JOURNAL OF SOUTHEAST ASIAN LANGUAGE TEACHING

Special Issue 2012

The Language Learning Framework for Teachers of Filipino

Teresita V. Ramos and Ruth Mabanglo
The Journal of Southeast Asian Language Teaching is a publication of the Council of Teachers of Southeast Asian Languages (COTSEAL), Southeast Asia Council, Association for Asian Studies, Inc.

SPECIAL ISSUE EDITOR: CAROL J. COMPTON

COTSEAL OFFICERS 2011-2014

PRESIDENT: CHHANY SAK-HUMPHRY
University of Hawai‘i at Mānoa

VICE PRESIDENT: KAO-LY YANG
California State University, Fresno

SECRETARY: JOLANDA M. PANDIN
Cornell University

Subscription Information: The Journal is published once a year and is available only with membership in COTSEAL. See www.cotseal.net for membership form.

Copyright 2012 Council of Teachers of Southeast Asian Languages
THE LANGUAGE LEARNING FRAMEWORK FOR TEACHERS OF FILIPINO

Teresita V. Ramos and Ruth Mabanglo
# Table of Contents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Preface</td>
<td>i</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Filipino Language: An Overview</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A Survey on the Status of Tagalog Teaching in America</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hawaii Student Survey</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Toward Developing a Curriculum for Heritage Students of Tagalog</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assessing Student Performance</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Suggestions on Teaching Filipino</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Linguistic and Cultural Notes on Learning/Teaching Filipino</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Selected Aspects of Cultural Verbal and Nonverbal Communication</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Review of Tagalog Texts and Videos</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Selected Texts and Video Lessons</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Observations and Future Directions</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>References</td>
<td>54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A Synopsis of Tagalog Grammar for Teachers</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Preface

Development of a Language Learning Framework for Teachers of Filipino

Introduction

The process of developing the Filipino Language Learning Framework has had three phases. First of all, the language learning framework concept was presented to the less commonly taught language community by Brecht and Walton in the early 1990s. Then, in the mid-nineties, a generic Southeast Asian Language Learning Framework was developed through the Council of Teachers of Southeast Asian Languages (COTSEAL), with initial work by an eleven-member advisory committee; later it was written up by Riddle, Compton, Carpenter and Wheatley (2002) and published as an issue of the Journal of Southeast Asian Language Teaching (JSEALT). Finally, during the late-nineties, Ramos and Mabanglo worked on the Filipino Language Learning Framework, a version of which was initially put out in 1999. It is a revision of their earlier work which is presented in this issue of JSEALT.

The Second Language Learning Framework

The generic framework designed by Richard Brecht and Ronald Walton (1994) provides general guidance for establishing the goals and standards and their method of implementation for all languages. It is particularly applicable to the “truly foreign” languages and cultures. Using the generic framework, a language-specific learning framework which set out specific standards of program design was to be developed for each language. This framework would be used to develop curricular guidelines for specific contexts in which the given language is to be learned, and these guidelines would provide the basis for the design of language programs for a variety of learning environments.

Brecht and Walton suggest that a “language learning framework” should involve four basic components:
1) a set of principles which underlie all language learning, together with what these principles imply for students, teachers, teacher-trainers, policy-makers, and researchers; 2) a taxonomy of the local conditions under which the language learning is to take place; 3) a set of strategies by which the principles can be implemented in the local conditions; and 4) the final program resulting from applying the framework (1994: 3, 4).

In their view, this schema would then be developed in later versions of the framework.

The principles of the basic qualities of successful language learning programs that Brecht and Walton present are:

1) good language programs must focus on language acquisition as a long-term, even lifelong, process; 2) good programs are learning centered, applying all we know about the cognitive processes of learning; 3) good programs are learner centered, and so take into consideration the differences in learning styles and processes of individual learners; 4) language programs should focus on performance, not knowledge about a code, and this performance must be understood as set in a cultural context; 5) a good program will have its goals defined explicitly, and 6) such a program will assess its students against these goals, and the assessment will be used directly to improve the students’ learning (1994: 4).

Because these principles underlie any learning program, the language learning framework is seen as “relevant to school or college programs, to beginning or advanced learners, [and] to formal educational programs as well as [to] immersion exposure in study abroad, to teacher-controlled or self-instructional programs, and to classroom or distance learning” (1994: 4).

The local conditions specify the characteristics of the students to be served, the teachers available, the materials, curricula, physical
facilities, and the mode of delivery. These conditions are assessed against the principles, and the implementation strategies assume that, where necessary, the local conditions will be modified, and/or reinforced to compensate for deficiencies.

By taking into account the best pedagogical experience and learning research available and combining them into a system for program design and reform, such a framework can provide the less commonly taught languages with “a model for curricular design which is generalizable across languages” (Brecht and Walton, 1994: 12).

The Southeast Asian Language Learning Framework

For years, the teaching of Southeast Asian languages has been led by individual professors who are often not in the language teaching field. They are often linguists or anthropologists. Most teaching assistants or lecturers are hired because they are native speakers of the target language, not because of their qualifications as language teachers. Lecturers are often left to fend for themselves and many are given no training and obsolete materials, if any. Textbooks are usually written by linguists and focus on grammatical explanations and mechanical drills. For lack of any other texts, lecturers just follow their books from cover to cover, usually resulting in boring lessons for students.

In 1994, the Ford Foundation, through the National Council of Organizations of Less Commonly Taught Languages (NCOLOCTL), granted the Council of Teachers of Southeast Asian Languages (COTSEAL) $24,000 to work on a Southeast Asian Language Learning Framework for three years. The Framework was viewed as a roadmap to serve learners, teachers, program managers, developers of pedagogical materials and others engaged in teaching of learning a Southeast Asian language.

There has long been a need for a set of principles to guide language educators, funders, planners, evaluators and others in the design and development of programs to meet the needs of learners of Southeast Asian languages. In the past, decisions on whether a certain project was to be undertaken, funded, or put into practice were often based not on a considered set of principles as set forth by the practitioners in
the field, but rather by quite arbitrary and external considerations. As a result, programs and courses have been developed which have failed to meet the needs of the learners. A language framework for the field can provide the kind of guidance needed to avoid this waste.

In January of 1994, for the first time in the history of our field, eleven key Southeast Asian language faculty were brought together to work on a language learning framework project; funding was provided by the University of Hawaii Center for Southeast Asian Studies. The results of this project could affect the teaching of Southeast Asian languages in the United States for many years. The Center also funded a closure conference in November of 1996 at which the completed framework, the result of a general consensus among the Southeast Asian faculty in the field, was critiqued and discussed; its application to eight specific Southeast Asian languages was the focus of the workshops.

However, developing a framework for the teaching of Southeast Asian languages was a formidable task. Even though the focus was on the national languages of the region, the writers had to deal with eight national languages which belong to four separate language families.

Taking note of the diversity of the languages of the region and their traditions of literacy, there was the added problem of reaching consensus about the framework from the many linguists and teachers offering instruction in these many languages. The Southeast Asian Language Learning Framework was published as Vol. VIII of the Journal of Southeast Asian Language Teaching.

**The Filipino Language Learning Framework**

The generic Southeast Asian language framework was designed to be considered in devising curriculum guides for formal programs for eight Southeast Asian languages (Burmese, Filipino, Hmong, Indonesian, Khmer, Lao, Thai and Vietnamese) in academic settings in the United States. Each of the guides obviously will have its own emphasis. Some of the things that such guides may include are the following:

1. A national survey which will reveal the needs of the specific Southeast Asian language and note the
language settings in institutions where it is taught, enrollments, types of teachers, and other relevant factors;

(2) A review of materials available in the field;

(3) Formulations of goals/objectives in general and by level;

(4) Functions to be taught from the first through the fourth years of the language; and

(5) A listing of problems usually met by teachers in teaching the language.

The guides are responsive to the students of Southeast Asian languages who differ in terms of background, learning style, and motivation.

It is hoped that all the teachers of Filipino at American universities will have copies of the curriculum guide for teaching Filipino, which can help them in devising their syllabi.

The Council of Teachers of Southeast Asian Languages and the Southeast Asian Advisory Committee of this project believe that the guides will enhance the teaching of these target languages in institutions of higher learning, lead to the further development of teaching materials, and improve the quality of teaching overall. Through the use of more uniform materials and curriculum, we envision that we as Southeast Asian teachers are moving towards some kind of standardization in the field.

Teresita V. Ramos and Ruth Mabanglo
THE FILIPINO LANGUAGE: AN OVERVIEW

1. Background

The Philippines is a Southeast Asian country of some 7,000 islands and islets off the southeast coast of mainland China. According to the Philippine Census of 1995, it was then populated by about 84 million Filipinos (NSCB 2004). It is said there are as many as 300 languages and dialects in the islands; these languages belong to the Malay-Polynesian family of languages.

One factor that complicates the language situation in the Philippines is diversity. Linguists say that there are 70 to 150 native languages spoken by Filipinos. The latest estimate is 109 languages or 110 if Chavacano is included (McFarland 1993). Although these languages are in some ways grammatically and lexically similar, they are mutually unintelligible. Furthermore, each of the major languages has several dialects that differ, especially at the phonological and lexical levels. Depending on their region of origin, Filipino immigrants to the United States will speak at least one dialect of these mutually unintelligible languages.

On the basis of a probable more than 70 mother tongues, according to Kaplan (1982), six of these languages are classified as major languages (these rounded percentages indicate the number of native speakers of each language in the total population): Tagalog (25%), Cebuano (24%), Ilocano (11%), Hiligaynon (10%), Bicol (7%), Waray
(5%), and other (18%). Speakers of these major languages, as well as of Pampango and Pangasinan, are found among the Filipino groups in America.

2. Tagalog, Pilipino or Filipino

In 1937 President Manuel Quezon proclaimed Tagalog as the basis of the national language, following the mandate of the 1935 Constitution. To free the Tagalog-based national language from its ethnic ties and therefore to facilitate its acceptance, Tagalog was renamed Pilipino in 1959. Thus, from 1959 to 1973 the national language was called Pilipino. However, in 1973, Pilipino was designated as an official language, not a national language. Under the 1973 Constitution, Pilipino was established as one of the two official languages of the Philippines, the other being English (Gonzalez 1977). The 1987 Constitution stipulates that the National Assembly is to take steps toward the formation of a genuine national language to be called Filipino, which will incorporate elements from the various Philippine languages. Philippine language experts predict, especially after the 1987 Constitutional deliberations, that Pilipino will be renamed Filipino to characterize its openness to borrowings from the other Philippine languages, as well as from English, Spanish, and other foreign languages (Gonzalez 1991: 126).

The 1980 Philippine Census indicated that close to 75 per cent of Filipinos speak a variety of Tagalog, especially in urban areas. In 1977 Gonzalez estimated that by the end of the twentieth century, 97.1 percent of Filipinos would be speaking a colloquial or conversational form of Filipino (Gonzalez 1991: 125-126).

3. Linguistic Features of Filipino

Filipino has been influenced, principally in vocabulary, by languages with which it has come into contact: Sanskrit, Arabic, Chinese, English, and Spanish.

Some of the grammatical features of the Philippine languages are the complex system of affixes, especially of verbs, the power of verbalizing most words, and the use of particles to indicate case relationships and
to link modifiers to the words modified. The most important feature, however, is the special case-like relationships between the verb and a particular noun phrase in the sentence often referred to by Philippine linguists as “topic” or “subject.” This relationship as actor, goal or referent in the sentence is usually marked by an affix in the verb.

4. Filipino in the United States

Filipino (Tagalog) is the national language of the Philippines and the cultural thread that keeps Filipinos all over the world in touch with their roots. To promote cross-cultural and transnational understanding and mutual appreciation, wide access to the Filipino language is essential.

Modern Philippine history is closely linked with the United States. The Philippines was an American colony from 1900 to 1946. The cooperation between the Philippines and the United States has continued through World War II and into Independence up to the global economy of the present day. In part, because of this close association, Filipinos comprise a significant minority in the United States.

In the United States, there are about a million Filipinos, and more are coming every year. This large and growing group (second only to the Chinese) is having a large impact on American domestic issues. This fact requires educating Americans about the Philippines in general and, more specifically, providing American schools and community organizations with the materials that help Filipino-Americans participate more easily and widely in the life of the nation.

According to the 1990 United States Census, Filipino is the second most commonly spoken Asian language in the United States, and the sixth non-English language spoken in America. Filipino (Tagalog) is the lingua franca of Filipinos everywhere in the world. Most Southeast Asian scholars use Tagalog as a tool for research in the Philippines. It is the language of major works of Philippine literature and that of Philippine films and songs.

A growing number of American universities regularly offer courses in Filipino. The expansion of the field can be illustrated by the following facts: in the 1960s, the University of Hawaii and the University of
California at Los Angeles were offering regularly listed courses in Tagalog. Today, Filipino courses are offered every year at the University of California, Berkeley; the University of California, Los Angeles; Cornell University, the University of Michigan, the University of Wisconsin-Madison; Loyola Marymount University; the University of Pennsylvania; Northern Illinois University, the University of Pittsburgh, and San Francisco State University, all of which are now part of a nationwide consortium to promote the teaching of Filipino.

Tagalog classes have also been offered at the Southeast Asian Studies Summer Institute (SEASSI) since 1984. Previously rotating among its eleven member universities, SEASSI is currently hosted by the University of Wisconsin-Madison. In the summer of 1998, the Monterey Institute of International Studies started offering Tagalog classes for heritage students. In the government sector, there is a growing interest in Tagalog at the Foreign Service Institute, the Defense Language Institute and the National Defense Security Agency.

Most Tagalog programs in America offer one or two levels of the language. Only the University of Hawaii offers four levels of the language regularly. It is the only university that has a heavy concentration on Filipino and Philippine Literature studies. A bachelor of arts in Philippine Language and Literature has been available at the University of Hawaii since 2001.

In 1998 Northern Illinois University, with funding from the United States Department of Education (USDOE), started a website for learners of Filipino that was geared toward beginners and a resource site for teachers of the language. Teachers of Filipino should watch this program and see what they can use from it. Comments on the program are much appreciated by the program designer, Rhodalyne Gallo-Crail.

5. Filipino as a Heritage Language

More than one hundred years ago, Filipinos began immigrating to America; now there are second and third generations of Americans of Filipino ancestry whose control of Filipino is limited, but who desire access to Filipino language instruction. More and more Philippine
language classes are attended by Filipino Americans.

The emergence of Filipino American students and their growing demands for historical, cultural, and linguistic knowledge that will enable them to reclaim their heritage and ultimately discover their identity has resulted in an increasing need across the nation for more Filipino language and culture courses in various academic institutions. The university has become the main venue for the articulation of their demands. University Filipino language classes play a significant role in assisting students to recover their parents’ language and culture for psychological, social and cultural empowerment.


Hawaii’s community languages are a valuable linguistic resource and an important source of identity for their speakers…. [however] immigrant and community languages are typically lost in a three-generation transition from monolingualism in the native language to monolingualism in English (LIH 1998).

