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Preface

The present reference grammar was prepared under the Micronesian Linguistics Research Project. Its preparation from scratch was not an easy job, and its existence was made possible through the efforts of many persons.

My greatest acknowledgement is extended to my Kusaiean language teachers, Lyndon Cornelius and Elmer Asher, without whose patience and understanding the present book would not exist.

I am very much obliged to Donald M. Topping, the director of the Micronesian Linguistics Research Project. He generously spent an enormous amount of time reading my manuscript, correcting my English, and suggesting many changes in the organization and presentation of the material. I benefited greatly from his suggestions, which enabled me to clarify my material and ideas. I am sure that the present book has become much more readable through his kind efforts.

I also owe a special debt to the East-West Center, a grant from which (1968–1969) enabled me to study at the University of Hawaii, which in turn led me to become involved in the worthy project of preparing this book. In addition, I was able to get Elmer Asher's help at a later stage of grammar preparation through the Culture Learning Institute of the East-West Center, under the arrangement provided by the Pacific Language Development Project.

In preparing this reference grammar, I have not followed any particular linguistic model of description but have tried to make the book as comprehensive and at the same as detailed as possible, hoping that the result will be of some help to the Kusaiean people and to linguists who are interested in the Kusaiean language.

1 Introduction

GENERAL BACKGROUND

1.1 Kusaiean is spoken on the island of Kusaie, one of the eastern Caroline Islands. The island's coordinates are approximately 162°–163° E and 5° N, and its area is approximately 42 square miles. Lying approximately 307 miles southeast of Ponape, its nearest neighbors are the atolls of Mokil and Pinglap. There are around 4,000 people living on Kusaie, and a sizable number of Kusaieans also live in Kolonia, Ponape.

PREVIOUS WORKS

1.2 Not much work has been done on the Kusaiean language. This limited material will be surveyed briefly in the following paragraphs.

A photocopy of fourteen pages of hand-written notes on Kusaiean by E.T. Doane exists in the Pacific Collection of the Sinclair Library, University of Hawaii. There is no indication as to who Doane was or when he wrote the notes. The notes cover various aspects of Kusaiean such as the pronouns, conjunctions, prepositions, etc. They are too sketchy to be of any real use.

In 1825 a Frenchman named Lesson published a book *Notice sur l'ile de Oualan ou Strong* (Observations in Wacluhng or Strong Island). One notable feature of the book is that it includes a French-Kusaiean wordlist of 260 items. The transcription of the Kusaiean words seem to have been strongly influenced by Lesson's French spelling. The word for 'bird' and night', for example, are recorded as *mone* and *fonga*, respectively.

Since Lesson's transcriptions of Kusaiean words were probably heavily influenced by his French, we do not know

exactly how the Kusaiean words he recorded were pronounced. Nevertheless, his wordlist can shed some light on sound changes that have taken place in Kusaiean since 1825. The word meaning 'bird', for instance, recorded as *mone* by Lesson, is now pronounced as *won*. The initial *m* in *mone* seems to have changed to *w*. The word meaning 'metal' is recorded as *mossa* and is now pronounced as *wosra*.

In 1898 F.W. Christian published an article, "Table of letter-change in the dialects of Ponape and Kusaie (Eastern Carolines)." Christian compared cognates of Ponapean and Kusaiean on the basis of then Ponapean and Kusaiean spellings. As a result there are many questionable correspondences. But despite the many shortcomings of Christian's approach, his presentation of 226 pairs of Ponapean-Kusaiean cognates is quite impressive. And the mere fact that he regarded Ponapean and Kusaiean as dialects of the same language is interesting.

In 1966 David P. Macauley wrote a language textbook *Lessons in Kusaiean*. The text consists of thirty lessons, with a few grammatical notes in each lesson. The book, designed to be used by Peace Corps volunteers going to Kusaie, was the first substantial work on Kusaiean.

Walter S. Wilson's doctoral dissertation (University of Pennsylvania, 1969), although an anthropological work, records many important linguistically relevant facts such as different types of fishing and the names of breadfruit, oranges, and many other plants.

Recently Ethel Vesper has been working on Kusaiean. Her works, which treat selected topics of Kusaiean grammar, are included in the list below.

The following is a list of works on the Kusaiean language.

Doane, E.T. n.d. "Notes on Kusaiean languages." Photocopy. Pacific Collection, Sinclair Library. University of Hawaii.

Lesson, René Primevre. 1825. *Notice sur l'île de Oualan ou Strong*. (Observations on Wacluhng or Strong Island). Paris: Imprimerie de Goetschy.

Macauley, David P. 1966. "Lessons in Kusaiean." Mimeographed. Honolulu, Hawaii. Pacific Collection, Sinclair Library. University of Hawaii.

Vesper, Ethel R. 1969. "Phrase Structures of Kusaiean." Master's thesis, University of California, Davis Campus.

_____. 1969. "Grammatical and semantic classifiers as evidenced in the possessive construction in Kusaiean." In Papers from

the Fourth Annual Kansas Linguistics Conference. University of Kansas.

_____. 1970. "A consideration of number in Kusaiean." *Anthropological linguistics* 12: 1.

_____. 1971. "A semantic characterization of Kusaiean Pronouns." *Anthropological Linguistics* 13: 8.

FORMANTS

As language informants Elmer Asher and Lyndon Cornelius helped me with the preparation of this book.

Both were participants in the Pacific Language Development Project. Lyndon Cornelius was the first language informant from September 1970 through June 1972. My informant after him, Elmer Asher, was an official representative from Kusaie from September 1972 through May 1974.

Besides the two persons mentioned above, Salik Cornelius, Jack Swinton, Yukwiwo Tara, and Wilson Kephas also helped the writer.

The first three persons were on the Technology and Development Institute program of the East-West Center. During weekends, they were kind enough to spend some time helping me learn Kusaiean. Wilson Kephas was a student at the Hawaii Pacific College. He was a full-time language informant for three months, from June through August 1972.

OPE OF THE BOOK

The present book is a comprehensive description of Kusaiean. It is by no means a complete or definitive work. Despite the writer's efforts, there may be linguistic facts that have not been covered and some that have been possibly misrepresented. These shortcomings will be corrected some day, hopefully by a linguistically trained native speaker of Kusaiean.

The present book is not written primarily for linguists, but rather with the high school teachers of Kusaiean in mind. To this effect, the writer has tried to make the present reference grammar self-sufficient by defining or explaining every linguistic terms that is used.

YS TO PRONUNCIATION

A new spelling system was adopted by the Kusaiean Orthography

Committee in January, 1973. In this reference grammar, Kusaiean is written according to the new spelling system. The following is a list of symbols and their phonetic values.

Spelling Symbols	*Primary Phonetic Values*	*Examples*	
i	[i]	*til*	'to pick'
		ik	'fish'
		fwi	'to spray'
u	[u]	*tul*	'drop'
		susu	'hat'
		ful	'shell'
e	[e]	*e*	'fire'
		em	'taste'
		kek	'cake'
o	[o]	*long*	'to step on'
		to	'baby-sit'
		fong	'night'
a	[a]	*tak*	'to rise'
		pa	'bait'
		ka	'hook'
ih	[i]	*kih*	'bent'
		mihs	'calm'
		tihl	'to sink'
uh	[ʌ]	*kuh*	'strong'
		tuh	'sugar cane'
		puh	'to discuss'
ah	[æ]	*ah*	'string'
		lah	'branch'
		mah	'grass'
uc	[ə]	*lucng*	'sky'
		suc	'who'
ac	[ɛ]	*kacl*	'about him'
		pacl	'time'
		ngac	'when'
y	[y]	*ye*	'under'
		yuhk	'to sing'
		yac	'year'
w	[w]	*wet*	'worms'
		wuhn	'to carry'
		wac	'sea-cucumber'
p	[p]	*paht*	'to drift'

Spelling Symbols	*Primary Phonetic Values*	*Examples*	
		puhk	'sand'
		tuhp	'acontainer'
t	[t]	*tahtah*	'saw'
		taptap	'to juggle'
		tuhn	'color'
k	[k]	*kal*	'to sail'
		kap	'to grow'
		kuht	'we'
m	[m]	*muht*	'full'
		mas	'sick'
		muhta	'to stay'
n	[n]	*nuht*	'to adopt'
		na	'and then'
		nu	'coconut'
ng	[ŋ]	*fong*	'night'
		ngoe	'turtle'
		ngal	'painful'
l	[l]	*lut*	'surprised'
		lum	'sea-weed'
		luht	'to swallow'
r	[r]	*rarrar*	'to shake'
		rangrang	'yellow'
		rais	'rice'
f	[f]	*fuh*	'coconut fiber'
		fa	'fern'
		faht	'sun'
s	[s]	*sar*	'to disappear'
		sahp	'perhaps'
		sun	'to teach'
sr	[ʂ]	*sramsram*	'to talk'
		sral	'to reach'
		sruhk	'to lift'

Velarized consonants are marked by the symbol *w* as we can see below.

