grammar*, since he quotes Jespersen on the inseparability of sound and signification, and form and function. Professor Lopez sets out his understanding of morphology as the sum total of sound phenomena which are produced physiologically and also perceived physiologically, and his meaning of the psychology of language as 'the communication of the contents of one's experience and at the same time a perception and understanding of the same' (pp. 106, 108). He says that the two are treated separately, 'by a semifiction' in grammar, but this should not be the case. He believes 'that the grammar of a language is on the one hand "a theory of forms" and on the other a "theory of notions"' (p. 110). He further believes that not only are forms different from language to language, but that also notions and conceptions differ. For example, he says that notions of 'the spontaneous, the voluntary, the social, the involuntary, the plural, and others of the category of state or condition in Tagalog are wanting in European verbs' (p. 111).

In the core of the article Professor Lopez juxtaposes notions or concepts with the way they are expressed in Tagalog. For example he starts with 'arrangement of thought' expressed in varying 'syntaxis'. Here he discusses arrangement of a simple thought into a known (subject) and an unknown (predicate), arrangement of a complex of thought by enlargement of the subject and of the predicate, and in each case gives the word arrangements in Tagalog with examples. The data cited are valuable for later analysts.

The four descriptive articles cited above cover 185 pages of the book with the subsequent five diachronic articles being shorter, covering 74 pages. The first of these short articles (6 pages + chart) is on 'Classifiers in Philippine languages' (1967). The structure of a noun phrase with classifier in Philippine languages is given as numeral \pm ligature + (*ka-*) classifier \pm ligature + Noun. Professor Lopez examined 10 Philippine languages, and gives for each the structure and the specifics related to the classifiers. The chart shows detailed comparisons of classifiers between the 10 languages studied.

In 1970 Professor Lopez published 'Some new morphemes in Philippine languages', a result of a study of the reflexes of Dempwolff's reconstructions in his three volume work (*Vergleichende Lautlehre*). In doing his research for other purposes, Professor Lopez made a list of equivalents of the Dempwolff reconstructions 'which are not reflexes of his reconstructions' (p. 192). These equivalents are the 'new morphemes' referenced in the title of the article. Professor Lopez also looked up cognates in other non-Philippine 'Indonesian' languages. The purpose of the paper is to furnish data from which additional forms to Dempwolff's *Ur-Indonesisch* can be reconstructed, and in cases where cognates are not found outside the Philippines, to reconstruct additional Proto-

Philippine forms. Dr. Lopez lists 41 'new morphemes', giving in each case the reconstructed form either for Proto-Philippine, or for Proto-Indonesian (*Ur-Indonesisch*), or both.

A third short (4 pages) comparative-historical article is 'Tagalog *qanggiq* "a pet name"'. In this article Professor Lopez discusses a specific word which he postulates is a reflex of a Dempwolff reconstruction, but which was not taken into account by Dempwolff. Suffice it to say here that this is a good example of Professor Lopez's careful research and analysis. He is an outstanding authority today on Dempwolff's work.

The last two articles in the collection are 'Non-productive infixes in Indonesian' (1971) and 'Medial nasal clusters in Indonesian' (1972). Professor Lopez did a thorough bit of research for each article. 'Indonesian' in these instances, of course, refers to a language family, not a specific language.

Professor Lopez states as his purpose for the first of these two articles the locating of 'additional evidence in IN which may bolster the validity of Dempwolff's "erstarre Infixe"', and to 'construct proto-forms accordingly' (p. 214). He lists 116 cognates, 86 of them with Proto-Austronesian reconstructions from Dempwolff, and the rest without such reconstructions. Again, the work is painstaking and thorough. Professor Lopez summarizes his work, gives additional discussion, and draws specific conclusions; primarily that Dempwolff's reconstructions are valid, to which Professor Lopez adds others.

The purpose of the last article in the collection is to assemble the views of Austronesianists on the existence of medial nasal clusters in Proto-Austronesian. An appendix includes 156 PAN forms from Dempwolff with reflexes in the daughter languages. While the majority of the Austronesianists cited recognize the existence of nasal clusters in PAN, Professor Lopez believes there are 'compelling reasons to entertain the contrary view' (p. 235). The article is another example of Professor Lopez's thorough-going research and analysis.