It further states that in addition to the economic inefficiency of language loss, intergenerational language shift can cause difficulties in terms of family communication, relationships and issues of personal identity.

A SURVEY ON THE STATUS OF TAGALOG TEACHING IN AMERICA: SOME IMPLICATIONS FOR THE LANGUAGE LEARNING FRAMEWORK

The purpose of the survey was to find out the needs of the field, specifically that of the teaching Tagalog. Out of twenty survey forms mailed or faxed to subjects, seventeen returned the questionnaires with their responses. As far as we knew at the time, there were then twenty possible institutions that offered Tagalog in the United States.

The survey questionnaires consisted of twenty-one questions that we have grouped into four categories: (1) the personal background of the respondents, including their education and/or training for the
profession; (2) the institutional background, focusing on the structure of the institutions. (e.g., whether Tagalog is taught during a semester or quarter, in what department it is housed, how many credits are offered, as well as the number of students per class, and whether the teacher's position is tenured or not); (3) student enrollment; and (4) the needs expressed and the aspirations for Tagalog given by each individual respondent (Mabanglo 1987).

1. Personal Background

There were seventeen respondents in this survey. There were thirteen females and four males, one individual was a Caucasian and the rest were Filipinos.

The educational backgrounds of the teachers varied from degrees that were closely related to teaching and language to those that were not relevant at all. Out of the seventeen subjects, seven respondents had doctoral degrees. Two of these were in linguistics, one in Filipino language and literature, one in American Studies, one in Philippine Studies, and another in Curriculum, Instruction and Language Arts. One was in Urban Planning which is not related at all to the teaching of Tagalog.

Of the ten remaining teachers, only two did not have master's degrees. There was one subject who was completing her M.A. in English as a Second Language, the rest (7) of the respondents have master's degrees in French, linguistics, Philippine studies, mass communications, journalism, language teaching, education and public administration. Three out of the seventeen have two masters degrees each.

The types of training for second language teaching also vary. These include the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Language's (ACTFL) Oral Proficiency Interview (OPI); the University of Hawaii (UH) National Foreign Language Resource Center's Filipino Institute in 1994; the Southeast Asian Studies Summer Institute (SEASSI) Teacher Training (i.e., the pre-service and in-service training given to teachers); Applied Linguistics; English as a Second Language (ESL); Bilingual Teaching; Peace Corps training; and missionary training. This training may also include reading and other workshops offered by language
organizations like the Council of Teachers of Southeast Asian Languages (COTSEAL); and local language organization workshops such as those offered by the Hawaii Association of Language Teachers (HALT). Of the seventeen respondents, ten underwent training at the UH Filipino Institute; three took OPI training with ACTFL; three did Peace Corps training; two taught/trained for teaching Tagalog missionaries; four underwent SEASSI teacher training; two sat in ESL classes; two trained in bilingual education; and two did COTSEAL Conference workshops.

What these figures imply is that teachers of Tagalog have fairly high educational backgrounds and have undergone some training in language teaching and testing. And although some of them have degrees that are irrelevant to teaching, they have undergone professional development through venues that are accessible to them.

2. Institutional Background

Where the teaching of Tagalog is housed varies from institution to institution. Since two of the respondents teach at the high school level, their responses were not counted. Five respondents from the University of Hawaii at Manoa answered that the Tagalog Program is housed in the Department of Hawaiian and Indo-Pacific Languages and Literature. Two respondents answered that Tagalog is housed in the Southeast Asian Languages Program. Two community colleges in Hawaii housed the program in the Language Arts Department. At the University of California, Berkeley, it can be found in the Department of International and Area Studies, while in two respondents' answers, Tagalog was housed in the Department of Modern Languages (Loyola Marymount and Cornell). One mentioned the Department of Asian Languages and Cultures; another mentioned the Department of Foreign Languages, and still another indicated a Language Center in Asian and Middle Eastern Studies.

In terms of credits, ten respondents indicated that the first and second level Tagalog in their institutions give four credits for each course per semester with five contact hours a week. The higher level Tagalog classes, third or advanced levels, are taught at the University of Hawaii at Manoa, Loyola Marymount, and Cornell University; these classes
receive three credits per semester, three contact hours a week. Only at the University of Hawaii is the fourth level of Tagalog (three credits) offered regularly. It was observed, though, that at the University of Michigan, the advanced level is offered as an independent reading and/or independent study course, depending on the student's "independent research." No compensation was given to the teacher for offering this course. SEASSI, too, offers advanced Tagalog courses whenever there is a need for it and whenever there is budget for it.

In terms of positions/tenure offered in the institution housing the Tagalog program, only five out of the seventeen respondents had tenure track positions. Two of these five headed a language program, one had a tenure track position in Philippine Studies, and another had tenure at a high school. Two of these tenure track positions are at the University of Hawaii.

3. Student Enrollment

Data gathered under this category were grouped into three geographic areas: the West Coast (including UCLA, UC-Berkeley, City College of San Francisco, Loyola Marymount, University of Hawaii System including Manoa, Kapiolani Community College, Honolulu Community College and Leeward Community College); the Midwest (University of Oregon, University of Wisconsin-Madison, and University of Michigan); and the East Coast (the University of Pennsylvania and Cornell University). The following table gives the spring 1997 enrollment data for the different schools listed below. The high school data were not included in the list:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SCHOOLS</th>
<th>BEG. TAGALOG</th>
<th>INT. TAGALOG</th>
<th>ADV. TAGALOG</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>UH-System</td>
<td>104</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UH-Manoa</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KCC</td>
<td>16</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LCC</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>14</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Summing up the numbers of students, the University of Hawaii system had the greatest number of students studying Tagalog (170), followed by the City College of San Francisco (72) and the University of California, Berkeley (70). There were a total of 354 students studying Tagalog on the West Coast in the spring. In the Midwest, there were a total of forty-seven students, while on the East Coast there was a total of thirty-one students. The total number of students studying Tagalog in the schools mentioned is 432. Eighty percent of these are Filipino-Americans. Most of the Tagalog students were on the West Coast (82%).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SCHOOLS</th>
<th>BEG. TAGALOG</th>
<th>INT. TAGALOG</th>
<th>ADV. TAGALOG</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>UC- Berkeley</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>20</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UC-LA</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>9</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>City College of SF</td>
<td>72</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Loyola</td>
<td>9</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>COAST TOTAL</td>
<td>259</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Michigan</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wisconsin</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MIDWEST TOTAL</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pennsylvania</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cornell U</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EAST COAST TOTAL</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4. Needs and Aspirations of Teachers

Based on the returns tallied, the Tagalog teachers' problems can be grouped into three categories: (1) the need for more teaching materials, (2) the need for academic support and (3) the need for training.

At this juncture, it is important to note that among the seventeen subjects, only two have extensively published books that are currently being used in the field. But since the teaching of Tagalog underwent changes in terms of student composition as well as in the goals of
learning and the introduction of new technology, the need for all sorts and forms of teaching materials has come out intensely as a major problem among teachers. Tagalog teachers have expressed the need for audio-visual materials (e.g., video/movie clips and computer assisted lessons). Six respondents expressed the desire to use computer-assisted materials. Teachers also mentioned the need for good bilingual dictionaries that are affordable to them and the students, content based materials, placement tests, lesson plans, standardized curriculum guides for each level, and as another mentioned, a "binder full" of activities.

One other problem that seems to recur among the responses the subjects turned in is the lack of academic support. Based on the explanations and responses given, "academic support" had to do with the structure in which the course exists. For instance, teachers who are not housed in a relevant area studies department or center are not given the attention they need from the department of the college or university they are connected with; they may lack work security or get a "low-priority attitude" from the department. This lack of support affects the promotion and maintenance of Tagalog as a course offering; the overflowing or ebbing of students in each class; the purchase of curriculum materials; and the funding of materials development by teachers who want to undertake it. Another related problem includes physical facilities. Two teachers mentioned that they need better classrooms that could accommodate large class activities like role-plays and games.

Lack of support can also mean not granting teachers the opportunity to be trained or developed professionally. Some teachers, we noted, took it upon themselves to sit in ESL classes within their university settings but there are other regular training venues that they can take advantage of if they are given the financial support and released time by their respective schools.

The training of teachers is crucial to the development of good Tagalog Programs. If teachers are trained, then they can develop their own materials to suit their students' needs. They can identify the problems and address them within the means possible in their situations. They can develop the ability to evaluate the teaching materials developed by
others, prepare on their own what materials are needed and assess the proficiency of their students in the four communicative skills in the target language. If the teachers have the necessary training, they can also address problems in the classrooms as noted earlier. Heritage students are demanding new curriculum, new materials, and new approaches to teaching. Thus it is important to develop a language learning framework that addresses two types of students: one that is tailored for Tagalog as a foreign language and another for heritage students.

Hawaii Student Survey: A Needs Analysis

Having done the teacher survey (Spring 1997), in the fall of 1998 we sent out a student survey to 167 subjects at the University of Hawaii, (69 first level; 74 second level, 14-third level, and 10 fourth level) to field test the questionnaire.

The survey consisted of thirteen questions which fall into five general categories: (1) personal background, including birth date and place of birth and parents' native language; (2) knowledge of a Philippine language self rated as "zero, poor, fair, good;" (3) how this language was acquired; (4) reasons for taking Tagalog; (5) interests in cultural activities and Philippine-related courses; and (6) future goals in the use of the language.

The analysis of the data is ongoing. The first-year data was the only data analyzed so this analysis is definitely very preliminary.

Among the 69 Tagalog 101 students surveyed, 59% had at least one Ilocano speaking parent. The second type of student had at least one Tagalog speaking parent (33%). The third type of Filipino student had a non-Tagalog and a non-Ilokano speaking parent (6%). The fourth type of student had non-Filipino, English speaking parents (2%).

The pure "heritage" type students would fall under the second type. This can be a main difference between Hawaii students and those in other programs in America. Probably because they already know Ilokano, most of the students of Tagalog in the University of Hawaii program come from Ilokano families.
Ninety-five percent of students taking Tagalog at the University of Hawaii had been exposed to a Philippine language, mostly Ilokano. Eight percent were born in the Philippines.

In their self-assessment of their skills in Tagalog, about 50% of the students state that they have some facility (fair to good) in comprehending (58%) and reading (48%) Tagalog. Speaking is a close second. What is strange is that they want to be taught the skill they say they know: listening (35%). Most of them have "poor" or "zero" knowledge in writing. Sixty-four percent of them would like to study speaking, probably because communication in the language was the most important reason why they took the language.

The questions that arise are: Should we insist in teaching them the literacy skills? What are the ways of motivating them to learn those skills? Are we to expand on what they know? (e.g., give them more exercises in listening and on the advanced level, teach extended listening through films.) Will the data from the higher level students give us a clearer picture of what the "needs" are?

How Tagalog was acquired shows the influence of Filipino parents, grandparents, relatives and friends. Seventy-eight percent of the subjects cited this as the source of their Tagalog. The movies, television shows and songs are a close second. Since the subjects respond in English to their families, listening is a more developed skill (plus the exposure to the movies, TV shows and songs) than speaking is.

Reasons they gave for wanting to learn Tagalog were mostly to be able to communicate in the language (52%) and to communicate with family and relatives (30%). Notice that the utilitarian use of Tagalog is not mentioned at all.

On their goals (in the future) for the use of Tagalog, 43% of the students’ goals were still on improving their fluency in Tagalog to be able to communicate in it and 37% to communicate with one's family. However, more responses on learning about Philippine culture and job-related reasons (such use of the language as interpreters, doctors, stewardesses, business people) are beginning to be expressed. The upper levels would probably express these more.
Interests in cultural activities were on food (81%) and movies (62%); on Philippine related courses, they mostly selected history (64%) and customs and values (59%). This might be of help to curriculum developers who could use these topics in reading and writing activities. It could motivate them in learning these skills.

The survey is not perfect. Suggestions from this group could lead to a better survey which we plan to send to most if not all Tagalog classes in America. It is the lack of this needs survey that stops us from writing curriculum materials. Needs analysis work is urgently needed and until that has been set in place, the future of a true, rationale and defensible curriculum guide for Tagalog will remain uncertain. The following are some of the tables from the survey.

**Student Survey Tables**

Table 1. Classes and Subjects

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Classes</th>
<th>101-1</th>
<th>101-2</th>
<th>101-4</th>
<th>101-5</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Subjects</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>69</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2. Parent's Language

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Language</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ilokano</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ilokano &amp; English</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ilokano &amp; other</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tagalog</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tagalog &amp; English</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tagalog &amp; other</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tagalog &amp; Ilokano</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ilokano</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ilokano &amp; English</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ilokano &amp; other</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ilokano &amp; Ilokano</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ilokano &amp; Ilokano &amp; Tagalog</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 3. Knowledge of Tagalog: (F-fair; G-good)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>F/G</th>
<th>F/G</th>
<th>F/G</th>
<th>F/G</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Speaking</td>
<td>5/-</td>
<td>6/-</td>
<td>2/1</td>
<td>4/-</td>
<td>17/1</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Listening</td>
<td>5/3</td>
<td>7/4</td>
<td>10/3</td>
<td>4/4</td>
<td>26/14</td>
<td>58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reading</td>
<td>4/2</td>
<td>3/2</td>
<td>13/1</td>
<td>6/2</td>
<td>26/7</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Writing</td>
<td>4/-</td>
<td>4/1</td>
<td>6/1</td>
<td>2/1</td>
<td>16/1</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3.a. Skills want to focus on:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Speaking</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Listening</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4. How Tagalog is Learned

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a. Born in the Phils.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. Left Phils. young</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c. Courses taken</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. Left Phils. young</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d. Parents, relatives &amp; Friends</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e. Tagalog movies</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f. Tagalog songs</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>h. Read magazine</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i.e. Read comics</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(‘ and studied there for a number of years)
Table 6. Reasons for taking Tagalog

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reason</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Comm. in Tagalog</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comm. with Family</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Heritage</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job related</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 10. Cultural Activities Interested in

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Activity</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a. food</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. songs</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c. drama</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d. movies</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e. dance</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 11. Philippine Related Subjects Interested in

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a. history</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. arts</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c. literature</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d. customs/values</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e. religion</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f. music</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>g. politics</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>h. geography</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i. sociology</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>j. film/drama</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>58</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 12. Future use of Tagalog

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>6</th>
<th>10</th>
<th>8</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>27</th>
<th>43</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Comm. in Tagalog</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comm. with Family</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Heritage</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job related</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**TOWARD DEVELOPING A CURRICULUM FOR HERITAGE STUDENTS OF TAGALOG**

In 1999, Irma Gonsalvez, instructor of Tagalog at the University of California, Berkeley worked on a study to develop and establish a curriculum for first-year Tagalog that addresses the "heritage" Tagalog learners who make up 90% of the classes.