Spelling Symbols	*Examples*	
pw	*pwen*	'to lead'
	pwacpa	'to discuss'

Spelling Symbols	*Examples*	
tw	*twem*	'to sharpen'
	twek	'deck'
kw	*kwekwe*	'hard'
	kwac	'constantly'
mw	*mwet*	'man'
	mwen	'bitter'
nw	*nwem*	'ocean'
	nwek	'to fill'
ngw	*ngwes*	'to aim'
	ngwet	'to wake up'
lw	*lwen*	'day'
	lwem	'lord'
fw	*fwek*	'my nose'
	fwem	'over you'
srw	*srwack*	'still'
	srwacsra	'to debark'

2 Sound System

INTRODUCTION

2.1

SPEECH SOUNDS

2.1.1 The sounds that human beings can produce in the mouth are many and varied. Out of these many and varied sounds, a language seems to choose just a fixed number of sounds. The sounds that are used in human languages will be called **speech sounds**. In this Chapter, the Kusaiean speech sounds will be examined.

SPEECH SOUNDS AND SPELLING

2.1.2 In Kusaiean, there are many cases in which the spelling system does not distinguish certain sounds which are distinguished in speech. The letter *u* in the following words is pronounced in three different ways:

Spelling	*Phonetic Spelling*	*Gloss*
ku	[kɨ:]	'bent'
ku	[kʌ:]	'strong'
kaku	[kʌ:kə:]	'to scratch'

The letter *k* in the following words is pronounced in two different ways:

Spelling	*Phonetic Spelling*	*Gloss*
kal	[kˈɛ:l]	'to defecate'
kal	[kɛ:l]	'about him (or her)'

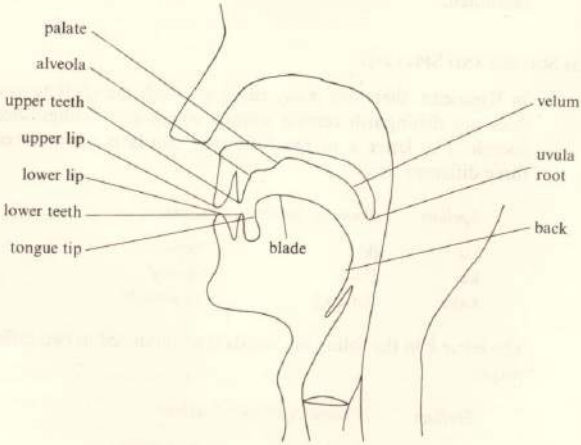
The Kusaiean spelling system is not the only spelling system that does not distinguish different sounds properly. In English the letters *gh*, for example, are pronounced in several different ways as the following words show: *cough*, *though*, and *ghost*.

In the discussion to follow, special symbols will be used to distinguish one sound from another. The symbols are called **phonetic symbols** and will appear in square brackets in order to distinguish them from the letters used in Kusaiean spelling.

Organs of Speech Sounds

2.1.3 No organs of the human body are devised for the sole purpose of making speech sounds; though the mouth, for example, is used extensively for making speech sounds, its primary function may be for eating. The nose is used primarily for breathing, but it is also used for making speech sounds. The term **speech organ** will refer to the organs that participate in making speech sounds, regardless of their primary functions.

In the description of the Kusaiean sounds, it is necessary to refer to the specific parts of the speech organs. Some principal speech organs which have to be referred to will be described. Some



Facial Diagram 1

speech organs such as the roof of the mouth are relatively unmovable, and some other speech organs such as the tongue are relatively movable. The unmovable speech organs will be called the **points of articulation**, and the movable speech organs will be called the **articulators**. The major articulators are the **lower lip**, the **tongue**, the **velum** and the **uvula**. Of all the articulators, the tongue is the most important. It will help us to divide the tongue into different parts: the **tip**, the **blade**, the **back** and the **root**. The area between the upper lip and the velum is subdivided into different sections for ease of reference. They are the **upper lip**, the **upper teeth**, the **alveolar**, the **palate** and the **velar.**

Classification of Speech Sounds

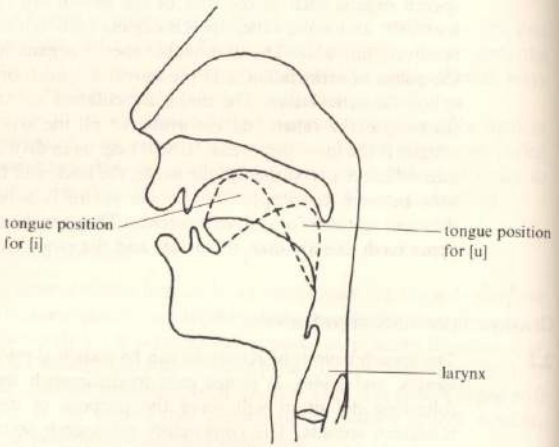
2.2 The speech sounds of Kusaiean can be classified into **consonants**, **vowels**, and **glides**. It is not easy to distinguish them. But the following definition will serve the purpose of describing the Kusaiean sounds. The consonants are speech sounds that are produced when the air stream from the lungs is completely or partially stopped. The first sound of the word *pahpah* 'father' is produced by closing the lips together. The first sound of the word *sa* 'fast' is produced by bringing the tongue tip close to the upper gum ridge. The vowels are produced without any stoppage or constriction in the mouth. The glides are sounds that are represented by the letter *w* or *y* in Kusaiean spelling.

Vowels

2.3 There are twelve Kusaiean vowels, as follows.

	Front	*Central*	*Back*
High	i	ɨ	u
Mid	e	ə	o
Low-mid	ɛ	ʌ	ɔ
Low	æ	a	oa

From the larynx to the lips, the inside of the mouth forms a tubelike shape, which can be changed in various ways by moving the tongue or by changing the shape of the lips. All the different vowels listed above result from the different shapes of the inside of the mouth.



Facial Diagram 2

The vowels as listed above are arranged in a systematic way. Horizontally they are divided into three groups: **front**, **central** and **back**. Vertically, they are divided into four groups: **high**, **mid**, **low-mid** and **low**. The horizontal division indicates the pertinent part of the tongue. **Front** indicates that the front part of the tongue is used in making the vowel sound. **Central** indicates that the central part of the tongue is used, and **back** indicates that the back part of the tongue is used. When the two words, *i* 'a tree' and *u* 'group', are pronounced one after another, we can feel that different parts of the tongue are raised.

The vertical division indicates the different heights of the tongue. If the two words, *i* 'a tree' and *ah* 'string' are pronounced, we can feel the movement of the front part of the tongue from a high position to a low position. If the two words *u* 'group' and *oh* 'oar' are pronounced, again we can feel the movement of the back part of the tongue from a high position to a lower position.

Another important factor must be mentioned. In the production of a back vowel, the lips play an important role. The lips are considerably rounded, similar to the shape they take when whistling a tune or blowing out a match. The term **round** will be used to describe this process.

NAMING THE VOWELS

2.3.1 When we want to refer to a certain vowel, we will use the terms shown in the vowel list in section 2.3. For example, the vowel *i* will be called a **high-front vowel**. The vowel *ə* will be called a **mid-central vowel**, and so on.

FRONT VOWELS

2.3.2 The term **front** refers to the front part of the tongue. The vowels produced with the front part of the tongue are called **front vowels**. There are four front vowels in Kusaiean: high, mid, low-mid, and low.

High Front Vowel: [i]

2.3.2.1 The phonetic symbol for the high front vowel is the same as the letter *i*. The following words have the high front vowel. The symbol: indicates that the preceding vowel is long. See 2.3.5 for the difference between a long vowel and a short vowel.

Spelling	*Phonetic Spelling*	*Gloss*
ik	[i:k]	'fish'
il	[i:l]	'to rub'
til	[ti:l]	'to collect'
sik	[si:k]	'a bird'
sri	[şi:]	'bone'
ti	[ti:]	'to gather'
fwi	[f'i:]	'to sprinkle'

Mid Front Vowel: [e]

2.3.2.2 The phonetic symbol for the mid front vowel is the same as the letter *e*. Following are some words that have the mid-front vowel [e].

Spelling	*Phonetic Spelling*	*Gloss*
e	[e:]	'fire'
ek	[e:k]	'to massage'
elel	[e:le:l]	'coconut milk'
em	[e:m]	'outrigger boom'
pe	[pe:]	'side'

Spelling	*Phonetic Spelling*	*Gloss*
ke	[ke:]	'with'
we	[we:]	'there'
eng	[e:ŋ]	'wind'

Low-mid Front Vowel: [ɛ]

2.3.2.3 The phonetic symbol for the low-mid front vowel is [ɛ]. The symbol is called **epsilon**. The following words have the low-mid front vowel. Note that the Kusaiean spelling system uses the letters *ac* to represent this sound.