In conclusion, this reviewer again wishes to express gratitude both to the editor for assembling these selected articles, and to Professor Lopez, their author. The data orientation in both the descriptions and the comparative articles is worth emulation. The contents of the articles encourage further study. We look forward to other publications from the research Professor Lopez continues to do.

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ACTIVITIES OF THE LINGUISTIC SOCIETY OF THE PHILIPPINES 1976 – 1977

The Board met on July 2, 1976 and elected the following set of officers:

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1. The Board met monthly on the last Friday of the month.
The meeting was usually followed by the monthly lecture.

Lecturers for last year were the following:

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| Ma. Lourdes Bautista | : <i>Sociolinguistics in the U.S.: Some Notes</i> July 2, 1976 |
| Teresita Ramos | : <i>The Bilingual Education Program for Filipinos in the U.S.: The Hawaiian Experience</i> July 24, 1976 |
| Lou Hohulin | : <i>The Phonology and Morphophonemics of Keley-i A Generative Approach</i> November 5, 1976 |
| Rosita Galang | : <i>The Acquisition of Verb Morphology among Tagalog-Speaking Children (3 to 8 years)</i> December 11, 1976 |
| David Zorc | : <i>The Influence of Philippine Majority Languages on Minority Languages</i> January 22, 1977 |
| Frank Robbins | : <i>SIL Worldwide – Our Applied and Theoretical Linguistics</i> February 19, 1977 |

Richard Benton

: *Ethnolinguistics (Its Relevance to Education)*
May 3, 1977

2. PUBLICATIONS:

- 2.1. The December 1975 (Vol. 6, No. 2) and the June-December 1976 (Vol. 7, Nos. 1 and 2) issues of the *Philippine Journal of Linguistics* have been distributed. Articles for the June 1977 issue are now being solicited.
- 2.2. The Festschrift, *Language Planning and the Building of a National Language: Essays in Honor of Santiago A. Fonacier*, edited by Dr. Bonifacio P. Sibayan and Andrew B. Gonzalez, FSC, is off the press and will be presented to Bishop Fonacier during the LSP Annual Convention
- 2.3. Carl D. Dubois' *Sarangani Manobo: An Introductory Guide* has been published as a special monograph.

3. ACTIVITIES:

- 3.1. Under the sponsorship of the Philippine-American Educational Foundation and the Summer Institute of Linguistics, Dr. Howard McKaughan lectured to Ateneo and PNC masteral students and Ateneo-PNC Consortium doctoral students on the History of Linguistics and Field Methods.
- 3.2. With the assistance of the Philippine Social Science Council, the LSP has been sponsoring a series of round-table conferences on the Development of the Philippine National Language. A core group of seven members and several invited resource persons have been discussing the respective roles of the Institute of National Language (INL), linguists, the school system, literary artists, and mass media in language development. A national conference, being planned for October 1977, will be the culminating activity of the project.
- 3.3. A proposed research program to complete the tabulation of the 1968 Language Policy Survey of the PNC has been submitted with an estimated funding request of ₱17,000.00. It has been proposed that part of this funding might be obtained from the Inter-Institutional Consortium under its joint research program (PNC – DLSU).
- 3.4. In cooperation with the Pambansang Samahan ng Lingguwistikang Pilipino, Ink. and the Department of Education and Culture, three workshops were held on 'Approaches to the Teaching of Content Subjects in Pilipino' in 1976.

4. FINANCES:

We obtain subsidies for our publications from the Summer Institute of Linguistics and the National Science Development Board through the Philippine Social Science Council. For operating funds, we depend on income generated by our workshops, the sales of our publications, and membership dues.

May 21, 1977

ANDREW B. GONZALEZ, FSC
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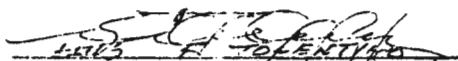
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| Publisher: Linguistic Society of the Philippines | De La Salle University, Manila |
| Office of Publication: | De La Salle University, Manila |
| Printer: G.R.B. Enterprises Company | 2216 Singalong St., Malate, Mla. |

of the Philippine Journal of Linguistics
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| | |
|--|------------|
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