She defined the "heritage Tagalog learner" as one who comes from a home in which Tagalog is spoken and Filipino culture is lived, to whatever degree. This study involved (1) a faculty survey of nine instructors of Tagalog from various institutions in the U.S. who were asked to assess their heritage students' proficiency or lack thereof in listening, speaking, reading, writing, and culture; and (2) a needs-assessment survey of twenty heritage students of Tagalog at UC Berkeley. The faculty survey confirmed the results from the student questionnaires. Heritage students comprised 95% of the class. Of these, 95% will be of Filipino parentage, whose primary language is Tagalog, and 5% of mixed parentage. Half will be U.S.-born, and half Philippine-born. Of the latter, 70% moved to the U.S. between the ages of six and thirteen and 30% before age six.

In light of the results of this study, she made the following recommendations for a first-year Tagalog curriculum:

1. Teach functional vocabulary; 2. Structure interactions with native speakers of Tagalog in a school context to promote interest in pursuing similar interactions elsewhere; 3. Structure class work requiring participation in varied activities to develop socio-
linguistic competencies; (4) Introduce various text types; (5) Teach grammatical strategies in tackling a Tagalog text; (6) Incorporate reading and writing activities that take into account the student's home language background and interest; (7) Teach reading and writing on varied topics on Philippine/Filipino culture beyond the daily cultural practices in the home; (8) Structure classroom activities that contribute to a positive attitude about the language, culture, and oneself; (9) Undertake ethnographic projects in the language in the Filipino community; (10) Encourage the use of Tagalog in context in various situations and with a variety of interlocutors (Gonsalvez, 1999: 2).

**CURRICULUM OUTLINE FOR FOUR LEVELS OF FILIPINO LANGUAGE COURSES**

There is next to nothing in a guide that pays particular attention to the needs of the less commonly taught languages, and particularly on the teaching of Filipino. But, because of the urgency for the demand for up-to-date proficiency oriented materials in the teaching of Southeast Asian languages, we feel it is all right to go ahead even in the absence of a needs analysis and make use of collections of sample materials available. Hence this outline is adapted from Alice Omaggio's proficiency-oriented planning guide based on the one developed by the Defense Language Institute in Monterey, California and on Cynthia Ning's curriculum outline for Mandarin Chinese. However, needs analysis work is urgently needed to have a defensible curriculum guide for the teaching of Filipino in the near future.

The following curriculum outline offers four levels of instruction (equivalent to four years of instruction), using performance-based methodology (function driven, focusing on the tasks appropriate to each level, interactive, student centered with commensurate attention to practical culture).

A full Filipino program offers four levels of instruction. Most programs in America reach only the second level. The University of Hawaii
program offers third and fourth levels regularly. Specifics of instruction at each level are as follows.

Level One:
Profile of incoming students  No or limited previous exposure (0-Novice to Mid levels)

Goals  After one year of instruction, the student will reach approximately the Intermediate Low level in all four skills. They will be able to express their own meaning in simple sentences using recombinations of known material; identify the main idea of speech directed at them in areas of immediate need; puzzle out information in simple material relating to survival needs; and write simple messages and diaries.

Instructional outline  Focus on developing vocabulary set in high-occurrence sentence patterns relating to basic survival situations such as making friends, talking about self and others, shopping, getting around town. Skills-getting activities will include TPR, pantomime, guesswork, etc.; skills-using activities include pair and group work aimed at getting students to understand phrases and sentences and express their own meaning using sentences. Role-playing and improvisation will also be included. Reading will include authentic material such as signs, money, timetables, menus, notes, etc. Students will be encouraged to skim and scan texts to determine main ideas. Writing will include simple communications that approximate language previously learned in speaking exercises or in familiar reading texts.

Level Two:
Profile of incoming students  Ability to converse using skeletal sentences or large chunks of sentences. (Novice High-Intermediate Mid Levels).

Goals  At the end of the second year, students will near or reach the Intermediate High level in listening, speaking and reading, and at the Mid level in writing. They will be able to get into, through and out of simple survival situations with some facility. They will speak consistently in sentences, and will be able to provide some detail in their statements, reaching towards narration and description. They will be able to begin
linking some sentences together. In reading, they will be able to make out more detail in a wider range of texts linked to survival situations: directions, complimenting, negotiating, instructions, etc. Writing is primarily focused on notes, post-cards, brief letters, journals, simple comments.

**Instructional outline**  The topic areas treated in Level One will be revisited in greater detail. Students will be encouraged to go beyond the extent of the competence they exhibited in level one, by using fuller, longer constructions and wider range of vocabulary, and with more accuracy (in pronunciation and structure) than previously. More situations, still primarily linked to survival and daily living, will be added. Much comparative discussions, use and demonstrations of practical culture are integrated in the lessons. Classroom activities will provide sustained and extensive opportunity to develop narration and description skills. Reading texts will include a great deal of material not currently available in textbooks, and drawn from current authentic sources (broadcast and print materials and announcements; messages written by native speakers, etc.).

**Level Three:**

**Profile of incoming students**  Comfortable in survival situations; beginning ability to reach beyond the immediacy of the situation to attempt narration and description given topics that are concrete and of general interest. (Intermediate Mid-Intermediate High levels).

**Goals**  After the third year of training, students will near or attain the Advanced level in listening, speaking, and reading, and Intermediate High in writing. Narration and description of concrete topic areas will feature linked elaborated sentences and extended discourse, including narration in past, present, and future modes. In reading, students will be able to understand the main ideas plus many (but not all) supporting details in a wide range of simple expository texts, including newspaper articles on current events, television and radio news and documentary segments, segments of films and popular fiction featuring narration and description, expository memos and letters, etc. Writing will focus on linked prose on survival issues, and will be extended to include simple expository prose on concrete topics.
Instructional outline  Extensive use of brainstorming to establish threshold level abilities, linking skills (listening to broadcast segments both to train in listening comprehension and as a prereading activity, using subsequent reading to instigate speech activities, then writing summaries about oral discussions, then using revised drafts of students writing as classroom texts for reading, etc.), and using paired or group work techniques to develop skills in narration and description will provide students extensive and sustained training in understanding and expressing personal meaning in extended discourse. Text materials will include both a sampling of appropriate teacher-prepared texts, and a wide range of excerpts from print and broadcast media and personal and business correspondence.

Level Four:
Profile of incoming students  Students are marginally successful in discoursing concrete topics using language that give listeners a good understanding of issues along with attendant details, and that is readily comprehensible to most native speakers. (Intermediate High-Advanced).

Goals  By the end of the fourth year, students will reach Advanced High in listening, speaking, and reading. They will be comfortable in extended discourse on the concrete level, and will gain a tentative ability to handle abstract or professional, specialized topics, and to defend opinions. Reading will expand to specialized texts in professional topics. Students will be able to understand the main idea and many supporting details of such texts. In writing, students will reach the Advanced level; they will be able to write extended prose on concrete topics. Although they will continue to make mistakes, these will not interfere with comprehension.

Instructional outline  The year will begin with a wide range of material of interest to the general listener/viewer/reader, which will be differentiated from the third level material by increasing abstract or specialized/professional content. Documentaries, selected excerpts from news broadcasts, videos of specialized lecture-series and segments of current films will be included. The reading/viewing material will constitute entry points for speaking activities based on pair/group work or debate formats, with students taking turns writing minutes or summaries in Filipino. Drafts of all student writing will be
critiqued by peers and by instructors, and rewritten, at least at once before dissemination to classmates. Later in the year, the instructor will collaborate with Philippine specialists (if available) in other disciplines (art, history, geography, political science, literature, etc.) to elect segments from their texts in fields (whether a reading, video segment, language lecture, etc.) to incorporate into the language instruction. These specialists will also come to the language class at least once to lead a discussion (in Filipino) on the content of the segment the students have worked with.

## Suggested Goals, Content and Functions for Each Level (Tagalog 101-402)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level</th>
<th>Goal</th>
<th>Contents</th>
<th>Speaking</th>
<th>Reading</th>
<th>Writing</th>
<th>Listening</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>101'</td>
<td>Nm-Nh</td>
<td>Basic topics such as -classroom objects -colors -numbers -clothing -telling time -dates (mo/day/current year) -weather/seasons -family members -self-identification (nationality &amp; profession) -courtesy expressions (please, thank you etc.) -money denominations</td>
<td>-use limited to memorized material in simple statement or question form -name/identify objects, people, places -give name, place of origin -simple personal information -express membership in organization, family, institution -express minimal courtesy -express agreement/disagreement</td>
<td>-read for directional purposes standardized messages such as menu, items, prices, time/date/labels/geographical information/forms (travel)/registration -pick up main ideas and keywords in familiar materials</td>
<td>-reproduce from memory some familiar words or phrases and recombinations of these -supply information on simple forms and documents</td>
<td>-interactive listening skills necessary for the speaking functions plus the following: -identify some high-frequency words and phrases in broadcast/recorded materials</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level</td>
<td>Goal</td>
<td>Contents</td>
<td>SPEAKING Functions:</td>
<td>READING Functions:</td>
<td>WRITING Functions:</td>
<td>LISTENING Functions:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------</td>
<td>------</td>
<td>----------</td>
<td>---------------------</td>
<td>-------------------</td>
<td>-------------------</td>
<td>----------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>102</td>
<td>Nh-Il</td>
<td>Survival topics such as personal/biographical information - restaurant/foods directions around town - activities/hobbies - daily routine - transportation, lodging/living quarters - health matters - post office - shopping</td>
<td>- express own meaning using recombinations of known material in simple sentences - participate in short conversations - ask and answer questions - get into, through, and out of simple survival situations - talk on phone - transfer current learned material to new situations/contexts</td>
<td>- puzzle out pieces of selected authentic materials relating to survival needs - puzzle out very simple messages by native writers - identify the main idea of broadcast materials in areas of immediate need, including advertising, public announcements, warning, instructions, weather and news reports, telephone messages</td>
<td>- write short messages, postcards - take down simple notes such as telephone messages</td>
<td>- identify the main idea of broadcast materials in areas of immediate need, including advertising, public announcements, warning, instructions, weather and news reports, telephone messages</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level</td>
<td>Goal</td>
<td>Contents</td>
<td>SPEAKING Functions:</td>
<td>READING Functions:</td>
<td>WRITING Functions:</td>
<td>LISTENING Functions:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------</td>
<td>------</td>
<td>----------</td>
<td>---------------------</td>
<td>-------------------</td>
<td>-------------------</td>
<td>---------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>201</td>
<td>Il-Im</td>
<td>courtesy requirements - greetings/ introductions - making appointments accepting/ refusing invitations - polite, formulaic expressions</td>
<td>- produce strings of longer sentences relating to one topic - participate fully in casual conversations, - give instructions, simple reports - make simple comparisons</td>
<td>- identify key facts &amp; some details in descriptive materials on daily life &amp; news events - identify key facts and some details in carefully written personal communications - discern linkages among sentences in simple connected texts</td>
<td>- take notes in some detail - write simple letters; brief synopses, summaries of biographical data, - work &amp; school experience</td>
<td>- identify key facts and some details of broadcast/ recordings in descriptive material on daily life &amp; news events</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>202</td>
<td>Im-Ih</td>
<td>*concrete topics such as - current events, - past experiences - future plans</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level</td>
<td>Goal</td>
<td>Contents</td>
<td>SPEAKING</td>
<td>READING</td>
<td>WRITING</td>
<td>LISTENING</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------</td>
<td>------</td>
<td>----------</td>
<td>----------</td>
<td>---------</td>
<td>---------</td>
<td>-----------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>301</td>
<td>Ih-A</td>
<td>concrete and factual topics of personal &amp; general interest, such as work, community events, news items</td>
<td>-give simple narration &amp; description in past, present, and future</td>
<td>-understand main ideas &amp; most supporting details of factual narrations &amp; descriptions in non-technical prose, such as in announcements, instructions/directions, newspaper/magazine articles</td>
<td>-write social and basic formal correspondence</td>
<td>-understand majority of face-to-face speech in standard dialect at normal rate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>-make comparisons of a general nature</td>
<td>-instructions/directions</td>
<td>-write summaries, descriptions, narrations of several paragraphs</td>
<td>-get main ideas and most supporting details of reports on factual material and in non-technical prose, such as broadcast news, instructions/directions, popular movies and television shows</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>-deal with social and transactional situations with complications</td>
<td>-detailed correspondence</td>
<td>-describe in detail with precision</td>
<td>-popular movies and television shows</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>-factual reports</td>
<td>-narrate in detail with precision</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level</td>
<td>Goal</td>
<td>Contents</td>
<td>SPEAKING Functions:</td>
<td>READING Functions:</td>
<td>WRITING Functions:</td>
<td>LISTENING Functions:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------</td>
<td>------</td>
<td>----------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>---------------------</td>
<td>--------------------</td>
<td>-------------------</td>
<td>----------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>302'</td>
<td>Ih-A</td>
<td>Factual and abstract issues in areas of interest such as the following:</td>
<td>same as in 301</td>
<td>same as in 301</td>
<td>same as in 301</td>
<td>same as in 301</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>-politics and political systems</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>-economics</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>-history</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>401'</td>
<td>A-Ah</td>
<td>-customs and more</td>
<td>-describe in detail with precision</td>
<td>-understand most material on both concrete and abstract topics for a general readership</td>
<td>hypothesis &amp; conjecture in writing</td>
<td>-understand main themes and most details in television shows, movies for a general audience, news reports, lectures, etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>-press and the media</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>-philosophical and religious systems</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>-literature &amp; literary texts</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>402'</td>
<td>A-Ah</td>
<td>-arts</td>
<td>-hypothesis</td>
<td>same as in 401</td>
<td>same as in 401</td>
<td>same as in 401</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>-science and technology</td>
<td>-support opinions</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>-medicine &amp; health</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>-law and enforcement</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Legend: N=Novice; Nm= Novice Mid; Nh= Novice High; I= Intermediate
Il=Intermediate Low; Ih= Intermediate High

' Students expand their ability to perform all the functions introduced at every level plus the functions previously developed
ASSESSING STUDENT PERFORMANCE

A well-designed program will measure differences in student performance at entry to and exit from each component course against program goals defined for that level. Some program designers advocate the use of an identical, or very similar, set of items drawn from a "bank," measuring the same communicative competencies, for testing at the beginning and end of the semester as an objective measure of student learning. The language coordinator(s) will work with the faculty or groups of faculty from different programs will work together to design such a bank of task-based test items reflecting level goals in all four skill areas, to be administered in all language courses, perhaps as part or all of a final exam.

Test results from this testing program can be used in several ways. Firstly, test scores can serve as indicators of how well the program is meeting its goals. If the goals are not being met, they may be reassessed. Secondly, they offer an overall picture of student performance semester to semester, suggesting areas in the curriculum that might be redesigned to receive more or less focus. Finally, the test items serve as a concrete representation of the abstract goals defined for each level, and thus provide a point of focus for teachers attempting to concretize the goals in their own classrooms.