Spelling	*Phonetic Spelling*	*Gloss*
ac	[ɛ:]	'and'
acl	[ɛ:l]	'to march'
acn	[ɛ:n]	'land'
pac	[pɛ:]	'also'
acsr	[ɛ:ṣ]	'current'

Low Front Vowel: [æ]

2.3.2.4 The phonetic symbol for the low front vowel is [æ]. The symbol is called a **digraph**. The following words have the low front vowel. Note again that in the Kusaiean spelling system the symbol *ah* is used.

Spelling	*Phonetic Spelling*	*Gloss*
ahk	[æ:k]	'stick'
lah	[læ:]	'branch'
kahkah	[kæ:kæ:]	'to touch'
mah	[mæ:]	'grass'

The low front vowel [æ] does not occur in the following phonetic environments:

1. After a round or a velarized consonant; that is, a word such as [l'æ:] or [l''æ:] is impossible. The symbol ' marks that the preceding consonant is velarized and the symbol '' marks that the preceding consonant is rounded. (See 2.4 for the characteristics of the velarized and the rounded consonants.)

2. After a high vowel [i], [ɨ] or [u]. The vowel [æ] becomes [ɛ], when it is preceded by a prefix with a high vowel. (See 3.2 for the definition of **prefix.**) The word *sahk* [sæ: k] 'tree' can be used

with the prefix *in=* (locative prefix). The prefix *in=* has a high vowel; after this prefix, the [æ] of *sahk* [sæ: k] becomes [ɛ] as in *insack* [insɛ:k] 'forest'. Observe the following additional examples.

Spelling	*Phonetic Spelling*	*Gloss*
fahr	[fæ:r]	'cavity'
infacr	[infɛ:r]	'in the cavity'
kahs	[kæ:s]	'word'
wil kacs	[wi:lkɛ:s]	'farewell'

3. After the glides (See 2.5 for the definition and kinds of glides.) the low front vowel does not occur.

Central Vowels

2.3.3 The term **central** refers to the central part of the tongue. Like the front vowels, the central vowels are made at four different tongue heights.

High Central Vowel: [ɨ]

2.3.3.1 The phonetic symbol for the high central vowel is [ɨ]. The following words have this central vowel.

Spelling	*Phonetic Spelling*	*Gloss*
kih	[kɨ:]	'bent'
mihs	[mɨ:s]	'calm'
lihs	[lɨ:s]	'to chase'
pihngpihng	[pɨ:ŋpɨ:ŋ]	'a tree'

The high central vowel is represented by *ih* in Kusaiean spelling.

Mid Central Vowel: [ə]

2.3.3.2 The phonetic symbol, called **schwa**, for the mid central vowel is [ə]. The following words have this vowel.

Spelling	*Phonetic Spelling*	*Gloss*
lucng	[lə:ŋ]	'sky'
kuck	[kə:k]	'to hit'

Spelling	*Phonetic Spelling*	*Gloss*
ruckruck	[rə:krə:k]	'full of clusters'
atuck	[a:tə:k]	'pain'

Low-mid Central Vowel: [ʌ]

2.3.3.3 The word *tuh* 'sugar cane' has the low-mid central vowel [ʌ]. The symbol is called a **caret**. The following words have the **low-mid central vowel**.

Spelling	*Phonetic Spelling*	*Gloss*
kuh	[kʌ:]	'strong'
muh	[mʌ:]	'orange'
fuh	[fʌ:]	'coconut fiber'
puh	[pʌ:]	'to think'

The low-mid central vowel [ʌ] does not occur after a high vowel or a glide. [ʌ] becomes a mid central vowel [ə] when it is preceded by a high vowel. [ʌ] of *fuhnyuh* [fʌ:nyə:] 'cooking place' becomes [ə] when it is preceded by a prefix with a high vowel, as in *infucnyuh* [infə:nyə:] 'in the cooking place'.

Low Central Vowel: [a]

2.3.3.4 The word *ma* [m'a:] has the central low vowel [a]. (The apostrophe ' marks a velarized consonant. (See Section 2.4.7) The following words have this vowel.

Spelling	*Phonetic Spelling*	*Gloss*
tak	[t'a:k]	'to rise'
nak	[n'a:k]	'classifier, my food'
fa	[f'a:]	'fern'
sa	[s'a:]	'fast'
ka	[k'a:]	'stalk'

BACK VOWELS

2.3.4 The term **back** in back vowels refers to the back part of the tongue. Like the front and central vowels the back vowels also have four heights. The back vowels of different heights will be presented below.

High Back Vowel: [u]

2.3.4.1 The word *u* [u:] has the high back vowel. The lips are noticeably rounded when the high back vowel [u] is pronounced. The following words have the high back vowel.

Spelling	*Phonetic Spelling*	*Gloss*
nu	[nu:]	'coconut'
tu	[tu:]	'to stand'
kut	[ku:t]	'louse'
sul	[su:l]	'torch'

Mid Back Vowel: [o]

2.3.4.2 The word *mong* has the **mid back vowel**. The following words have the mid back vowel [o].

Spelling	*Phonetic Spelling*	*Gloss*
wo	[wo:]	'good'
srosro	[ʂo:ʂo:]	'to jump'
kol	[ko:l]	'to lead'
to	[to:]	'to baby sit'

Low-mid Back Vowel: [ɔ]

2.3.4.3 The word *tohtoh* 'tired' has the low-mid back vowel [ɔ]. The following words have the low mid back vowel. The low-mid back vowel is represented by *oh* in Kusaiean spelling.

Spelling	*Phonetic Spelling*	*Gloss*
lohl	[lɔ:l]	'pandanus leaf'
wohl	[wɔ:l]	'wet'
pohk	[pɔ:k]	'box'
lohloh	[lɔ:lɔ:]	'to step'

Low Back Vowel: [oa]

2.3.4.4 The word *oa* has the low back vowel [oa]. One peculiarity of this low back vowel is that the first part of the vowel is round, but the

last part of the vowel is not round. The following are some words that have the low back vowel.

Spelling	*Phonetic Spelling*	*Gloss*
oan	[oa:n]	'to lie'
oak	[oa:k]	'canoe'
oal	[oa:l]	'eight'
oasr	[oa:s]	'be', 'exist'
noa	[noa:]	'wave'
loa	[loa:]	'reed'
koa	[koa:]	'stalk'

The low back vowel [oa] can be pronounced as [a], especially when it appears at the beginning of a word. Look at the following examples.

Spelling		*Spelling*	*Gloss*
oan	or	an	'to lie'
oak	or	ak	'canoe'
oal	or	al	'eight'
oasr	or	asr	'to exist'

Length of Vowels

2.3.5 There are short and long vowels in Kusaiean. When the two words *sifac* 'its head' and *sifac* 'a fish' are compared, we notice that the first vowel of the word *sifac* 'a fish' is longer than that of the word *sifac* 'its head'. The length of the vowels serves to differentiate one word from another. The vowels which are relatively long, as in the first vowel of *sifac* 'a fish', will be called **long vowels**. In phonetic transcription the long vowels are marked by a colon (:) after the vowel.

In sections 2.3–2.3.4.4 twelve Kusaiean vowels were presented. The low vowels always occur long, but the other vowels can occur either as short or as long shown in parentheses in the following list.

	Front	*Central*	*Back*
High	(i)	(ɨ)	(u)
Mid	(e)	(ə)	(o)
Low-mid	(ɛ)	(ʌ)	(ɔ)
Low	æ	a	oa

As we see Chart 2, the low vowels [æ], [a] and [oa] always appear long; all the others can appear either as long or short. The following words illustrate the occurrence of long and short vowels.

Spelling	*Phonetic Spelling*	*Gloss*
[i] vs [i:]		
ipip	[ipi:p]	'to roll'
ipip	[i:pi:p]	'lots of parts'
[i] vs [i:]		
pihsrihk	[pişi:k]	'to flick'
kihsrik	[kişi:k]	'rats', 'mice'
srihsrihng	[şişi:ŋ]	'to tattoo'
[u] vs [u:]		
nukum	[nuku:m]	'to wear', 'to cover'
fulus	[fulu:s]	'to paste'
mulut	[mulu:t]	'coal'
kunut	[kunu:t]	'to chew'
[e] vs [e:]		
enenu	[ene:nʌ:]	'need'
epang	[epa:ŋ]	'south'
ema	[em'a:]	'to taste'
eka	[ek'a:]	'reef'
[o] vs [o:]		
lofong	[lofo:ŋ]	'crazy'
tongol	[toŋo:l]	'to knock'
folo	[folo:]	'smell'
sokom	[soko:m]	'to wrap'
[ʌ] vs [ʌ:]		
suhpuh	[sʌpʌ:]	'to send'
kuhruh	[kʌrʌ:]	'to mix'
kuhtuh	[kʌtʌ:]	'some'
muhtuhk	[mʌtʌ:k]	'a fish'
[ɔ] vs [ɔ:]		
kohsroh	[kɔsɔ:]	'sharp'
tohtoh	[tɔtɔ:]	'tired'
rohtoh	[rɔtɔ:]	'west'

CONSONANTS

2.4 Table 1. The Kusaiean consonants.

Manner of Articulation	Type of Consonant	Points of Articulation: Bilabial	Labio-Dental	Dental	Palatal	Velar
Stop	Plain	p		t		k
	Velarized	p'		t'		k'
	Rounded			t''		k''
Fricative	Plain		f	s	ṣ	
	Velarized		f'	s'	ṣ'	
	Rounded			s''	ṣ''	
Nasal	Plain	m		n		ŋ
	Velarized	m'		n'		ŋ'
	Rounded			n''		ŋ''
Lateral	Plain			l		
	Velarized			l'		
	Rounded			l''		
Flap	Plain				r	
	Velarized				r'	
	Rounded				r''	

Table 1 presents the Kusaiean consonants in a systematic way. Horizontally they are grouped under the headings **bilabial**, **labio-dental**, **dental**, **palatal** and **velar**. These are points of articulation. Vertically the consonants are grouped under the heading of the **manner of articulation**. The term **manner of articulation** means the way in which a particular consonant is produced. Each manner of articulation will be explained in the sections immediately following.

Each manner of articulation is further subdivided into three different types: **plain**, **velarized** and **rounded**. The velarized consonants result from pulling the tongue back to the velar point of articulation while pronouncing a plain consonant. The rounded consonants result from rounding the lips and raising the tongue back while pronouncing a plain consonant. In sections (2.4.1–.6), the plain consonants will be presented first, and then the velarized and rounded consonants will be presented in sections 2.4.7.

NAMING THE CONSONANTS

2.4.1 When we want to refer to a particular consonant listed on the chart, the following system is used. The **type** of consonant is given first (plain, velarized, rounded). The **point of articulation** (bilabial, dental, etc.) is given next. Finally, the **manner of articulation** (stop, fricative, nasal, lateral) is given. Following this system the consonant [p] is called a **plain bilabial stop**. The consonant [nˈ] is a **velarized dental nasal**. You may need to refer to Table 1 until these terms become more familiar.

In the Kusaiean orthography *w* is used to mark velarized consonants such as *kw*, *pw* or *lw*. The rounded consonants are marked with *o* when they are followed by the front vowels *e* and *ae*, as in *koet* 'octopus' and *koackoac* 'to husk'. But no specific symbol is used to mark a rounded consonant when it is followed immediately by a round vowel, as in *kulus* 'to peel' or *lop* 'dent.'

STOPS

2.4.2 The stops are produced when the air stream from the lungs is completely blocked somewhere in the mouth. Three points of articulation are important in Kusaiean stops. When the lips are closed together, the air stream is stopped. The resulting sound is called a **bilabial stop**. When the tongue blade touches the alveolar ridge, the air stream is completely stopped. The resulting sound is called a **dental stop**. When the tongue back is raised and touches the velar point of articulation, the airstream is stopped. The resulting sound is called a **velar stop**. Some words with the stops are presented below.

Spelling	*Phonetic Spelling*	*Gloss*
Bilabial stop		
pe	[pe:]	'side'
paht	[pæ:t]	'adrift'
pacl	[pɛ:l]	'time'
Dental stop		
ten	[te:n]	'down'
tahtah	[tæ:tæ:]	'saw'
tep	[te:p]	'to tape'
Velar stop		
kek	[ke:k]	'cake'
kahs	[kæ:s]	'sound, words'
kahl	[kæ:l]	'to touch'

Fricatives

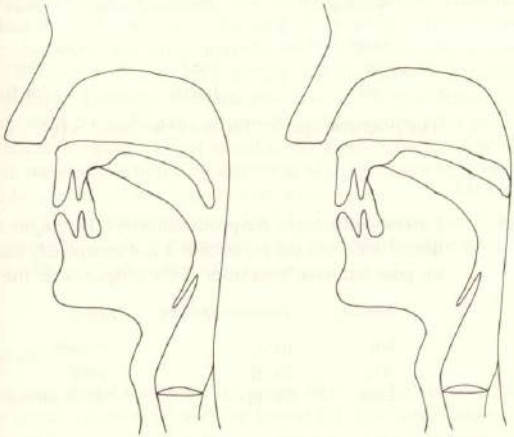
2.4.3 **Fricatives** are produced when the air stream is forced through a narrow opening. The narrow opening is formed when the articulator is brought close to the point of articulation without touching it. There are three points of articulation that are used in making the fricatives in Kusaiean. The **labio-dental fricatives** are produced when the lower lip is brought close to the upper teeth. The **dental fricatives** are produced when the tongue tip is brought close to the upper teeth. The **palatal fricatives** are produced when the front part of the tongue is curled back and brought close to the palate. Some words that have these three plain fricatives are given below.

Spelling	*Phonetic Spelling*	*Gloss*
Labio-dental fricative [f]		
fe	[fe:]	'top'
fahk	[fæ:k]	'to speak'
fahr	[fæ:r]	'cavity'
Dental fricative [s]		
sac	[sɛ:]	'the (sg)'
se	[se:]	'to tear'
sahk	[sæ:k]	'stick'
Palatal fricative [ʂ]		
srah	[ʂæ:]	'blood'
srem	[ʂe:m]	'stuck'
sracl	[ʂɛ:l]	'famine'

The phonetic symbol for the palatal fricative is [ʂ]. This use is necessary because sometimes it is difficult to tell whether *sr* in Kusaiean spelling is a sequence of two consonants as in *arosros* [æ:ro:s-ro:s] or just one consonant as in *asrosr* [æ:ʂo:ʂ].

Nasals

2.4.4 **Nasals** are produced in a similar way to the stops. The air stream is blocked in the mouth. But there is a difference. In the production of stops, the velum is raised against the back part of the nasal cavity and no air can go out. But in the production of nasals, the velum is lowered and the air can go out through the nose.



Facial diagram for [n]

Facial diagram for [t]

Compare the facial diagrams for [n] and [t]. In both diagrams the tongue tip touches the alveolar region. But the velum is slightly lowered for the production of [n], so that the air can pass through the nasal cavity. In the diagram for [t] the velum blocks the passage of the air through the nasal cavity. As occurs with the stops, the air stream is stopped at three points. These are bilabial, dental, and velar points of articulations. Some words which have nasals follow:

Spelling	*Phonetic Spelling*	*Gloss*
Bilabial nasal [m]		
me	[me:]	'to me'
mah	[mæ:]	'grass'
mahng	[mæ:ŋ]	'head'
Dental nasal [n]		
ne	[ne:]	'coconut fiber'
nwek	[nʷe:k]	'net'
nahwuh	[næ:wʌ:]	'to decorate'

Spelling	*Phonetic Spelling*	*Gloss*
Velar nasal [ŋ]		
nge	[ŋe:]	'this', 'here'
ngahs	[ŋæ:s]	'exclamation word'

The phonetic symbol for the velar nasal is [ŋ].

Laterals

2.4.5 **Lateral** consonants are produced when the tongue tip touches the dental area, but the air stream is not completely blocked, and the air goes out over both sides of the tongue, as in the following list.

Spelling	*Phonetic Spelling*	*Gloss*
lah	[læ:]	'branch'
lahs	[læ:s]	'coral'
lahp	[læ:p]	'eldest sibling'

Flap

2.4.6 The **flap** sound is produced when the front part of the tongue is curled back and touches the palate so very lightly and momentarily that the touch can hardly be noticed. The following words have the flap [r].

Spelling	*Phonetic Spelling*	*Gloss*
rahrah	[ræ:ræ:]	'anxious'
rahk	[ræ:k]	'to pour out'
rengreng	[re:ŋre:ŋ]	'unbalanced'

Velarized and Rounded Consonants

2.4.7 It was pointed out earlier that the consonants are divided into three types: plain, velarized and rounded. (See 2.4) In the preceding sections (2.4.2–.6), only the plain consonants were discussed. We have observed how each of the plain consonants is produced.

The plain consonants can be modified in a significant way. When the words *ten* 'down' and *twen* 'to wash' are compared, the phonetic difference between them lies in the first consonants. When the first sound of the word *twen* 'to wash' is pronounced, the back part of the tongue is pulled back and raised close to the

velar point of articulation. Thus we have a velarized consonant. When the word *nge* [ŋe:] 'this' and the word *ngoe* [ŋ''e:] 'turtle' are compared, we notice that the lips are considerably rounded for the first sound of *ngoe* [ŋ''e:] 'turtle' which is a rounded consonant. The term **velarized**, then, means the modification of a consonant by pulling the tongue back close to the velar point of articulation, as in the first sound of the word *twen* 'to wash'. The term **rounded** means the modification of a consonant by rounding the lips, as in the first sound of the word *ngoe*.

In the following sections 2.4.7.1–.4. the three different types of consonants will be examined. The consonants will be discussed according to their points of articulation.

ntal Consonants

.7.1 The term **dental consonant** is a cover term for the dental stop [t], the dental fricative [s] and the lateral [l]. The three consonants are similar to each other because the tongue tip is brought close to the upper teeth or touches the upper teeth.