SUGGESTIONS ON TEACHING FILIPINO

To respond to the teachers' need for more materials and the students' need for self-managed materials, offering modules to supplement the existing curriculum might be a more feasible route at present. With modularization of the language curriculum, according to Brecht and Walton (2000:118) "students can choose a curricular configuration that fits their individual needs." Customization addresses variation in learner needs, in learner backgrounds, and in highly specialized needs.

Types of Modules to Meet Variation in Learner Needs

1. Remediation: to help students catch up when they experience difficulty.
Example of modules:
- verbal aspect grammar
- focus OR reading
- linker listening
- reading writing

2. Acceleration: to enable students with special motivation and/or ability to move ahead without being "held back" by pace of the course.

Example of modules:
- native conversation
- culture for study abroad
- writing

3. Specialization: to allow students to select content modules that reflect their personal interests or specific learning objective.

Example of modules: (in depth, career-based specialization modules)
- Business Tagalog
- Tagalog for Social Workers
- Tagalog for Educators
- Tagalog for Health Providers

Among the less commonly taught languages in America, the Chinese and African languages have developed extensive lists of modules; however, very few modules have been developed by instructors of Southeast Asian languages. We need to train teachers of Filipino professionally first on how to construct these types of materials before we can develop them for our students, keeping in mind their individual needs.

The rest of the Filipino Language Learning Framework consists of common problems met by students in pronunciation (such as aspirated p-, t- and k); initial ng- and rounded final vowel sounds such as o-> ow.) and in grammar (such as focus, aspect and linkers).
Another section is on speech acts that cause cross-cultural conflicts such as complimenting, making requests, introductions, declining, reprimanding, etc. This is followed by gestures and facial expressions such as beckoning with the hand which means "go away" among Americans; raising one's eyebrows to acknowledge another's presence, etc.

Next, twenty texts, grammars, and dictionaries are reviewed and described for the teachers' information.

The framework concludes with a section on Observations and Future Directions.

A Synopsis of Tagalog Grammar for Teachers is provided in the Appendix.

**LINGUISTIC AND CULTURAL NOTES ON LEARNING/TEACHING FILIPINO**

**Sample Tagalog Pronunciation Difficulties**

1. Voiceless stops in Tagalog are not aspirated. Avoid aspiration of initial $p$-, $t$-, and $k$-. Examples: *pula* ‘red,’ *kamay* ‘hand,’ *tayo* ‘we.’ Use the paper check to see if the initial $p$-, $t$-, and $k$- sounds are aspirated.

2. Velar nasal *ng*- does not occur initially in English, thus this is often pronounced as *n*- by students. This will give the English-speaking student some trouble. Examples: *ngayon* ‘now,’ *ngunit* ‘but,’ and *ngipin* ‘tooth.’ Have students pronounce "sing along" as one word; drop "si-" and have them say "ngalong."

3. The glottal stop does not distinguish meaning in English. In Tagalog, the glottal stop (’) distinguishes meaning. Example: *batá* ‘child,’ *bata* ‘robe.’ Mark words having glottal stops to assist the English speaker in pronouncing this sound.

4. English has more vowel sounds than Tagalog. The Tagalog vowels are written as $a$, $e$, $i$, $o$, and $u$ and pronounced as simple vowels sounds. The student is cautioned to imitate the Tagalog sounds carefully since they are quite similar to English sounds, but these
must be pronounced without dipthongization. Notice that dipthongization usually occurs in final vowel sounds. Example: akow instead of ako.

5. Tagalog words are often stressed on the penultimate syllable (second to the last syllable) but unfortunately, not always. Examples: lagári ‘saw,’ kaibígan ‘friend.’ English words on the other hand are often stressed on the first syllable. It's best to memorize the stress with the words so as not to sound foreign and not to fossilize stress errors.

Sample Tagalog Grammatical Difficulties

Sentence Construction

1. The normal order of Tagalog simple sentences is the "Predicate" or "Comment" followed by the "Subject" or "Topic." In English the order is reversed. The fillers of the predicate or comment are verbal or nonverbal in both languages. However, in Tagalog the nonverbal comments include prepositional phrases as well as adverbial words as illustrated in the following.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Comment (Predicate)</th>
<th>Topic (Subject)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Verbal Comments</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tumakbo</td>
<td>ang bata.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘Ran’</td>
<td>‘the child’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Natulog</td>
<td>ang tao.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘Slept’</td>
<td>‘the man’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Nonverbal Comments</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nagluto</td>
<td>ang babae.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘Cooked’</td>
<td>‘the woman’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Adjectival</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maganda</td>
<td>ang bulaklak.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘Beautiful’</td>
<td>‘the flower’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
2. In Tagalog there is no equivalent for the copulative verb ‘to be.’ The meaning of the copula is denoted by the juxtaposition of the nonverbal comment and the topic, as seen in the examples above.

3. Another distinctive feature of Tagalog is the extensive use of linkers (or ligatures) to connect words, phrases and sentences signifying the relationship of the modifier and modified. They occur, for example, between adjective or numeral and noun, verb and adverb, and noun or verb and independent clause. There are two forms of the major linker, -ng and na. The first occurs following words that end with a vowel, and the second follows words that end with a consonant.

Examples follow:

- magandang dalaga: beautiful girl
  (modifier before noun)
- isang bata: one child or a child
- mabuting magtrabaho: works efficiently
- malalim na dagat: deep sea
- dalaga_ nagreyna sa bayan: the girl who became town queen
  (modifier after noun)

4. One of the most important features of Tagalog is called Focus. Focus is the grammatical relation between the verbs in a particular verbal complement marked by ang. This complement is referred to as the Topic of the sentence. The semantic relationship of the Topic to the verb (actor, goal, benefactor, etc.) is indicated by the verbal affix.

Focus may therefore be viewed as referring to voice. In English there are active and passive voices. The active voice indicates that the object or goal of the action is the subject. In Tagalog, voice may be equated
to Focus and the subject to the Topic. Hence, the active voice is the actor focus, with the actor of the action as topic; the passive voice is the goal focus, with the object of the action as the topic. Topic in Tagalog, however, is not limited to the doer or the object of the action, but may also apply to the location, the beneficiary or the instrument of the action.

In teaching focus, it is best to teach a series of markers in the sentence accompanying each affix and what each marker means in terms of what pronoun or phrase can be allowed as a substitute. The following chart illustrates the verbal affix-marker agreement. Unless the students understand what this agreement entails, students will always have marker pronoun problems. This problem sometimes persists up to the advanced level of the language.

"VERBAL AFFIX-MARKER AGREEMENT" FORMULA ILLUSTRATING 5 TYPES OF FOCUS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ACTOR FOCUS</th>
<th>ACTOR (Subject)</th>
<th>OBJECT</th>
<th>LOCATIVE</th>
<th>BENEFICIARY</th>
<th>INSTRUMENT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>MARKERS</td>
<td>ANG</td>
<td>NG</td>
<td>SA</td>
<td>PARA</td>
<td>SA PAMAMAGITAN</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MAG-UM-MA-</td>
<td>Ang + Noun Si + Proper Name Ang Pronouns Ang Demonstratives</td>
<td>Ng + Noun si + PN ng pronoun ng Demonstratives</td>
<td>sa + Noun kay + PN sa Pronoun sa Demonstratives</td>
<td>+sa + Noun +kay + PN +sa pronouns +sa Demonstratives</td>
<td>+ng + Noun + ni + PN + sa pronoun + sa Demonstratives</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ACTOR FOCUS</th>
<th>ACTOR (Subject)</th>
<th>OBJECT</th>
<th>LOCATIVE</th>
<th>BENEFICIARY</th>
<th>INSTRUMENT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>MARKERS</td>
<td>NG</td>
<td>ANG</td>
<td>SA</td>
<td>PARA</td>
<td>SA PAMAMAGITAN</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I- I-AN</td>
<td>Ng phrases and substitutes Ang phrases and substitutes</td>
<td>Sa phrases and substitutes</td>
<td>+ sa phrases and substitutes</td>
<td>+ng phrases an substitutes</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LOCATIVE FOCUS</td>
<td>ACTOR</td>
<td>OBJECT</td>
<td>LOCATIVE (Subject)</td>
<td>BENEFICIARY</td>
<td>INSTRUMENT</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------------</td>
<td>-------</td>
<td>--------</td>
<td>--------------------</td>
<td>-------------</td>
<td>------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MARKERS</td>
<td>NG</td>
<td>NG</td>
<td>ANG</td>
<td>PARA</td>
<td>SA PAMAMAGITAN</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-AN PAG-AN</td>
<td>Ng phrases and substitutes</td>
<td>Ng phrases and substitutes</td>
<td>Ang phrases and substitutes</td>
<td>+ sa phrases and substitutes</td>
<td>+ ng phrases and substitutes</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>BENEFACTIVE FOCUS</th>
<th>ACTOR</th>
<th>OBJECT</th>
<th>LOCATIVE (Subject)</th>
<th>BENEFICIARY</th>
<th>INSTRUMENT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>MARKERS</td>
<td>NG</td>
<td>NG</td>
<td>SA</td>
<td>PARA</td>
<td>SA PAMAMAGITAN</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I- (source um verbs)</td>
<td>Ng phrases and substitutes</td>
<td>Ng phrases and substitutes</td>
<td>Sa phrases and substitutes</td>
<td>+ sa phrases and substitutes</td>
<td>+ ng phrases and substitutes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IPAG- (source mag verbs)</td>
<td>Ng phrases and substitutes</td>
<td>Ng phrases and substitutes</td>
<td>Sa phrases and substitutes</td>
<td>+ sa phrases and substitutes</td>
<td>+ ng phrases and substitutes</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>INSTRUMENTAL FOCUS</th>
<th>ACTOR</th>
<th>OBJECT</th>
<th>LOCATIVE (Subject)</th>
<th>BENEFICIARY</th>
<th>INSTRUMENT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>MARKERS</td>
<td>NG</td>
<td>NG</td>
<td>SA</td>
<td>PARA</td>
<td>SA PAMAMAGITAN</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IPANG</td>
<td>Ng phrases and substitutes</td>
<td>Ng phrases and substitutes</td>
<td>Sa phrases and substitutes</td>
<td>+ sa phrases and substitutes</td>
<td>+ ng phrases and substitutes</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Examples: Actor, Goal, Locative, Benefactive, and Instrumental Type Focuses

(a) The **actor as subject**, who does or originates the action.

Aspect
- Completed:
  - UM- verb: Bumili
  - [Actor]: ang bata
  - Object: ng saging
- Incompleted:
  - UM- verb: Bumibili
  - [Actor]: si Nena.
  - Object: nito
- Contemplated:
  - UM- verb: Bibili
  - [Actor]: ako
  - Object: ito
(b) The **object as subject**, which is the goal of the action.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Aspect</th>
<th>-IN verb</th>
<th>Actor</th>
<th>[Object]</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Completed:</td>
<td>Binili</td>
<td>ng bata</td>
<td>ang saging</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Incompleted:</td>
<td>Binibili</td>
<td>ni Nena</td>
<td>ito</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contemplated:</td>
<td>Bibilhin</td>
<td>ko</td>
<td>ito</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(c) The **location as subject**, which is the place of the action.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Aspect</th>
<th>-AN verb</th>
<th>Actor</th>
<th>[Location]</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Completed:</td>
<td>Binilhan</td>
<td>ng bata</td>
<td>ang tindahan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Incompleted:</td>
<td>Binibilhan</td>
<td>ni Nena</td>
<td>ang dyanitor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contemplated:</td>
<td>Bibilhan</td>
<td>ko</td>
<td>si Maria</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(d) The **benefactor as subject**, who or which is the beneficiary of the action.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Aspect</th>
<th>I-verb</th>
<th>Actor</th>
<th>Object</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Completed:</td>
<td>Ibinili</td>
<td>ng bata</td>
<td>ng saging</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Incompleted: Ibinibili ni Nena nito
Contemplated: Ibibili ko nito

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Location</th>
<th>[Beneficiary]</th>
<th>Instrument</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>sa tindahan</td>
<td>ang guro si Pedro</td>
<td>sa pamamagitan ng pera niya</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sa dyanitor</td>
<td>sila</td>
<td>sa pamamagitan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kay Maria</td>
<td>ito</td>
<td>nito</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sa kaniya</td>
<td>dito</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(e) The **instrument as subject**, which is the tool or means used to bring about the action

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Aspect</th>
<th>I pang -verb</th>
<th>Actor</th>
<th>Object</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Completed:</td>
<td>Ipinambili</td>
<td>ng bata</td>
<td>ng saging nito</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Incompleted:</td>
<td>Ipinambibili</td>
<td>ni Nena ko</td>
<td>nito</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contemplated:</td>
<td>Ipambibili</td>
<td>ko</td>
<td>nito</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>[Instrument]</th>
<th>Beneficiary</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ang pera niya</td>
<td>para sa guro</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ito</td>
<td>para kay Pablo</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Gloss for above Tagalog sentences.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>Object</th>
<th>Location</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The child</td>
<td>bought</td>
<td>bananas</td>
<td>from the store</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nena</td>
<td>is buying</td>
<td>these (ones)</td>
<td>from the janitor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>will buy</td>
<td></td>
<td>from Maria</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>This one</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>from her/him</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Instrument</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>for the teacher</td>
<td>by means of his/her money</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>for Pablo</td>
<td>this (one)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>for them</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>for that (place)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Verbal Communication

Learning communicative competence in a Filipino language means learning not only grammar, lexicon and syntax, but the unwritten rules understood by every Filipino. If we extrapolate from the child's acquisition of communicative competence to what foreign students must learn, it is clear that, in addition to acquiring new vocabulary, and a new set of phonological and syntactic rules a student must also learn the rules of sociolinguistic behavior. These include, for example, learning when it is appropriate to speak and with whom; what topics are appropriate to which speech events; the gestures which accompany speech; how close to stand to other participants and whether or not it is appropriate to touch; when it is considered proper to be truthful and when to tell a white lie; and which forms of address to use to whom in which situation. Since how people speak is part of what people say, the student who is ignorant of the "rules of speaking" is often in the situation of being unable to interpret the meaning of a sentence or expression even though he has learned the grammatical structure in the vocabulary. Some of these patterns of communication are as follows.

1. Honorifics. Certain forms of address are used to show respect or deference. This is done by 1) using po or ho (because of its absence in English, Filipinos use "sir" or "ma'am" when it occurs in the sentence. This is sometimes interpreted by the Americans as being "subservient"). and the second person plural pronoun of address such as kayo and the third person plural sila. 2) using formal titles indicating position or occupation (Dr., Atty., Director, Engineer), or the everyday informal forms (Manang, Manong, Ate, Kuya, Lolo, Lola, Mama, Ale).

2. First Names. You never call your teacher, parents, people older than you are, or those more important than you are by their first names.