The velarized dental consonants are [t'], [s'] and [l']. The point of articulation for the velarized dental consonants is a little different from the plain dental consonants. As the back of the tongue is pulled back and raised close to the velar area, the front part of the tongue is naturally pulled backward and the point of articulation changes from the dental to the alveolar region.

The rounded dental stops are [t''], [s''] and [l'']. The point of articulation for the rounded dental stops is little different from that of the plain dental stops. The major difference is that the lips are rounded. Sample words which illustrate the three different types of dental consonants are presented below.

Spelling	*Phonetic Spelling*	*Gloss*
Dental stop		
te	[te:]	'near the seashore'
twe	[t'e:]	'to chop'
intoe	[int''e:]	'to look'
Dental fricative		
se	[se:]	'one'
swe	[s'e:]	'to bring to me'
soen	[s''e:n]	'not yet'

Spelling	*Phonetic Spelling*	*Gloss*
Dental nasal		
ne	[ne:]	'hibiscus'
nwe	[nʲe:]	'until'
nonoe	[nonʲʲe:]	'to hit'
Lateral		
lele	[le:le:]	'a name of a person'
lwe	[lʲe:]	'branch'
loe	[lʲʲe:]	'to cover'

Labial Consonants

2.4.7.2 The term **labial consonants** is a cover term for the bilabial stop [p], the nasal [m], and the labio-dental fricative [f]. All these consonants use the lips. There are only two different types of labial consonants: plain and velarized. When the plain bilabial stop [p] (as in the word *pe* 'side') is pronounced, the tongue blade comes into contact with the lower teeth. But when the velarized bilabial stop [pʲ] (as in *pwepwe* 'an exclamation') is pronounced, the tongue back is raised close to the velar point of articulation and the tongue blade is not in contact with the lower teeth. The two different types of labial consonants are presented below.

Spelling	*Phonetic Spelling*	*Gloss*
Bilabial stop		
pac	[pɛ:]	'also'
pwacpa	[pʲɛ:pʲa:]	'to discuss'
pe	[pe:]	'side'
pwepwe	[pʲe:pʲe:]	'exclamation word'
Labio-dental fricative		
fac	[fɛ:]	'on top of it'
fwac	[fʲɛ:]	'its nose'
fe	[fe:]	'top'
fwefwe	[fʲe:fʲe:]	'surprised'
Bilabial nasal		
me	[me:]	'to the speaker'
mwemwe	[mʲe:mʲe:]	'to dream'
macmac	[mɛ:mɛ:]	'to eat (baby talk)'
mwacta	[mʲɛ:tʲa:]	'sin', 'fault'

Palatal Consonants

2.4.7.3 The term **palatal consonants** is a cover term for the retroflex palatal fricative [ʂ] and flap [ɾ]. The point of articulation for the two consonants is the palatal region. The palatal consonants have the plain, velarized, and the rounded types. The three different types of palatal consonants are presented below.

Spelling	*Phonetic Spelling*	*Gloss*
Retroflex palatal fricative		
srac	[ʂɛ:]	'a personal name'
srwacsra	[ʂˈɛ:ʂˈa:]	'scaly'
sroacnu	[ʂˈˈɛ:nu:]	'coconut leaf'
Flap		
rengreng	[re:ŋre:ŋ]	'unbalanced'
orweyac	[orˈe:yɛ:]	'bent down'
roe	[ɾˈˈe:]	'broken'

Velar Consonants

2.4.7.4 The term **velar consonants** is a cover term for the velar stop and velar nasal. The velar consonants have plain velarized and rounded types. Sample words illustrating the three types of consonants are presented below.

Spelling	*Phonetic Spelling*	*Gloss*
Velar stop		
ke	[ke:]	'about'
kwe	[kˈe:]	'to move the upper part'
koekoe	[kˈˈe:kˈˈe:]	'to husk'
Velar nasal		
nge	[ŋe:]	'this', 'here'
ngwe	[ŋˈe:]	'look!'
ngoe	[ŋˈˈe:]	'turtle'

GLIDES

2.5 The glides are speech sounds that are very close to the high vowels [i], [i] and [u] in articulation. For the first sound of the word

yenyen [yˈe:nyˈe:n] 'a village name', the front part of the tongue is raised, but it is raised a little higher than for the high front vowel [i]. For the first sound of the word *won* [wˈo:n] 'bird', the tongue back is raised and the lips are rounded. The back part of the tongue for pronouncing [wˈ] is a little higher than for [u]. The glides are similar to high vowels in articulation, but they are not identical. In a syllable, the high vowels can be a syllable nucleus (See Section 2.6), but the glides cannot. In the syllable structure, the glides behave as consonants rather than as vowels. So the glides are sometimes called **semi-consonants** or **semi-vowels**.

Like the consonants, the Y glides in Kusaiean are of three different types: plain, velarized and rounded. Like the labial consonants, the W glides are of two types. All the different glides are listed below.

	Y Glide	*W Glide*
plain	y	
velarized	yˈ	wˈ
rounded	yˈˈ	wˈˈ

The Y glides are similar to the high front vowel [i]. The Y glides will be called **high front glides**. The W glides are similar to the high back round vowel [u], and therefore will be called **high back glides**.

High Front Glides

2.5.1 There are plain, velarized and rounded high front glides. The descriptions of velarization and rounding for the consonants (See 2.4.7) can also be applied to the glides. For the pronunciation of the velarized glide [yˈ], the back part of the tongue is raised close to the velum, and for the pronunciation of [yˈˈ] the lips are rounded.

Plain high front glide: [y]

2.5.1.1 In word-initial position, [y] is not heard clearly. But in the other positions, [y] is heard more clearly. Compare the two words *eng* 'wind' and *engyeng* 'windy'. The second word results from repeating the first word. Before the second [e] in *engyeng*, a [y] glide is heard clearly. A few more examples are presented below.

Spelling	*Phonetic Spelling*	*Gloss*
em	[e:m]	'a canoe part'
fak*y*em	[fˈa:kye:m]	'a canoe part'
etuh	[etʌ:]	'to know'
sa*y*etuh	[sa:yetˈʌ:]	'know well'
ekuh	[ekʌ:]	'evening'
o*y*ekuh	[oye:kʌ:]	'this evening'

Velarized high front glide: [yˈ]

2.5.1.2 The velarized high front glide [yˈ] can be heard clearly regardless of its position in a word. The following words have [yˈ] initially. This sound can appear before the front, central, and back round vowels.

Spelling	*Phonetic Spelling*	*Gloss*
yor	[yˈo:r]	'to see'
ye	[yˈe:]	'under'
yenyen	[yˈe:nyˈe:n]	'a name of an island in Lelu'
yuh	[yˈə:]	'delicious'
yihyih	[yˈi:yˈi:]	'to bathe'

If the two words *enyen* [e:nye:n] 'to bail out' and *yenyen* [yˈe:nyˈe:n] 'village name' are pronounced one after the other, the difference between [y] and [yˈ] can be noticed.

Rounded high front glide: [yʷ]

2.5.1.3 The words below have the rounded high front glide [yʷ].

Spelling	*Phonetic Spelling*	*Gloss*
yoacl	[yʷɛ:l]	'a village name'
yoacyoac	[yʷɛ:yʷɛ:]	'to stick out one's tongue'
yuwac	[yʷuwˈɛ:]	'chest'

HIGH BACK GLIDES

2.5.2 Kusaiean has both velarized and rounded high back glides. For the articulation of the velarized high back glide [wˈ], the back of the tongue is pulled back close to the velum. The lips are rounded for the velarized and rounded high back glides [wˈ] and [wʷ].

Velarized high back glide: [w^{l}]

2.5.2.1 This glide occurs before the front vowels, the central vowels, and the back round vowels except before [æ] and [oa]. The words below have the velarized high back glide.

Spelling	*Phonetic Spelling*	*Gloss*
wi	[wi:]	'to accompany'
wihn	[wi:n]	'just'
we	[we:]	'there'
wuhn	[wə:n]	'to carry'
won	[wo:n]	'bird'
wac	[wɛ:]	'sea-slug'
woht	[wɔ:t]	'to vomit'
wohl	[wɔ:l]	'wet'
wan	[wa:n]	'love'
wal	[wa:l]	'a rank'
watwen	[wa:twe:n]	'brave'
wasrwasr	[wa:ṣwa:ṣ]	'a kind of taro'

Old Kusaiean speakers pronounce the velarized back round glide with a heavy nasal quality. [w^{l}] used to be written as *mw*. The word *wo* 'good' used to be written as *mwo* and the word *won* 'bird' used to be written as *mwon*.

Rounded high back glide: [w^{ll}]

2.5.2.2 The rounded high back glide [w^{ll}] is difficult to hear before the back round vowels at the beginning of a word. But it can be heard elsewhere. The word *olwol* is a reduplicated form of *ol* 'to pick'. Before the first *o*, [w^{ll}] can hardly be heard, but before the second *o*, [w^{ll}] can be heard. Some further examples are presented below.