3. Greetings. The most common form of greeting is asking "Where are you going?" or "Where have you been?". Obvious answers to questions might be asked, too, such as "Oh, are you going to the market?" (She's bringing a shopping basket); "Are you alone?" (obviously since no one
is with her); or "Are you going to school?" (She's carrying a school bag). Another common form of greeting would be to compliment one on his/her appearance, instead of "you" which is more direct or "How heavy our load is today" commenting on a new dress or a pair of shoes, hairdo etc. One may also comment on something he observes, such as "We seem to be in a hurry this morning" (the other person seems to be having difficulty carrying something). In the last example, one might even offer to carry a part of the load. Small talk such as this is usual. Not greeting someone you know is considered rude and snobbish.

4. **Introductions**. An intermediary does the introduction, sometimes without actually giving individual names. Positions or titles are considered more important, and sometimes one's relationship to someone important or generally known is given.

5. **Initiating conversations**. While Americans may talk about impersonal things such as the weather or conditions in a certain place, Filipinos will ask personal questions such as "Are you married?"; "How many children do you have?"; "What does your husband do?". The Filipino is trying to communicate that he/she is interested to know the American better. There is a tendency to trace one's roots with a co-patriot, one's family in regional background. There is always a search for a tie-in with a relative of "A" whom "B" might know. It seems an individual is important not so much for himself as for his family ties.

6. **Complimenting**. Filipinos like to give and receive compliments but they do not acknowledge a compliment with "thank you", instead what is complimented is downgraded. *Luma nga itong damit ko.* (It's really an old dress). The compliment is returned *Ikaw nga ang maganda ang damit.* (It's you who has a lovely dress,) or the compliment is jokingly questioned *Ang damit lang ba ang maganda?* (Is it only the dress that is pretty?) to which one hastily replies, *Lalong gumaganda ang damit dahil sa nagsusuot.* (The dress becomes prettier because of the wearer). Such an exchange is referred to as *mga bulaklak ng dila* (flowers of the tongue) and people adept in the language enjoy these verbal exchanges.

It is not uncommon for someone to offer what is complimented as a gift to the complimentator. One has to decline the gift firmly but politely, unless the giver insists very strongly that it be accepted. It seems that
the highest compliment (and a great source of satisfaction) is for someone to have something that can be offered to another as a gift.

7. Invitations. An invitation by mouth has to be given at least three times before it is accepted. An excuse is always offered the first time. Sensitivity to the other's feelings is also needed. An invitation may be given out of courtesy; if the person accepts, it's all right, but normally, the one invited gives excuses first, and then later on agrees with hesitation.

8. Requests. Requests are never direct and often one may use an intermediary. The listener who senses right away a request in the offing should make it easier by saying "How can I help you?" Requests can be preceded by a lengthy conversation and can be introduced by an "Oh, by the way...". When the Filipino is sure of a favorable reception, he is ready to ask. Then the subject is abruptly changed. Length of the prerequest will depend on the gravity of the favor asked. In contrast, the postrequest conversation terminates immediately. But the favor is not forgotten. When the opportunity occurs to reciprocate, the debt is paid.

9. Refusals. Rather than be frank and hurt other people's feelings, the Filipino won't say "no" emphatically, unless he is very close to the other person. The closer the ties, the easier it is to say "no" in Philippine culture. In fact, he may more often say "yes" and not mean it rather than hurt the other (one of the many examples of a white lie). He can say "no" by giving excuses, citing previous commitments and delaying the answer with "I'll try", "I'll see", "I'll call you later." Silence means "maybe" or a forced "yes." One of the important tasks that confronts the foreign language learner is how to tell when someone of another culture is saying "no." Equally important one needs to acquire the appropriate manner in which to respond in the negative when offered, solicited, or asked something.

10. Clearing up misunderstandings. Direct confrontation is avoided at all costs. An intermediary is often a respected and close friend or relative of two people in a conflict situation. The intermediary plays the role of a sympathetic listener, letting the aggrieved person or persons let off steam and then helps him or her to cool off by minimizing the slight and asking that it be forgotten. Later the go-between goes to the other party, explains the seeming affront, and works hard to effect
reconciliation between the two parties. This tendency to refuse to straighten things or bring things to a head without the help of an intermediary is due to the desire to avoid the unpleasantness. Usually, an aggrieved party responds with *wala* ‘nothing’ if asked if anything is wrong. This is a cue to probe deeper to find out the real reason for the hurt. Not doing anything could aggravate the rift between two people.

11. **Reprimands.** In general, situations involving reprimands are unpleasant for both parties. If they cannot be avoided, one goes about reprimanding another indirectly and tactfully. Usually, it is justified by laying the blame on a higher authority or an external factor. In general, the lower the status of the person being reprimanded, the more tactfully the reprimand is given. One is careful not to "pull rank" and to hurt the feelings of a social inferior.

It is important not to prolong the unpleasantness caused by a reprimand. After a reprimand, one tries to restore the previous friendly relationship by such devices as:

a. giving excuses for why the reprimand had to be made.
b. changing the subject.
c. asking about the person's family.
d. indicating in some other way that the unpleasant situation is over and should be forgotten.

12. **Divine Intervention.** Deeply ingrained resignation to divine, or supernatural powers is expressed by words or phrases like, *bahala na* ‘come what may’; *suwerte* ‘luck’; or *sa awa ng Diyos* ‘with God's help.’

**Nonverbal Communication**

There are many examples that may be cited on how Filipinos use gestures, facial expressions, proximity, silence and body language to communicate with one another.

Friends of the same sex may touch each other in public, e.g. putting one's arms around the other's shoulders, patting the thighs, holding hands while walking, placing a hand on the other's shoulder while
explaining something to him, standing shoulder to shoulder while watching something, etc. This is not done with a person of another sex, although these days you see more men and women having personal contact in public especially in the cities.

Children kiss the hand or the forehead of the parents, elder relatives, siblings, and godparents. They are taught to get scarce when visitors come to the house, eat separately during meals while the visitors are there, and never walk between two persons having a conversation.

Women sit together with other women while men sit with men during a party. Unmarried women tend to be uncomfortable with other married women friends because they often exchange off-color jokes and stories that are considered too coarse for her ears.

Silence can mean "yes"; silence plus a frown means an unwilling, forced "yes". A person may not speak to a specific person or to anybody at all if she's hurting inside or has a grudge to bear. Women may remain "not on speaking terms" with each other for years.

Other common nonverbal communication cues are as follows.

a. **Raising of eyebrows**: This indicates a greeting or an act of recognition.

b. **Pointing with lips**: Filipinos sometimes point to objects or directions with puckered lips.

c. **Counting the fingers**: When Filipinos use their fingers to count, they generally raise their little finger first and the thumb last.

d. **Walking though a group**: In walking through a group, a Filipino will often "part the waves" by putting one hand out in a kind of diving or crouching position.

e. **Eating**: Filipinos often use a spoon much the same way Americans use the fork. Rural folks often eat with their hands. Before a meal they sometimes wipe the plate and silverware with a table napkin especially in restaurants. Sometimes after a meal, a toothpick being
used by one hand is covered by the other. Water is always served and almost always after the meal. Having already "drunk water" is a valid and acceptable excuse for not accepting a second helping of food.

f. **Hailing people**: A Filipino will not signal another to join him with the index finger. The fingers are cupped and move in a scooping gesture. Buses and taxis are stopped in like manner (except that the arm is not raised over the head).

g. **"Move Farther" motion**: The hand motion used by an American catcher to tell outfielders to play farther out means the opposite in the Philippines.

h. **Laughter**: Filipinos often express nervousness or sympathy by laughing mirthlessly.

i. **Standing in Line**: Filipinos rarely form lines voluntarily at such public places as a post office, ticket counter, or bus stop. But this is quickly changing.

j. **Ts-ts**: One way of signaling for attention is by using the sibilant "ts-ts". This sound can be used to indicate "Stop!" to a bus or jeepney driver or to call people in crowds.

k. **Looking one in the eye**: Looking at people right in the eyes implies straightforwardness to an American, but to a Filipino it might appear one is staring rudely at another.

l. **Opening of gifts**: Filipinos do not open gifts in the presence of the giver to avoid unnecessary loss of face of the giver.

m. **Rain covers**: When it rains, the Filipino will cover his head with whatever he has available, even with his hands.

n. **Cluck-cluck**: The tapping of the upper palate with the tongue signifies an admonition to an American. To a Filipino, it signifies pity or sympathy.
Handshake: An American handshake is firm whereas that of a Filipino is limp.

Unfortunately, descriptions of rules of speaking in Tagalog are still rare and incomplete. One study is Bautista’s *Patterns of Speaking in Pilipino Radio Dramas: A Sociolinguistic Analysis* (1979). The best source of information in Filipino language and culture is Lynch and Holnsteiner’s course book on Philippine culture, *Understanding the Philippines* (1966). The book, *Intermediate Tagalog* (Ramos and Goulet, 1981) used some of the cultural patterns of speaking from this book and isolated others using personal observations, interviews, and native speakers’ intuition as Tagalog-English bilinguals. Lessons were constructed around the cultural patterns of speaking. In this language book, the social rules of the language are taught with the linguistic rules so that communicative competence can be attained by the language learner.

**REVIEW OF TAGALOG TEXTS AND VIDEOS**

A list of twenty books meant for foreigners learning Tagalog/Filipino which are used as basic or supplementary texts if they are available are described or reviewed (if these existed in print) below. The reviews were mostly from the “Materials Status Report: Tagalog” by the Center for Applied Linguistics (1985) and some came from the 1987 Language Program Report on the Southeast Asian Summer Studies Institute at Northern Illinois University. Among the twenty books, six are beginning texts; four intermediate and advanced texts; three grammars, and seven dictionaries. Three video sets are also described.

**Elementary Texts**

Of the six beginning Tagalog textbooks in existence, three are out of print.

Elmer Wolfenden and Rufino Alejandro wrote *Intensive Tagalog Conversation Course* (1966) which is out of print. The 1985 Center for Applied Linguistics (CAL) review of the book is as follows:

*May be used as supplementary materials. For language*
learners who are good in mimicry and memorization, this book will be helpful for them. One word phrase, short dialogues could be easy to remember.

In 1965, with J. Donald Bowen as editor, *Beginning Tagalog: A Course for Speakers of English* was published by the University of California Press. It is now out of print. A review by the Center for Applied Linguistics (1985) stated that

It is very good material for teaching Tagalog. Learners must use this with their instructor. Not recommended for self-study materials because students will find it difficult to understand and follow the grammatical terminology used by the author unless the learner has a linguistic background. From experience, the evaluator was informed by other Tagalog instructors that they had difficulty in understanding the grammar presentation. It has good dialogues, various types of drills, pictures as visual aids and also cultural notes in each unit. It would be helpful if the author would revise and update the book.

Stimulated by their Peace Corps experience, Teresita Ramos and Videa de Guzman wrote *Tagalog for Beginners* (1971). It is now out of print. CAL's review stated that it is

Excellent material for beginners. This book which has different types of audio-lingual drills and whose format is based on Earl Stevick’s microwave approach is now out of print. It can be excellent for self-instructional use.

Ramos replaced this book with *Conversational Tagalog*. (1984) Tapes are available at the University of Hawaii Language Lab. One review states that it is “an excellent guide and provides a good building block approach for beginning students in Tagalog." (SEASSI/NIU, 1987). This book is used by most programs in America. Ramos notes that he book needs supplementary materials, especially in developing listening and reading skills.

Of the book, *Basic Tagalog for Foreigners and Non-Tagalog* by
Paraluman Aspillera (1984), a review by the Center for Applied Linguistics (1985) states that

It may be used as a supplement, but not as the main teaching material. Some of the structures used in the drills are patterns that are used in written style. If learners are more interested in spoken style, it’s not much help.

John U. Wolff with Theresa Centeno and Der-Hwa V. Rau wrote a four volume textbook entitled *Pilipino through Self-Instruction* (Cornell SEA Program, 1991). The first volume of the book deals with the beginning level of Tagalog. Characteristic of the volumes are numerous substitution drill exercises reminiscent of those used in the 1960's.

**Intermediate and Advanced Texts**

There are four major Tagalog textbooks in existence that deal with intermediate and advanced levels of Tagalog for speakers of English.

One is out of print.

This one is the reader edited by J. Donald Bowen called *Intermediate Readings in Tagalog* (1968). The book was a team effort. It was designed to provide materials for the student of Tagalog who wishes to continue his student beyond the basic course provided in *Beginning Tagalog: A Course for Speakers of English* (1965). This book is still useful. However most of the articles are too difficult for immediate level students. The stories and essays in this book are better for advanced level classes. The CAL review is as follows:

1. An excellent material for reading comprehension, starting from the basic to advanced level. (2) The first part is in a dialogue and in spoken style, applying the basic structures introduced in the other accompanying book. (3) Each dialogue uses a lot of phrases in a given situation; reflecting different cultural aspects. (4) Characters are typical people of the said country showing their behavior, interaction, way of thinking and other factors a language learner would like to know about the native speaker of Tagalog. (5) The rest of the
articles are in written forms that require the knowledge of a heavy range of vocabulary in order to comprehend the meaning. (6) At the back of the book, there is a glossary that the reader might use as dictionary.

The second book is *Intermediate Tagalog: Developing Cultural Awareness through Language* by Teresita V. Ramos and Rosalina Goulet (1981). The novel approach followed in this textbook is its emphasis on teaching Philippine culture. The book is designed for students who have completed a year's course in beginning Tagalog. Dialogs highlight specific cultural features or norms. Exercises following the dialogs go beyond simple drills and concentrate on developing communicative competence on developing communicative competence through dialog improvisations, role plays, and problem-solving situations. Part III consists of reading selections that reinforce the cultural content of the dialogs. The text as a whole explores value concepts while developing linguistic and sociolinguistic skills. The CAL review states that

Each dialogue shows a real life situation, using common phrases, idioms and sayings. It presents a great deal of information dealing with social subtleties. It's very rich in cultural aspects, and since the language and culture are so closely intertwined, learners will become familiar with what natives talk about, their fears, ambitions, hopes and feelings. This book helps the learner understand the way of thinking of the Filipinos, understand their behavior, and ways of communicating.

The third one is the four-volume textbook written by John Wolff with Theresa Centeno and Der-Hwa V. Rau. The book goes from the beginning to advanced levels, and is entitled *Pilipino through Self-Instruction*. (1991) Each unit consists of dialog practice, reading, and a grammar section, and numerous substitution drill exercises.

Compared to other Southeast Asian languages, Filipino seems to have adequate intermediate texts. On the advanced levels, as mentioned earlier, parts of the Bowen's text on *Intermediate Readings* and parts of Wolff's self-instruction book can be used.
In 1983-84, Ramos received a grant from the International Research and Studies Program (Title VI) to work on an advanced Tagalog reader. The product was an “Advanced Tagalog Reader” designed for adults who are interested in strengthening their reading skills for academic or career purposes. It presents 30 lessons of mostly authentic reading materials representative of subject matter like anthropology, ethnomusicology, art, history, literature and other related disciplines. It was meant for students who have gone beyond the immediate stage of language learning. Each chapter begins with a reading passage on a specific topic such as agriculture followed by a glossary of new terms, discussion questions, and creative activities. The University of Hawaii uses the reader in the advanced level courses, particularly the third level.