Spelling	*Phonetic Spelling*	*Gloss*
atwat	[a:tw^{ll}a:t]	'loose'
opop	[o:pw^{ll}o:p]	'poison fish'
owo	[o:w^{ll}o:]	'to wash'

The rounded high back glide before the low central vowel is heard like [o] or [ɔ], rather than [w^{ll}]. The word *inwacluh* [i:nw^{ll}ɛ:lʌ:] 'mouth' has another form *oal* [oa:l].

The sound [w''] before the low-mid front vowel [ɛ] is heard as [w''], but before the low central vowel [a] it sounds like [o]. Some further examples are presented below.

Spelling	*Phonetic Spelling*	*Gloss*
oan	[oa:n]	'to lie', 'to sit'
oal	[oa:l]	'eight'
oasr	[oa:s]	'to be, to exist'

The three words above can be compared with the three words below, which have the velarized high back glide.

wan	[w'a:n]	'love'
wal	[w'a:l]	'rank'
wasrwasr	[w'a:sw'a:s]	'a kind of taro'

THE SYLLABLE

2.6 The individual Kusaiean speech sounds have been examined in the preceding sections (2.1–.5). But when these sounds are used in actual Kusaiean speech, they are not pronounced as individual sounds. Instead, a group of sounds is pronounced as a unit. The smallest unit that is usually pronounced by itself is called a **syllable**. If a Kusaiean speaker is asked to pronounce the word *muhtwacta* 'to wander' very slowly, he would say *muh·twac·ta*. (The symbol · is used to indicate syllable breaks.) But he would not say *muhtw·ac·ta* or *muh·twact·a*. The three units *muh·twac·ta* of the word *muhtwacta* are syllables; it is therefore a **three-syllable** word. Words like *ka* 'hook' and *tak* 'to rise' are made up of one syllable; they are called **monosyllabic** words.

STRUCTURE OF THE SYLLABLE

2.6.1 A syllable consists of a vowel, and optional consonants before and after the vowel. The vowel is essential in a syllable and is called the **syllable nucleus**. A vowel alone can form a syllable, but a consonant alone can not. The glides in a syllable behave like the consonants. (See 2.5) It is convenient to use the symbol C as a cover symbol for all consonants and glides and V as a cover symbol for all the vowels. Using these symbols we can describe the following possible syllable structures for Kusaiean.

Spelling	*Phonetic Spelling*	*Gloss*
C V C (Closed syllable)		
sun	[su:n]	'to meet'
ton	[to:n]	'eel'
sap	[sa:p]	'to order'
V C (Closed syllable)		
ik	[i:k]	'fish'
eng	[e:ŋ]	'wind'
op	[o:p]	'a plant'
C V (Open syllable)		
lah	[læ:]	'branch'
ka	[ka:]	'hook'
pa	[pa:]	'bait'
V (Open syllable)		
e	[e:]	'fire'
ah	[æ:]	'string'
u	[u:]	'group'

In Kusaiean syllables not more than one consonant is allowed before or after the syllable nucleus. When a syllable nucleus is followed by a consonant, the syllable is called a **closed syllable**. When a syllable nucleus is not followed by a consonant, the syllable is called an **open syllable**.

Syllable and Vowel Length

2.6.2 We have seen that there are short and long vowels in Kusaiean. (See 2.3.5) The short vowels are very restricted in their occurrence within a word. In monosyllable words, short vowels do not occur; monosyllable words always contain a long vowel. In two-syllable words, the vowel in the first syllable can be short, but not the vowel in the second syllable. Words like *etong* [eto:ŋ] 'firewood' in which the first vowel is short and the second vowel is long are quite common. Words like *elel* [e:le:l] 'to rub' in which both vowels are long are also quite common. But two-syllable words in which both vowels are short, or the first vowel is long and the second vowel is short, do not occur. Examination of three-syllable words, also, shows that the short vowels can occur in the first syllable but nowhere else.

Some examples are presented below to illustrate what has been said in the preceding paragraph.

Monosyllable words

The vowel is always long.

Spelling	*Gloss*
pa	'bait'
ye	'under'
se	'one'
nu	'coconut'
kut	'louse'

Two syllable words (1)

The first vowel is short and the second vowel is long in the words presented below.

Spelling	*Phonetic Spelling*	*Gloss*
epal	[ep'a:l]	'a fish'
oruh	[orʌ:]	'to make', 'to do'
siki	[siki:]	'to pull'
usruk	[uṣu:k]	'to shake'
pihsrihk	[piṣi:k]	'to flick'

Two-syllable words (2)

The first and the second vowels of the words below are both long.

Spelling	*Phonetic Spelling*	*Gloss*
pahpah	[pæ:pæ:]	'father'
fahfah	[fæ:fæ:]	'poi'
nacni	[nɛ:ni:]	'goat'
ungung	[u:ŋu:ŋ]	'lobster'
titi	[ti:ti:]	'breast'

Three-syllable words (1)

The first vowels in the words below are short. The following two vowels are long.

Spelling	*Phonetic Spelling*	*Gloss*
efuhkuh	[efʌ:kʌ:]	'why'
elahwet	[elæ:we:t]	'naughty'
orahkrahk	[oræ:kræ:k]	'to crawl'
okahrkahr	[okæ:rkæ:r]	'messy'

Three-syllable words (2)

The three vowels in each of the words below are all long.

Spelling	*Phonetic Spelling*	*Gloss*
lahsrkahkihn	[la:ʂrkæ:ki:n]	'to pour out'
topkackihn	[to:pkɛ:ki:n]	'to turn over'
loksahki	[lo:ksæ:ki:]	'to stifle'

There are words with more than three syllables in which short vowels occur only in the first syllables. Some words with four-syllables which illustrate this are presented below.

Spelling	*Phonetic Spelling*	*Gloss*
lihpacrongrong	[li.pɛ:.ro:ŋ.ro:ŋ]	'sounds of waves'
lokoaloki	[lo.kʷa:.lo:k.i:]	'to bother'

To summarize, we observed that a short vowel can occur only in the first syllable of a word that is made up of more than two syllables. However, in a complex word which has a prefix such as *a-* (reciprocal prefix) or *ahk-* (causative prefix), a short vowel can occur in the second syllable. The words listed below have short vowels in the first syllables.

Spelling	*Phonetic Spelling*	*Gloss*
foko	[fo.ko:]	'strong'
ikor	[i.ko:r]	'fall'
lofong	[lo.fo:ng]	'crazy'
mihnini	[mi.ni:.ni:.]	'thin'

The words listed above can be used with the causative prefix *ahk-* as in the following:

Spelling	*Phonetic Spelling*	*Gloss*
ahkfoko	[æ:k.fo.ko:]	'make strong', 'strengthen'
ahkikor	[æ:k.i.ko:r]	'topple'
ahklofong	[æ:k.lo.fo:ng]	'make crazy'
ahkmihnini	[æ:k.mi.ni:.ni:]	'make thin'

The syllable *fo* in *foko* is the first syllable and it is short. But the same syllable *fo* in *ahkfoko* is the second syllable. In a prefixed word, the second syllable can be short.

STRESS

2.7 A word is made up of one or more syllables. When we pronounce words of two or more syllables, one syllable is pronounced with

greater force or loudness than the surrounding syllables. The word *taptap* 'to juggle' is made up of two syllables. The first syllable is exactly the same as the second one as far as the consonants and the vowels are concerned. But they are different from each other in that the first syllable is pronounced with greater force than the second one. The term **stress** is used to refer to this relative force or loudness. The term **stressed syllable** will refer to the syllable of a word which receives the stress.

There are different degrees of stress. For example, the word *kasrkuhsrak* 'angered' has three syllables. The degree of stress on each syllable is different. The loudest stress falls on the second syllable *kuh*. The next loudest (or secondary) stress falls on the first syllable *kasr*, and the weakest stress falls on the last syllable *srak*. A close investigation of stress in Kusaiean will reveal that there are actually more than three degrees of stress, as we see in the word *kasrkuhsrak*. But in this section we will concern ourselves only with the loudest, or primary, stress.

Stress Pattern

2.7.1 In Kusaiean the strongest stress within a word falls on the next to the last syllable, also known as the **penultimate syllable**. This means that the first syllable of two-syllable words receives the strongest stress. Observe the following examples. (The stress will be marked with the symbol ˊ above the vowel.)

Spelling	*Phonetic Spelling*	*Gloss*
fahfah	[fǽ:fæ:]	'poi'
pahpah	[pǽ:pæ:]	'father'
kahkah	[kǽ:kæ:]	'a bird'
katkat	[kǽ:tkæ:t]	'a bird'
oaoa	[oǽ:oæ:]	'lots of vines'
noanoa	[noǽ:noæ:]	'wavy'
loangloang	[loǽ:ŋloæ:ŋ]	'swarming with flies'
puhkpuhk	[pʌ́:kpʌ:k]	'sandy'
suhpuh	[sʌ́pʌ:]	'to send'
kuhtuh	[kʌ́tʌ:]	'some'
lohloh	[lɔ́:lɔ:]	'to step'
kohkoh	[kɔ́:kɔ:]	'to lead'
kihkih	[kí:ki:]	'bent'
liki	[lí:ki:]	'from'
titi	[tí:ti:]	'breast'

Spelling	*Phonetic Spelling*	*Gloss*
kihsrihk	[kiṣi:k]	'animal'
tihltihl	[ti:lti:l]	'sinking'
ungung	[ú:ŋu:ŋ]	'lobster'
usruk	[úṣu:k]	'to shake'
tultul	[tú:ltu:l]	'dripping'

Words of three syllables have the strongest stress on the second syllable. Look at the following words.