While it seems there are adequate texts for intermediate and advanced levels, the materials need to be updated and culturally enriched.

Video Materials for Intermediate and Advanced Levels

Ramos produced a series of video lessons in 1991. The first set of videos is called *Pakinggan at Unawain* (Listen and Understand). It is a 42-episode, color video tape series designed to aid the intermediate level student in comprehension and in mastering various Tagalog structures and functions. Each two-to-five-minute episode allows students not only to hear semi-authentic spoken Tagalog but also to see commonplace settings that present a wealth of "how to's" and cultural information featuring real people in their authentic settings. The second set *Pag-unawa sa Kulturang Pilipino* (Understanding Philippine Culture) consists of 18 documentaries, five to 40 minutes each in length, on the contemporary culture of the Philippines. The materials represent the native speaker's world view, values, and customs. As a whole, the video films can give a composite picture of Filipino thought and behavior. This project was funded by the National Security Agency.

In 1997, Ruth Mabanglo and David Hiple, published *Authentic Tagalog* through the Hawaii National Foreign Language Resource Center. This work used authentic television clips as the basis for the development of listening skills. This also served as springboard to grammatical, reading, and writing activities. A teacher's handbook accompanies the video clips.
Available Tagalog Grammars

On reference grammars, the best and the only reference grammar on Tagalog was written by Schachter and Otanes in 1972 and published by the University of California Press. Unfortunately it is out of print. The CAL review states that

It is very good material for linguists and materials developers. Advanced students who would like to analyze Tagalog structures may use this too as reference. A beginner might find it confusing to follow especially if his/her purpose is to speak the language.

Ramos wrote two pedagogical grammars (grammars designed for teachers and students of Tagalog-not linguists). The first grammar written by T. Ramos was *Tagalog Structures* (1971). This was followed by *Modern Tagalog* with Resty Ceña (1990). The second grammar book is similar in some parts to the first one, but the new features of the second book include practice exercises on points that range from phonology to syntax. Explanations are kept to a minimum. CAL's review of the first book is as follows:

For Tagalog native speakers who are teaching Tagalog as a second language, this book is a good guide for him or her to explain further the question "why" of adult Tagalog learners. Good guide for Tagalog students who are capable of learning through analysis.

Available Dictionaries

On dictionaries, there are several comprehensive ones in the market. Among them are


All three dictionaries are comparable to dictionaries published in the Western world. One dictionary, Diksyunaryo ng Wikang Pilipino by the Instructional Materials Corporation of the Department of Education, Culture, and Sports of the Philippines, 1989, is a monolingual dictionary (i.e. entries and definitions are in Tagalog).

Ramos has authored three types of dictionaries, a picture book with J. Clausen called Filipino Word Book (1993), a Tagalog Dictionary (1971), which is a Tagalog to English dictionary, and a Handbook of Tagalog Verbs: Inflections, Modes and Aspects (1986) with Maria Lourdes Bautista. The last one gives a description of 200 verbs showing all the necessary forms indicating aspect and focus.

The following section provides full references for the texts and videos reviewed in this section.

**SELECTED TAGALOG TEXTS AND VIDEO LESSONS**

A. **Beginning Tagalog Texts (6)**


### B. Intermediate and Advanced Texts (4)


Ramos, Teresita. "Advanced Tagalog Reader." Manuscript. Funded by Title VI, 1984. (Available at the University of Hawaii Bookstore)


### C. Grammars (3)


D. Video Lessons (3)


E. Dictionaries (7)


7. Specialized Tagalog (4)


Observations and Future Directions

Observations

So far this is what we have observed among the Filipino teachers and the universities they teach in:

• We saw the collaboration of organizations where there was none before and its effects on individual organizations such as the Consortium for Advancement of Filipino (CAF) and the Council of Teachers of Southeast Asian Languages (COTSEAL).
• We saw how funding impacts the initiation of and competition among projects.
• We saw attempts at integrating instruction with technology.
• But, we still see grammar-based instruction and misuse of the communicative approach.
• We still have to see performance linked to instructional approaches that reflect curriculum goals.
• (With some exceptions), we still have to see the fields respond to the needs of the heritage students.
• We still have to see the articulation of levels from K-16+.
• We still have to see a move from a textbook and grammar-driven curriculum to one organized around the standards and based on performance and proficiency.
Most of what we have observed has something to do with professional development and curriculum design. What follows is our wish list for Southeast Asian languages since this is what we know most about. We’re sure other organizations have the same or similar problems.

Our teachers need professional development very badly. Most of them have temporary positions as lecturers, and most of them have degrees in disciplines distant from and other than teaching a second language.

Even so, most universities do not train their teachers in how to teach and/or in how to develop curriculum materials. It is a vicious circle. Southeast Asian language programs are not introduced because administrators say there are no qualified teachers, yet there is no degree offered in the teaching of any of the Southeast Asian languages unlike that offered for our East Asian languages.

Similar to the other area-specific language centers (National Foreign Language Resource Centers), we need a Center of Institute that will train and certify our Southeast Asian language teachers professionally. This Center can offer short and long-term teacher training sessions. We need experts who can run institutes on how to teach content-based courses and advanced-level courses, develop computer-assisted materials, and teach new trends in teaching language.

We also see this Center as the place where innovative materials are developed and research on adult language acquisition is conducted, with the results published as working papers for the benefit of the field.

How can we help our promising teachers so that they can get more stable positions? We need scholarships to they can attain legitimate degrees in second language teaching or linguistics. Most of our tenured professors who had language programs have degrees in linguistics or literature. Is this goal so farfetched for our teachers?

What kind of legitimate research can our teachers work on and with whom? Can our Southeast Asian language teachers work with second
language acquisition researchers? Perhaps then research results would
be more applicable to practice in Southeast Asian classrooms. If some
university departments were reorganized, second language acquisition
researchers and Southeast Asian language teachers could be in the
same department. This could facilitate their working together to
develop research projects with those language teachers who might
have less experience in doing research.

Poised for the Future

1. The University of Hawaii Department of Indo-Pacific Languages and
Literature recognizes the need to continue to diversify its course
offerings and will be working with the various departments and
professional schools to develop special courses to allow majors to
personalize and maximize their study of a foreign language. These
include the development of language for specific purposes of the
College of Education and the schools of Nursing, Public Health, and
Social Work. In this way, students in their disciplines may satisfy the
foreign language requirement by focusing on the aural-oral skills that
will enable them to work with the local ethnic communities in Hawaii.

2. We need to establish a Southeast Asian language Institute and make
use of the large array of less commonly taught languages being taught
and the instructors who are experts in teaching and materials
development for less commonly taught languages.

Thus, students could be enrolling in upper division courses or even
higher courses after a travel abroad program. This could be done by
distance education or through use of the Web. The Institute would also
include refresher and maintenance courses.

Teachers could be attending institutes or teacher training programs on
such topics as
a) how to teach advanced level courses and how to utilize available
   materials,
b) how to develop computer-assisted materials, and
c) learning about new trends in teaching language.
The services this institute would offer are crucial for building the
national capacity for language expertise.
3. Use the existence of native speakers in the community by supplementing classroom teaching with tutors that can help them in language as well as expose students to the culture. Take language learning to the community and make native speakers culture carriers.

These are just some of the many observations and ideas our many years of teaching Filipino have led us to. We hope that this language learning framework for our teachers of Filipino will be a useful guide to many.
References


APPENDIX

A SYNOPSIS OF TAGALOG GRAMMAR FOR TEACHERS

This synopsis gives some important and distinctive characteristics of Tagalog grammar. Where relevant, some aspects of the grammar are contrasted with English to facilitate learning. It has the purpose of assisting the teacher of Tagalog in understanding how words are formed and how the basic sentences of the language are constructed.

This grammatical description has been made as simple as possible to be of maximum usefulness to the user. Ample examples are provided to illustrate the linguistic or grammatical statements made.

I. WORD FORMATION

A. Word Composition

Most Tagalog words are made up of affixes and roots. The roots are substantive, verbal and adjectival in meaning, and the affixes indicate such things as aspect, focus and mode. The specific meaning of a word is determined by the particular combination of the root and its affix.

For example, the root aral ‘to study’ may denote the following variations in meaning depending on the affix added.

- Mag-aral (v.) to study
- Pala-aral (adj.) studious
- Aralan (n.) place for studying

B. Reduplication

Words are reduplicated, that is, one or more syllables at the beginning of a full word may be repeated. Reduplication is used extensively in word formation to indicate non-completed action, intensity, plurality, restriction, etc.
Kain  eat
Kakain  will eat

Maganda  beautiful
Magaganda  beautiful (plural)

Isa  one
Isa-isa  one by one

Lisa  only one
Lisaisa  the only one (intensified)

C.  Verbalization of Roots

Almost any Tagalog root may be verbalized. Note the following.

Oo (adv.)  yes
Umoo  agree

Damit (n.)  dress
Magdamit  to dress

Pagod (adj.)  tired
Mapagod  to become tired

Borrowed words which are nouns can also be verbalized

Basketball  mag ‘basketbol’  to play basketball
Cutex  magpa ‘kyutiks’  to have a manicure

II. PARTS OF SPEECH

Roots have been classified as nouns, pronouns, adverbs, verbs, conjunctions, markers, particles, interjections, numerals, quantifiers, prepositions, pseudo verbs (or modals), interrogatives and demonstratives.
Examples of the more major parts of speech are as follows:

A. Nouns

Nouns may consist solely of roots, e.g., bata ‘child’, bahay ‘house’; or a combination of a noun forming affix and a root, e.g.

(taga-) + \textit{luto} tagaluto cook
\textit{Upo} + (an) upuan seat
(ka-) + \textit{ligaya} + (-an) kaligayahan happiness

Most of the noun stems can take the ka- or ka- -an affixes.

B. Pronouns

1. Personal Pronouns

   Personal pronouns act as substitutes for noun phrases introduced by the noun markers \textit{ang}, \textit{ng} and \textit{sa}. The following chart gives the three sets of personal pronouns and their characteristic particle identification.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Ang-Pronouns</th>
<th>Nga-Pronouns</th>
<th>Sa-Pronouns</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Speaking</td>
<td>11 9 15</td>
<td>9 44</td>
<td>64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Listening</td>
<td>11 5 2</td>
<td>6 24</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Personal Pronouns</th>
<th>First</th>
<th>Second</th>
<th>Third</th>
<th>First</th>
<th>Second</th>
<th>Third</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ako</td>
<td>Ko</td>
<td>Akin</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ikaw . . / Ka</td>
<td>Mo</td>
<td>Iyo</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Siya</td>
<td>Niya</td>
<td>Kaniya</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Plural First (excl)</th>
<th>Amin</th>
<th>Atin</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(incl)</td>
<td>Namin</td>
<td>Inyo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Second</td>
<td>Natin</td>
<td>Ninyo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Third</td>
<td>Nila</td>
<td>Kanila</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

59
2. Demonstratives (Dem.)

Another type of pronoun, the demonstrative, indicates the relative distances of objects from the speaker and the listener. Like the personal pronoun, these pronouns may be divided into ang-demonstratives, ng- demonstrative and sa- demonstratives. A chart of these pronouns follows.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Demonstrative Pronouns</th>
<th>Ang-Dem</th>
<th>Ng-Deml</th>
<th>Sa-Dem</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Near Speaker</td>
<td>Ito/ ire</td>
<td>Nito/nire</td>
<td>Dito/ dine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>‘this (one)’</td>
<td>‘of this’</td>
<td>Here</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Iyan</td>
<td>Niyan</td>
<td>Diyan</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘that (one)’</td>
<td>‘of that’</td>
<td>‘there’</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Iyon</td>
<td>Niyon</td>
<td>Doon</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘that (one) yonder’</td>
<td>‘of that yonder’</td>
<td>‘over there’</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

C. Adjectives

Adjectives are words that modify nouns. The most common of the adjectival affixes is the prefix ma-, e.g.

Ganda (n.) beauty
Maganda beautiful

1. Expansion by Modification

i. Adjectives or Nouns as Modifiers

Noun modification is marked in a construction by the occurrence of the linker na/-ng between the modifier and the modified or vice-versa. The order of quality adjective and the noun modified is usually not fixed, but the linker –ng is always attached to the first word or element if it ends in a vowel or –n, be it modifier or the modified, in the modification structure. Na occurs when the word before it ends in a consonant.
Examples:

Adj. + na + Noun  
(head)  
mabait na bata  
‘good child’  
bagong bahay  
‘new house’

Noun + na + Adj.  
(head)  
batang mabait  
‘child (who is) good’  
bahay na bago  
‘house (which is) new’

Nouns or noun phrases may be used as modifiers. This modification construction is similar to a construction with nouns in apposition, and has the meaning of the who relative clauses in English.

Examples:

Si Nena kapatid ni Rody….Nena, Rody’s sister  
Si Mang Anto ng tsuper ng taksi….Mang Anton, the taxi driver

A head noun can have more than one phrasal modifier. The following example has three phrasal modifiers; sequenced one after the other.

Ang bahay (ni Aling Petra) – ng (nasa kalye Herran) na  
(katapat ng ospital)  
The house (of Aling Petra) (which is on Herran Street)  
(across from the hospital)

A noun phrase may also have a series of post-noun modifiers each one modifying the head noun of the immediately preceding phrase modifier.

Ang bahay (ni Aling Maria) –ng (asawa ni Mang Manuel) na (magsasaka)  
The house (of Aling Maria) (who is the wife of Mang Manuel) (who is a farmer)

ii. Verbal Constructions as Nominal Modifiers

Verbs can be used as modification structures after nouns. Note the following:
Ang batang umiyak … the child crying…
Ang katulong na naglilinis sa silid… The helper, cleaning the room…

iii. Nasa Constructions as Modifiers

Modification structures with nasa usually express the exact location of small, moveable objects.

…librong nasa ibabaw book (which is)
ng piyano… on the piano…
…lapis na nasa pencil (which is)
mesa… on the table…

Note the use of the linker –ng/na in addition to nasa.

iv. Naka- Constructions as Modifiers

Naka- is an adjectival prefix which can be followed by nouns (limited to things or accessories that can be worn or put on) and by verb roots, usually um- verbs.

Ang babai ng nakaasul the woman (who is) in blue
Ang lalaki ng nakangiti the man (who is) smiling

v. Taga- Constructions as Modifiers

Taga-, a prefix which occurs before verb roots means ‘one whose occupation or work is that expressed by the verb.’