Spelling	*Phonetic Spelling*	*Gloss*
muhlahlah	[mʌlæ:læ:]	'light'
alsrwacngwes	[a:lṣ'é:ŋ'e:s]	'bored'
emasrihk	[emá:ṣi:k]	'tasty'
erarrar	[erá:rra:r]	'rattling'
fulohfohl	[fulɔ́:fɔ:l]	'to twist'
kuhrwacra	[kʌr'é:ra:]	'to scratch'
mihnini	[miní:ni:]	'thin'
puhlakfohn	[pʌlá:kfɔ:n]	'stupid'

Stress Shift

2.7.2 We have observed that the primary stress falls on the second syllable from the last. This rule holds true when a word has suffixes attached and the number of syllables increases. Notice how the syllable that carries the primary stress shifts when the word is suffixed. (See 3.2 for the definition and kinds of suffixes.) The word *futung* [fútu:ŋ] 'to kick' can have the following suffixed forms.

Spelling	*Phonetic Spelling*	*Gloss*
fotonguhl	[fotó:ŋɔ:l]	'kick him'
fotonglah	[fotó:ŋlæ:]	'kick away'
fotonguhllah	[foto:ŋɔ́:llæ]	'kick him away'
fotongyuhwi	[foto:ŋyɔ́:wi]	'kick me down'

Look at the following additional examples. As the number of syllables increases, the position of the primary stress also shifts.

Spelling	*Phonetic Spelling*	*Gloss*
muhlahlah	[mʌlæ:læ:]	'light'
muhlahlahyak	[mʌlæ:lé:ya:k]	'become light'

Spelling	*Phonetic Spelling*	*Gloss*
ahkos	[æ:ko:s]	'to obey'
ahkostwen	[æ:kó:st'e:n]	'obeying well'

INTONATION

2.8 When a Kusaiean speaker utter the following sentence, the pitch —a term which is used to refer to the relative highness or lowness of one's voice—of his voice does not remain the same.

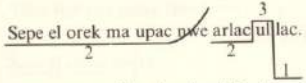
Sepe el ikori.
'Sepe fell down.'

The pitch of his voice may fluctuate in different ways. But the fluctuation is not random; it occurs in certain patterns. The term **intonation** is used to refer to a pattern of melody consisting of different pitches.

Pitch Levels

2.8.1 There are four pitch levels: the highest (4), the high (3), the mid (2) and the low (1). The highest pitch level is often used to emphasize part of a sentence. The high pitch level is used for the stressed parts of a sentence. The mid pitch level is the normal pitch level. The low pitch level is used for the unstressed syllables towards the end of a sentence.

We can indicate the **intonation contour** of a sentence by numbering the levels used. Look at the following sentence in which the pitch levels are marked. The slant line indicates that the pitch changes in a syllable.



'Sepe was working hard and finally got tired.'

Intonation and Meaning

2.8.2 In the following conversation, the personal pronoun *el* 'he' is used twice.

Question: Suc orek ma mihsenge?
'Who is working today?'

Answer: *El.*
'He.'

Question: *El?*
'He?'

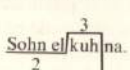
But the two pronouns have different meanings. The first *el* is a simple answer to the preceding question, whereas the second *el* has a different meaning such as 'I doubt it. Is *he* really working today?'

The different meanings of *el* are conveyed by the different intonations. The first *el* starts from the high pitch level (3) and ends on the low pitch level (1). On the other hand, the second *el* starts from the mid pitch level (2) and ends on the high pitch level (3). This shows that the meaning of a word can be changed by intonation.

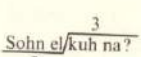
Intonation changes not only the meaning of a word, but also the meaning of a sentence. The following sentence, for example, can have two different meanings, depending upon the intonation.

Sohn el kuh na. 'John is well.'
'Is John well?'

When the sentence above is uttered with the following intonation, it is a statement:



On the other hand, when the same sentence is uttered with the following intonation, it becomes a question:

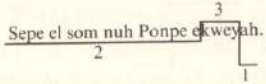


The only difference between the two intonations above is that, in the case of the statement, the last syllable *na* carries the low pitch level (1), whereas in the case of the question, the last syllable *na* is pronounced with the same pitch level as *kuh*.

Intonation Patterns

2.8.3 There are two major intonation patterns in Kusaiean: **rise-fall**

intonation pattern and **rising intonation pattern**. The rise-fall intonation pattern starts on the mid pitch level and ends on the low pitch level. Between the mid pitch level and the low pitch level there is at least one stressed syllable which is uttered with the high pitch. The following sentence will illustrate.

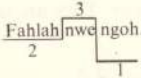


'Did Sepe go to Ponape yesterday?'

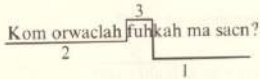
In the following paragraphs, we will examine some uses of the two intonation patterns.

Rise-fall Intonation Pattern

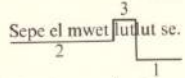
2.8.3.1 The rise-fall intonation pattern is used when a speaker makes a statement, issues a command or asks a question with question words such as *suc* 'who', *fuhkah* 'how', or *meah* 'what'. Look at the following example sentences. They are all marked by the rise-fall intonation pattern.



'Go way over there.'



'How did you make that thing?'

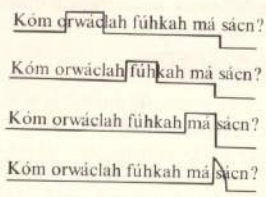


'Sepe is a student.'

It must be remembered that the intonation contours marked on the three sentences above are not the only possible contours. In a sentence, you will note, there can be more than one stressed syllable. Any of the stressed syllables can be uttered with a high pitch. For example, in the following sentence the stressed syllables are marked by the accent marker (').

Kóm orwáclah fúhkah má sácn?
'How did you make that thing?'

At least the following four intonation contours are possible for the same sentence.



The high pitch occurs in different places in the sentences above, but the general pattern of mid pitch-high pitch-low pitch does not change.

Rising Intonation Pattern

2.8.3.2 The rising intonation pattern is used when one asks a question which is to be answered with either *ahok* 'yes' or *moh* 'no'. Look at the following example sentences. They are marked by rising intonation.

3
Kom molelah oak soko ah kefyac met ah?
2
'Did you buy the canoe last year?'

3
Monog ah oreklac nuh kefkuhfa sac?
2
'Is the food made for the feast?'

Sentences with Two Intonation Patterns

2.8.3.3 Some sentences can have two intonation patterns. When one wants to ask a question using the conjunction *kuh*, both rising and rise-fall intonation patterns are used. In the following question the conjunction *kuh* 'or' is used. The part preceding *kuh* has the rising intonation, and the part following the conjunction has the rise-fall intonation pattern.

Kom ac som nuh Ponpe kuh Kuam?

'Will you go to Ponape or Guam?'

El masack yohfong kuh fong?

'Did he become sick the night before last night or last night?'

Both rising and rise-fall intonation patterns are used when one presents items in a series. The last item has the rise-fall intonational pattern, but the preceding items have the rising intonation pattern. Some examples are presented below.

Ninac el molelah nuknuk fohn, tuhrasis, sori ac suhtakihn se.

'Mother bought shirts, trousers, slippers and stockings.'

Pahpah el kuhkakuhnlah pik soko, oak soko ac lohm sasuh se.

'Father sold one pig, one canoe and a new house.

3 Structures of Words

MORPHEMES

3.1 In this section, we will observe how Kusaiean words are structured. A syllable, we stated, is made up of a vowel and consonant(s) and words are made up of one or more than one syllable. *Pihsr* is a one-syllable and *pihsrihk* is a two-syllable word. The word *lahsrkahkihn* is a three syllable word. In chapter 2, words were examined in terms of the way they are pronounced. In this section, words will be examined from a different angle.

When two words like *kahto* and *suhkahto* are compared, it is clear that they are related to each other in their form and meaning. But they are not the same. *Kahto* means 'pretty' but *suhkahto* means 'not pretty'. The difference in meaning seems to come from the element *suh-* before *kahto*. This suggests that the word *suhkahto* can be divided into two elements *suh-* and *kahto*. But the two elements *suh-* and *kahto* cannot be further divided into smaller meaningful elements. The term **morpheme** is used to refer to linguistic elements such as *suh-* and *kahto* which can not be reduced further to smaller meaningful units. Thus, *suh-* and *kahto* are morphemes. *Kahto* is also a word because it can stand alone without *suh-*. On the other hand, *suh-* is not a word because it can not be used by itself. *Suh-* must be attached to a word. A morpheme is a linguistic unit which is similar to a word. Sometimes a morpheme is also a word, as in the case of *kahto*; at other times a morpheme is not a word (for example *suh-*) because it must be attached to something else.