Ang babaing tagaluto ng pagkain…
The woman who cooks the food…

D. Adverbs

Words modifying the verbs are classified as adverbs. Most adverbs are roots, e.g., bigla, ‘suddenly’, naman ‘also, too’, noon ‘then’, etc.
E. The Relation Markers

The relation markers are the noun marking particles that indicate the grammatical function (actor, goal, location, beneficiary, instrument) of the noun or noun phrase that they introduce and the markers ang/si that introduces the topic of the sentence. Note the following sentence.

_Bumili ng pagkain_ (bought food) _sa palengke for_ (and his companion) _Mang Pedro._

_Ng marks the goal (pagkain ‘food’), sa marks the location (palengke ‘market’), and para sa marks the beneficiary (/ mga anak ‘children’), para kay the beneficiary (Mang Pedro) para kina, the beneficiary (Mang Pedro and his companions). Ang marks the topic (babae ‘woman’), si, the topic (Aling Maria) and sina, the topic (Aling Maria and her companions)._
The three aspects of the verbs are 1) completed, for action started and terminated; 2) contemplated, for action not started; and 3) incompleted, for action started but not yet completed or action still in progress. The form of the verb that does not imply any aspect or is not inflected for aspect is neutral or is in the infinitive form.

The closest equivalent in English to the completed aspect is the past tense, the contemplated aspect corresponds to the future tense, and the incompleted aspect to the progressive tense.

The process or processes involved in the verbal inflection to indicate aspect differ according to the affix taken by the verb.

i. The –um- Verb

The neutral or infinitive form of the –um- verb is constructed by placing –um- before the first vowel of the verb root or base. The completed form is identical to the neutral form, e.g., um + langoy = l-um-angoy ‘to swim; swam’. um + inom = um-inom ‘to drink; drank’.

The contemplated aspect is formed by reduplicating the first syllable (CV or V) of the root, e.g. langoy = la-langoy, inom=i-inom.

The incompleted form affixes –um- to the base in the manner as in the neutral form and also reduplicates the first syllable of the root, e.g., lalangoy = l-um-a-langoy, iinom = um-i-inom.

ii. The mag- Verb

The neutral form of this verb is constructed by prefixing mag- to the verb root, e.g., mag + laba = maglaba ‘to wash (clothes)’.

The completed form is constructed by changing m- of the affix to n-, e.g., maglaba = naglaba ‘washed (clothes).’

The contemplated aspect is formed by reduplicating the first syllable of the root and prefixing mag-, e.g. lalaba = maglalaba ‘will wash (clothes).’
The incompleted aspect is formed by prefixing nag- to the verb root reduplicating its first syllable, e.g., naglalaba ‘washing (clothes).’

iii. The ma- Verb

The ma- verb follows the same aspect formation as does the mag- verb. N- replaces the m- of the prefix for the started action and the first CV- or V- of the root is reduplicated for action not terminated.

Base: tuling
Neutral: matuling ‘to sleep’
Completed: natuling ‘slept’
Incompleted: natutuling ‘sleeping’
Contemplated: matutuling ‘will sleep’

iv. The mang- Verb

The mang- affix undergoes the same m- to n- replacement for started action and reduplication for non-terminated action, but there are some changes in the final nasal sound of the affix as it gets influenced by the following initial sound of the root. This change is followed by also dropping the first consonant of the root. These changes are called morphophonemic changes. The morphophonemic changes of the mang- affix may be represented by the following rule:

\[
\text{Mang} + \begin{cases} b \ldots & \text{mam} \ldots \\ p \ldots & \end{cases} \\
\text{Mang} + \begin{cases} t \ldots + \text{remainder of root} > \text{man} \ldots + \text{remainder of root} \\ d \ldots \\ s \ldots & \end{cases} \\
\text{Mang} + \begin{cases} k \ldots & \text{mang} \ldots \\ i \ldots & \end{cases}
\]

Examples:
\[
\text{mang} + \begin{cases} \text{bili} = \text{mamili} \\ \text{pili} = \text{mamili} & \end{cases}
\]
H’s and G’s do not influence the final nasal of the prefix *mang-* to change; e.g.,

\[
\text{Mang} + \begin{cases} 
\text{gulo} = \text{manggulo} \\
\text{huli} = \text{manghuli}
\end{cases}
\]

After the affixed verb form has undergone morphophonemic changes the second syllable is reduplicated to form the incompleted and contemplated forms.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Contemplated</th>
<th>Incompleted</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mamimili</td>
<td>namimili</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mananahi</td>
<td>nananahi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mangunguha</td>
<td>nangunguha</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Where no morphophonemic changes occur, the first syllable of the root is reduplicated.

\[
\text{Manggugu} + \begin{cases} 
\text{gulo} = \text{nanggugulo} \\
\text{huli} = \text{nanghuhuli}
\end{cases}
\]

v. The –in Verb

The neutral form of the –in verb is formed by suffixing –in (or -hin) to the verb root.

\[
\text{Alis} + \text{in} \quad \text{alisin} \\
\text{Basa} + \text{hin} \quad \text{basahin}
\]

If the base ends in a vowel sound, -hin is suffixed to the root rather than –in. With the addition of the suffix –in, there is also a shift in stress to the next syllable toward the end of the word.
The completed aspect is formed by placing –in- before the first vowel of the root.

\[
in - \text{alis} \quad \text{b-in-asa}
\]

The incompleted aspect form of the –in verb is affixed the same way plus the first syllable of the root is reduplicated.

\[
in-a-\text{alis} \quad \text{b-in-a-basa}
\]

The completed aspect is similar to the neutral form with the first syllable of the base reduplicated; e.g.,

\[
a-\text{alis-in} \quad \text{ba-basa-hin}
\]

When roots begin with l or n, the affix in is inverted to ni only in the completed and incompleted forms.

\[
\text{linis} + \text{in} = \text{nilinis} = \text{nnilinis}
\text{nakaw} + \text{in} = \text{ninakaw} = \text{ninanakaw}
\]

vi. The –an Verb

The –an verb inflects the same way the –in verb does.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Neutral:</th>
<th>Punas + an</th>
<th>Punta + han</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>punas-an</td>
<td>punta-han</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Completed:</td>
<td>p-in-unas-an</td>
<td>p-in-unta-han</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Incompleted:</td>
<td>p-in-upunas-an</td>
<td>p-in-u-punta-han</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contemplated:</td>
<td>pu-punas-an</td>
<td>pu-punta-han</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

-\text{An} follows a consonant sound and –\text{han} a vowel sound. There is also an accompanying shift in stress to the next syllable with the addition of the suffix.

vii. The \text{i-} Verb

The neutral aspect of the \text{i-} verb is formed by prefixing \text{i-} to the verb root, e.g. ihagis; the completed aspect by placing –\text{in}
between the first CV of the root or by ni before h, y, n, l and the vowel initial sounds of the root; e.g., inihagis, itinapon. The non-terminated action of the incompletely and contemplated aspects is indicated by the reduplication of the first CV- or V- of the root.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Root</th>
<th>Completed</th>
<th>Incompleted</th>
<th>Contemplated</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Hagis</td>
<td>inihagis</td>
<td>inihahagis</td>
<td>ihahagis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yari</td>
<td>iniyari</td>
<td>iniyayari</td>
<td>iyayari</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abot</td>
<td>iniabot</td>
<td>iniaabot</td>
<td>iaabot</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tapon</td>
<td>itinapon</td>
<td>itinatapon</td>
<td>itatapon</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

vii. The ipag- Verb

The ipag- verbs behave like the other prefixed verbs except that the –in- or the indicator of the action started is infixed in the prefix rather than in the root.

Neutral: ipag- luto
Completed: ip-in-ag-luto
Incompleted: ip-in-ag-lu-luto
Contemplated: ipag-lu-luto

ix. The ipang- Verb

The ipang- verb is inflected in the same manner as the ipag- verb, except that its final nasal sound undergoes the same morphophonemic changes the mang- affix undergoes, e.g., ipang + tahi = ipanghi. Other forms are as follows:

Completed: ipinanghi
Incompleted: ipinanananghi
Contemplated: ipananghi
### SUMMARY AFFIX CHART

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>KIND OF FOCUS</th>
<th>ACTION</th>
<th>Actor</th>
<th>Goal</th>
<th>Benefactive</th>
<th>Locative</th>
<th>Instrumental</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Indicative</td>
<td>UM-</td>
<td>-in</td>
<td>i-</td>
<td>-an</td>
<td>ipang-</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>MAG-</td>
<td>-in</td>
<td>ipag-</td>
<td>-an</td>
<td>ipang-</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>-an</td>
<td>ipag-</td>
<td>pag--an</td>
<td>ipang-</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>i-</td>
<td>ipag-</td>
<td>-an</td>
<td>ipang-</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>MA-</td>
<td>-an</td>
<td>ipang-</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Distributive</td>
<td>MANG-</td>
<td>pang-</td>
<td>pin</td>
<td>pang--an</td>
<td>ipang-</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>-in</td>
<td>ipang-</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aptative</td>
<td>MAKA-</td>
<td>ma-</td>
<td>ma+i-</td>
<td>ma--an</td>
<td>ma+i+pang-</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(abilitative)</td>
<td>MAKAPAG-</td>
<td>ma+i-pang</td>
<td>ma+i-pag--an</td>
<td>ma+i+pang-</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social</td>
<td>MAKI-</td>
<td>paki-</td>
<td>i+paki-</td>
<td>paki--an</td>
<td>i+paki+pang-</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Causative</td>
<td>MAGPA-</td>
<td>ipa-</td>
<td>ipa-</td>
<td>pa--an</td>
<td>ipa+pang-</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>ipa--an</td>
<td>ipag+pa-</td>
<td>pag+pa--an</td>
<td>ipa+pang-</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aptative</td>
<td>MAKAPAG+pa</td>
<td>ma+i+pa-</td>
<td>ma+i+pag+pa-</td>
<td>ma+i+pag+pa--an</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Causative</td>
<td>MAKAPAG+pag+pa</td>
<td>ma+i+pag+pa-</td>
<td>ma+i+pag+pa--an</td>
<td>ma+i+pag+pa--an</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### SAMPLE WORD CHART WITH THE AFFIXES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>KIND OF FOCUS</th>
<th>ACTION</th>
<th>Actor</th>
<th>Goal</th>
<th>Benefactive</th>
<th>Locative</th>
<th>Instrumental</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Indicative</td>
<td>bumili</td>
<td>bilin</td>
<td>ibili</td>
<td>bilhan</td>
<td>ipambili</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>maglinis</td>
<td>linisin</td>
<td>ipaglinis</td>
<td>linisan</td>
<td>ipalinis</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>maglaban</td>
<td>labhan</td>
<td>ipaglaban</td>
<td>pglabhan</td>
<td>ipanlaba</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>magtapon</td>
<td>itapon</td>
<td>ipagtapon</td>
<td>tapunang</td>
<td>ipantapong</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>matulog</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>tusungan</td>
<td>ipantulog</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Distributive</td>
<td>manghuli</td>
<td>panghulihin</td>
<td>ipanghuli</td>
<td>panghulihan</td>
<td>ipanghuli</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aptative</td>
<td>makabili</td>
<td>mabili</td>
<td>maibili</td>
<td>mabilhan</td>
<td>maipambili</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>makapaglaban</td>
<td>malaban</td>
<td>maipaglaban</td>
<td>mapaglaban</td>
<td>maipanlaba</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>makapagtapon</td>
<td>matapon</td>
<td>maipagtapon</td>
<td>mapagtapon</td>
<td>maipantapong</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social</td>
<td>makitawag</td>
<td>pakitawag</td>
<td>ipakitawag</td>
<td>pakitawagan</td>
<td>ipakipantawag</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Causative</td>
<td>magpakuh</td>
<td>ipakuh</td>
<td>ipakuh</td>
<td>pakunan</td>
<td>ipapankuha</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>magpalaba</td>
<td>palaban</td>
<td>ipagpalaba</td>
<td>pagpalaban</td>
<td>ipapanlaba</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aptative</td>
<td>makapagawa</td>
<td>mapagawa</td>
<td>maipagawa</td>
<td>mapagawan</td>
<td>maipampagawa</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Causative</td>
<td>makapagagawa</td>
<td>mapagagawa</td>
<td>maipagagawa</td>
<td>mapagagawan</td>
<td>maipampagagawan</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

69
III. SENTENCE CONSTRUCTION

A. Types of Tagalog Sentences

There are two types of Tagalog sentences: the Predicational and the Identificational.

The Predicational sentences type has the comment (or predicate) before the topic (or subject), whereas the Identificational type has the topic occurring before the comment.

**Predicational:**

\[
\text{Tumakbo} \quad \text{ang bata.}
\]

\[
\text{(comment)} \quad \text{(topic)}
\]

\[
\text{’ran’} \quad \text{’the child’}
\]

**Identificational:**

\[
\text{Ang bata} \quad \text{ang tumakbo.}
\]

\[
\text{(topic)} \quad \text{(comment)}
\]

\[
\text{’It was the child who ran.’}
\]

B. Basic Tagalog Sentence Patterns

The basic sentence types in Tagalog are the following:

1. Statement

   i. Affirmative Statements

   **Types of Comment**  | **Comment + Topic**
   ----------------------|---------------------
   **Non-verbal**        |
   **Nominal** Doktor    |
   siya                 | He's                |
   si Pedro             | Pedro's             |
   ang tsuper.          | The driver's        |
   **Adjectival** Maganda |
   ito.                 | This is             |
   ang baro.            | The dress           |
   ka.                  | You are             |
   **Verbal** Umupo     |
   ang guro.            | The teacher         |
   sila.                | They                |
   si G. Cruz.          | Mr. Cruz            |

   a doctor
To reiterate, Tagalog sentences differ from English sentences in the following respects:
*Tagalog places the comment in the initial position rather than following the verb as would regularly occur in English sentences.
*Tagalog uses non-verbal comments where the copulative verb to be would be required in English.

A common word order when a comment has more than one part is for the first part to occur before the topic and the rest to follow. This is usually true when the topic is a pronoun.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Comment</th>
<th>Topic</th>
<th>Comment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Guro</td>
<td>siya</td>
<td>sa math.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kumanta</td>
<td>kami</td>
<td>sa paaralan.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

ii. Inversion in Statements

The basic order of the Tagalog predicational statements can be reversed. If the Topic is shifted to precede the Comment, the inversion marker _ay_ is inserted between the two elements. Note the re-ordering of the elements in the sentences in each of the following inversions in affirmative statements.

**Inversion in Affirmative Statements**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Topic</th>
<th>+ay</th>
<th>+Comment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Siya</td>
<td>ay</td>
<td>doktor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Si Pedro</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ang tsuper</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ito</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ang baro</td>
<td>ay</td>
<td>maganda.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Si Maria</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ikaw</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ang guro</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sila</td>
<td>ay</td>
<td>umupo.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Si Ginoong Cruz</td>
<td>ay</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note the use of _ikaw_ for _ka_ in sentence initial position. _Ka_ never occurs in this position.
Inversion in Statements with Discontinuous Comments

Basic Order

Comment . . . Topic . . . Comment
Guro siya sa math.
Kumanta kami sa paaralan.

Inverted Order

Topic + ay + Comment
Siya ay guro sa math.
Kami ay kumanta sa paaralan.

Observe how ay separates or divides the topic from the comment. This ligature occurs right after the topic of the sentence. This is why ay is sometimes called a comment or a predicate marker.

iii. Negative Statements

Hindi + Comment + Topic
Hindi Pilipino si Jorge. Jorge is not a Filipino.
Hindi maganda ang babae. The woman is not beautiful.
Hindi umupo ang guro. The teacher didn't sit down.

Hindi, a negative particle, is placed before the affirmative sentence to make it negative. When the Topic, however, is a pronoun, that pronoun is shifted before the Comment and thus follows hindi.

Hindi + Pronoun + Comment
Hindi siya Pilipino. He's not a Filipino.
Hindi ito laruan. This is not a toy.

2. Questions

i. Yes-No Affirmative Questions

Comment + ba + Topic
Amerikano ba si Jorge? Is Jorge an American?
Maganda ba ito? Is this beautiful?
Umupo ba ang guro? Did the teacher sit down?
May pagkain ba siya? Does he have food?
Ba is a question marker and usually follows the first full word of a sentence. However, when the topic is the pronoun ka, then ba follows.

Pilipino ka. You are a Filipino.
Pilipino ka ba? Are you a Filipino?

ii. Negative Questions

Hindi ba + Comment + Topic
Hindi ba Pilipino si Jorge? Isn't Jorge a Filipino?
Hindi ba umupo ang guro? Didn't the teacher sit down?
Hindi ba guro sa Math si Miss Cruz Isn't Miss Cruz a math teacher?

Note the position of ba in the following.
Hindi ba siya Pilipino? Isn't he a Filipino?
Hindi ka ba Pilipino? Aren't you a Filipino?
Ka always precedes ba.

iii. Tag Questions

Statement + Tag Question
Artista siya, hindi ba? He's an artist, isn't he?
Nars si Fe, hindi ba? Fe's a nurse, isn't she?
Hindi siya pumunta, di ba? He didn't go, did he?
Pumunta siya, di ba? He went, didn't he?

Hindi ba is a negative tag question in Tagalog. In rapid speech, it is reduced to di ba. Unlike in English, there is no affirmative tag question.

Usually negative statements are followed by the tag question ano.

Hindi Amerikano si Art, ano? Art is not an American, is he?
Hindi siya pumunta, ano? He didn't go, did he?

---------------------------------------------------------------------------------

Ba follows the whole phrase May pagkain because may cannot occur alone. It is always followed by a noun.
iv. Response Patterns to Yes-No Questions

Affirmative response:

Oo + Comment + Topic
Oo, Amerikano si Jorge. Yes, Jorge is an American.
Oo, Pilipino siya. Yes, he's a Filipino.

Plain oo, 'yes', can stand for the whole affirmative response.

v. Integration of a Negative and an Affirmative Response

In Tagalog, it is common to agree to a negative comment by saying oo followed by the negative statement.

Q: Hindi Amerikano si Art, ano? Art isn't an American, is he?
R: Oo, hindi siya Amerikano. Yes, he's not an American.

In English, however, one reinforces a negative response by another negative expression, e.g., "No, he isn't American.

Negative response:

In contrast to a negative sentence, the negative response has two hindi's.

Hindi, hindi siya Pilipino. No, he's not a Filipino.
Hindi, hindi Pilipino si Jorge. No, Jorge is not a Filipino.

vi. Interrogative Questions

Interrogative Word + Ang Construction
Sino ang guro mo? Who is your teacher?
Ano ang pangalan mo? What's your name?
Alin ang lapis mo? Which is your pencil?
Ilan ang babae? How many are women?
Interrogative pronouns often occur initially in sentences followed by ang constructions or their substitutes.

Sino ka? Who are you?
Ano ito? What is this?

Alin, saan, ano and sino are sometimes followed by sa constructions before the ang constructions.

Alin  {sa apat}  ang anak mo? Which {of the four} is your child?
       {dito}        

Saa  {sa Maynila}  ang bahay mo? Where {in Manila} is your house?
       {dito}        

Question words like gaano, ilan and magkano can be followed directly by a noun. When this happens, a linker is used between the two.

Interrogative Word + Ng + Noun + Ang Construction
Gaano ng bigas ang kailangan mo? How much rice (quantity) (do) you need?
Magkanong bigas ang binili mo? How much rice (price) (did) you buy?
Ilan ng silya ang gusto mo? How many chair(s) (do) you want?

Where ang constructions are replaced by pronouns, the same order occurs.
Ikaw ba ay sino? You are who?
Ito ba ay ano? This is what?

3. Commands and Requests

i. Affirmative Commands
Infinitive forms of the verbs are used for commands and the actor is limited to the second person form of he personal pronoun.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Focus</th>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>Pronoun</th>
<th>Complement</th>
<th>Gloss</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Actor Focus</td>
<td>Maglinis</td>
<td>ng bahay.</td>
<td>(You) clean the house.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Kumain</td>
<td>ng almusal.</td>
<td>(You) eat breakfast.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Manghuli</td>
<td>ka/kayo ng daga.</td>
<td>(You) catch rats.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Matulog</td>
<td>ng maaga.</td>
<td>(You) sleep early.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Goal focus</td>
<td>Kunin</td>
<td>ang libro.</td>
<td>(You) get the book.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Laban</td>
<td>mo/ninyo ang damit.</td>
<td>(You) wash the clothes.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Itapon</td>
<td>ang basura.</td>
<td>(You) throw away the garbage.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

If names are used with the commands, they occur first: Maria, maginis ka ng bahay.

The verbal prefix paki- and the particle nga when occurring in a sentence imply a request. The verb stem with paki- takes an object as the topic of the sentence. The pronoun as actor is limited to the mo/ninyo forms.

**Comment**  
(Goal Focus Verb + Actor)  
mo (nga)  
Pakiabot {  
(nga) ninyo  
} ang libro. Please hand over the book.

Note the occurrence of mo before nga and ninyo after nga. Short particles are followed by long ones. Requests of this form are usually said with a rising intonation.

ii. Negative Commands

Huwag instead of hindi is used in negative commands.

Huwag + um- Verbs (Actor focus)

Huwag {  
kang you(sg)  
kayong you(pl)  
} tumayo. Don't {  
} stand.
Note the use of the linker -ng when the second person ang pronoun actor occurs between huwag and the um- verb.

Huwag + in- Verbs (Goal Focus)

Huwag \(\text{mong}\) inuman ang gatas. Don't \(\text{you(sg)}\) drink the milk.

Huwag \(\text{ninyong}\) inuman ang gatas. Don't \(\text{you(pl)}\) drink the milk.

It is important to note the inversion of the position of the pronoun and the verb in the negative command.

Affirmative command: Inumin mo ang gatas.
Negative Command: Huwag mong inumin ang gatas.

Note the lack of a linker in the affirmative command.

C. Construction of a Predicational Sentence

The most common sentence is the Predicational type. A Tagalog predicational sentence consists of at least two major grammatical parts: the Topic (or what is usually referred to as the ‘subject’ in an English sentence) and the Comment which is similar to the ‘predicate’ in function.

The normal order of these two basic elements is as follows:

Comment + Topic
(Predicate) (Subject)

In an English sentence, the regular arrangement of the two major grammatical elements is reversed: Subject + Predicate

1. The Topic

The topic (or subject) may be either a non-verbal or verbal phrase.

The non-verbal topic of a sentence is a noun or a noun phrase (a noun with its modifiers) introduced by the focus-marking or
Topic-marking particles *ang* or *si*. *Ang* precedes common nouns such as *babae* ‘woman’, *bata* ‘child’, etc. *Si* is followed by proper nouns such as Pedro, Maria, etc. The *ang* phrase or *si* phrase can be replaced by the *ako* set of pronouns or the *ito* set of demonstratives.

Generally one noun phrase is marked as topic or focus of attention in a sentence. This is done by a topic marker which has no case marking function. The case relationship to the sentence of this topicalized noun phrase is indicated instead by the verbal affix. *Ang* is the focus or topic marker. (See the *ang* phrases in the sentences above.)

Topic and non-topic markers are also indicated by proper noun markers, pronouns, and demonstratives. The following chart gives the corresponding forms of each.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>COMMON NOUN</th>
<th>NON-TOPIC MARKER</th>
<th>TOPIC MARKER</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>MARKER</td>
<td>ng</td>
<td>ang</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PROPER NOUN</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MARKER</td>
<td>(sg) ni</td>
<td>para kay si</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(pl) nina</td>
<td>para kina  si</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PRONOUNS</td>
<td>(sg) 1 ko</td>
<td>para sa akin ako</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2 mo</td>
<td>para sa iyo ikaw, ka</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3 niya</td>
<td>para sa kaniya siya</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(pl) 1 namin</td>
<td>para sa amin kami</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2 ninyo</td>
<td>para sa atin tayo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3 nila</td>
<td>para sa kanila sila</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DEMONSTRATIVES</td>
<td>nito dito</td>
<td>para dito ito</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>niyan diyan</td>
<td>para diyan iyan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>niyon doon</td>
<td>para doon iyon</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2. The Comment

The comment (or predicate) is verbal or non-verbal in Tagalog and English. However, in Tagalog, the nonverbal comments
include prepositional phrases as well as adverbial words as illustrated in the following:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verbal Comments</th>
<th>Comment (Predicate)</th>
<th>Topic (Subject)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Tumakbo ang bata.</td>
<td>(Ran) (the child)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Natulog ang tao.</td>
<td>(Slept) (the man)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nagluto ang babae.</td>
<td>(Cooked) (the woman)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Nonverbal Comments | Adjectival | Maganda ang bulaklak. | (Beautiful) (the flower) | |
|---------------------|------------|------------------------|-------------------------| |
| Prepositional | Sa bayan ang prosisyon. | (In town) (the procession) | |
| Adverbial | Bukas ang laro. | (Tomorrow) (the game) | |
| Nominal | Nars ako. | (Nurse) (I) | |

In Tagalog, there is no equivalent of the verb to be. The meaning is denoted by the juxtaposition of the Comment and the Topic, as seen in the examples above.

3. The Focus

One of the most important features of Tagalog is called focus. Focus is the grammatical relation between the verb and a particular complement or noun phrase marked by ang. This complement is referred to as the Topic of the sentence. The semantic relationship of the Topic to verb (actor, goal, benefactor, etc.) is indicated by the verbal affix.
Focus may be viewed as referring to voice, except that in Tagalog or in most Philippine languages, the division would not be limited to the English active and passive voices. The English active voice may be equated to the Tagalog actor focus; the English passive voice to the goal focus, but the Tagalog adds three more focuses: the locative, the benefactive, and the instrumental marked differently in the verb stem. In the locative, the location of the action is the topic; in the benefactive, the benefactor or recipient of the action is topic; in the instrumental, the instrument with which the action is performed is the topic.

The relationship of the topic to the verb may be: (1) the actor who does or originates the action; (2) the goal which is the object of the action; (3) the locative which is the place of the action; (4) the benefactive who or which is the beneficiary of the action; or (5) the instrument which is the tool or means used to bring about the action. The topic of the sentence may not only be represented by the ang phrase but also by the ang substitutes, either an ang pronoun or an ang demonstrative. A verbal affix indicates one of these relationships of the topic to the verb.

These five types of grammatical relationships that exist between the verb and one focused complement (or topic) are marked by verbal affixes.

i. Actor Focus

Some verbal affixes that indicate that the actor, doer, or the originator of the action is in focus are: -um-, mag-, mang- and ma-.

These may be illustrated as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verbal Affix</th>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>Topic</th>
<th>Object</th>
<th>Gloss</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-Um-</td>
<td>Bumili</td>
<td>ang bata</td>
<td>ng tinapay.</td>
<td>The child bought some bread.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mag-</td>
<td>Magbili</td>
<td>ka</td>
<td>ng gulay.</td>
<td>(You) sell some vegetables.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mang-</td>
<td>Nanghuli</td>
<td>ito</td>
<td>ng daga.</td>
<td>This (one) caught a rat.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ma-</td>
<td>Natulog</td>
<td>si Mila</td>
<td>kanina.</td>
<td>Mila slept a while ago.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
ii. Object or Goal Focus

Verbal affixes that indicate that the topic of the sentence is the object or goal of the action include -in, i-, and -an. -In is commonly used as the characteristic goal focus marker.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verbal Affix</th>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>Actor</th>
<th>Topic (Goal)</th>
<th>Gloss</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-in</td>
<td>Bilhin</td>
<td>mo</td>
<td>ang tinapay</td>
<td>(You) buy the bread.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i-</td>
<td>Isulat</td>
<td>mo</td>
<td>ang kuwento</td>
<td>(You) write the story.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-an</td>
<td>Labhan</td>
<td>mo</td>
<td>ang damit</td>
<td>(You) wash the dress.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

iii. Locative Focus

The verbal affixes that indicate that the topic is the location of the action or the action is done toward that direction include -in, -an, and pag--an. In most cases, -an is used for this focus.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Locative</th>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>Actor</th>
<th>Topic (Location)</th>
<th>Gloss</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-an</td>
<td>Puntahan</td>
<td>mo</td>
<td>ang bahay niya</td>
<td>(You) go to their house.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

iv. Benefactive Focus

The verbal affixes that indicate that the topic is the beneficiary of the action are generally i- or ipag-.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verbal Affix</th>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>Actor</th>
<th>Topic (Beneficiary)</th>
<th>Goal</th>
<th>Gloss</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>i-</td>
<td>Bili</td>
<td>mo</td>
<td>ang nanay</td>
<td>ng sapatos.</td>
<td>(You) buy (a pair of) shoes (for) Mother.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ipag-</td>
<td>Ipagloba</td>
<td>mo</td>
<td>ang maysakit</td>
<td>ng damit.</td>
<td>(You) wash clothes (for) the sick one.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

v. Instrumental Focus

The verbal affix, that refers to anything used or acted upon to bring about the action as topic, is ipang- usually shortened to i-.
D. Linkers

Another distinctive feature of Tagalog is the extensive use of linkers (or ligatures) to connect words, phrases, and sentences signifying the relation of modifier and modified. They occur, for example, between adjective or numeral and noun, verb and adverb, and noun or verb and dependent clause. There are two forms of the major linker, -ng and na. The first occurs following words that end with a vowel sound and the second follows words that end with a consonant sound. Examples follow:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Modifier</th>
<th>Modified</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>magandang</td>
<td>dalaga beautiful woman</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>isang bata</td>
<td>one child</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mabuting</td>
<td>magtrabaho to work well</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dalagang</td>
<td>nagreyna sa bayan the woman who became town queen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>malalim na</td>
<td>dagat deep sea</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The Modifier and Modified may also occur in reversed order with the exception of numeral and dependent clause modifiers.

Example: bahay na maganda magandang bahay