Some further examples of the morpheme *suh-* are presented below. The hyphen will be used to indicate the morpheme boundary in the remainder of 3.1 through 3.4. It is used to facilitate the discussion. It is not used in the Kusaiean orthography.

Spelling	*Gloss*
suh-kahlwem	'not bright'
suh-muhi	'not speedy'
suh-fal	'not enough'
suh-fas	'not normal'

The first word listed above is a three-syllable word. The three syllables are *suh*, *kah*, and *lwem*. The first syllable *suh* has a meaning, but the second and the third syllables do not have separate meanings. The second and third syllables have meaning as a unit. Morphemes and syllables do not have a one-to-one correspondence. Sometimes, we can find words whose syllables are morphemes. An example is the word *suh-fal*. It is a two-syllable word. Each syllable is a morpheme. It is an accidental case. In many cases, we find that monosyllable words are made up of two morphemes. The word *srahk* 'my blood' is a mono-syllable word. But it is made up of two morphemes *srah* 'blood' and *-k* 'my'.

Let us observe another word, *puhki* 'to spread sand on'. The word *puhk* means 'sand' and *puhk* with another element *i* means 'to spread sand on'. *Puhk* can not be subdivided nor can *i* be subdivided into smaller meaningful elements. So the word *puhki* is made up of two morphemes, *puhk* and *-i*. Some additional words with the morpheme *-i* are presented below.

Spelling	*Gloss*
laim-i	'to apply lemon juice to'
fihkar-i	'to spread pebbles on'
suka-i	'to add sugar to'

To summarize, words are made up of one or more than one morpheme. The term **morpheme** is defined as the smallest meaningful unit that makes up a word or a part of a word. Morphemes in a word do not always have a one-to-one correspondence with the syllables in a word.

TYPES OF MORPHEMES

3.2 In the preceding section, the following morphemes have been examined. They are:

Spelling	*Gloss*
suh-	'not'

Spelling	*Gloss*
kahto	'pretty'
puhk	'sand'
-i	'to spread or to apply'

The four morphemes above can be grouped into two types. Morphemes such as *kahto* and *puhk* can be used alone without any other morphemes. But morphemes such as *suh-* and *-i* can not be used alone. They must be used with some other morphemes. The morphemes which can occur alone without any other morphemes are called **free morphemes**. The morphemes which can not occur alone are called **bound morphemes**.

There are two kinds of bound morphemes. The bound morpheme *suh-* always occurs before another morpheme as in *suh-kahto*. The term **prefix** is used to refer to bound morphemes such as *suh-* which occur before another morpheme. The bound morpheme *-i*, on the other hand, occurs after another morpheme, as in *puhk-i*. The term **suffix** is used to refer to morphemes such as *-i* which occur after another morpheme.

There is another special type of bound morpheme. Let us observe the words *mutul* and *mutmutul*. *Mutul* means 'to sleep' and *mutmutul* means 'to sleep continuously'. The difference in meaning seems to come from the first element *mut*. But *mut* can not occur alone. It is a kind of bound morpheme. If *mut* in *mut-mutul* is examined carefully, it becomes clear that *mut* is a repetition of the first three segments of *mutul*. The term **reduplication** is used to refer to bound morphemes such as *mut* which are derived from repeating a portion or a whole of another morpheme. (See 5.12.1 for different types of reduplications.)

Reduplicated morphemes are different from the other bound morphemes in the following respects. First, bound morphemes such as *suh-* and *-i* have fixed forms; that is, they are always pronounced the same way. But the bound morphemes of reduplication vary in their forms from word to word, depending upon the shape of the morpheme to be reduplicated. Observe the following reduplications.

Spelling	*Gloss*
pihsr-pihsrihk	'to flick repeatedly'
fur-furok	'to turn again and again'
pat-patihk	'to hammer repeatedly'
ik-jkihl	'to turn back repeatedly'

Second, the bound morphemes such as *suh-* and *-i* have fixed meanings. But the bound morphemes of reduplication vary in their meaning from one word-class to another. (See 5.12.2 for explanation for *word-class*.)

Compare the following pairs of words:

Spelling	*Gloss*
fa	'fern'
fa-fa	'lots of ferns'
srihk	'small'
srih-srihk	'rather small'
ipihs	'to roll'
ip-ipihs	'to roll again and again'

To summarize, there are two different types of morphemes, free morphemes and bound morphemes. The bound morphemes are of two types, prefixes and suffixes. The number of bound morphemes is very limited. They are listed below with their names and meanings, together with some examples.

Prefixes	*Name, Meaning*	*Examples*	*Gloss*
	Reciprocal		
a-	'each other'	a-luhngse-i	'to love each other'
		a-koase-i	'to hate each other'
	'together'	a-riti	'to read together'
	Causative		
ahk-	'to make'	ahk-pwacr-ye	'to make happy'
	'to cause'	ahk-ahsor-ye	'to make sad'
		ahk-fal-ye	'to make fit'
	Ordinalizer		
ahk-		ahk-se	'first'
		ahk-tolu	'third'
		ahk-onkohsr	'sixth'

Prefixes	*Name, Meaning*	*Examples*	*Gloss*
	Negative		
suh-		suh-lahlkuhng	'not bright'
		suh-kahsruhp	'not rich'
		suh-kahlwem	'not bright, dark'

Suffixes	*Name, Meaning*	*Examples*	*Gloss*
	Possessive		
-k	'my'	niyuh-k	'my leg'
-m	'your'	niyo-m	'your leg'
-l	'his or her'	niyac-l	'his leg'
-sr	'our'	niyac-sr	'our leg'
-n	'of'	niye-n	'leg of'
	Directional		
-ma	'to the speaker'	furok-ma	
-oht	'to the listener'	furok-oht	
-lah	'away from'	furok-lah	
-acng	'toward'	furok-acng	
-ack	'up'	furok-ack	
-yac	'down'	furok-yac	
-eni	'together'	furok-eni	
-elihk	'apart, asunder'	furok-elihk	
	Verbalizer		
-i	'to add or to spray'	laim-i	'to add lemon juice'
	Instrumental		
-kihn	'with'	for-kihn	'to turn with'
	'because of'	mas-kihn	'sick because of'
	Adjectivizer		
-twen	'keen in'	loang-twen	'keen in hearing'
	'adept at'	sruok-twen	'adept at catching'

Suffixes	*Name, Meaning*	*Examples*	*Gloss*
	Passive		
-yuhk		liye-yuhk	'to be seen'
		furok-yuhk	'to be turned'
	Norminalizer		
-iyac		liye-iyac	'seeing'
		furok-iyac	'turning'

The directional suffixes have the dual function of denoting directions and aspects. The use of the directional suffixes will be taken up in 6.3. The use of the possessive suffixes will be examined in section 4.1.3. The use of the other bound morphemes will again be examined in Chapter 5.

STEM AND TYPES OF WORDS

3.3 In section 3.1, the words *suhkahto* and *puhki* were examined. Both words are made up of one free morpheme and one bound morpheme. But there are many words which are more complex than *sukahto* or *puhki*. Some words are made up of one free morpheme with more than one bound morpheme. Others are made up of more than two free morphemes with or without bound morphemes. In this section we will observe words of different structures.

The word *twetwe* 'to wash' can take the instrumental suffix *-kihn* 'with' as in *twetwe-kihn* 'to wash with'. (The hyphen is used to show morpheme boundaries.) The word *twetwe-kihn* can take the suffix *-yuhk*, as in *twetwe-kihn-yuhk* 'to be used in washing'. The term **stem** is used to refer to a morpheme or a combination of morphemes to which a suffix can be added. *Twetwe* in *twetwe-kihn* is a stem to which the suffix *-kihn* is added. *Twetwe-kihn* in *twetwe-kihn-yuhk* is made up of two morphemes, but it is a stem to which the suffix *-yuhk* is added. The word *twetwe-kihn-yuhk* can be a stem to which the suffix *-lac* can be attached, as in *twetwe-kihn-yuhk-lac*. The word *twetwe-kihn-yuhk-lac* 'to have been sharpened with' is made up of one free morpheme *twetwe* and three suffixes.

The word *ahsor* 'sad' can take the prefix *suh-*, as in *suh-ahsor* 'not sad'. *Suh-ahsor* again can take the causative prefix *ahk-* as in *ahk-suh-ahsor*. This word can take the suffix *-ye* as in *ahk-suh-*

ahsor-ye 'to make unsad'. So the word *ahk-suh-ahsor-ye* is made up of one free morpheme, *ahsor*, with two prefixes and one suffix. Some words are made up of two free morphemes such as *lohm nuknuk* 'tent', which is made up of *lohm* 'house' and *nuknuk* 'cloth'.

We have observed a few very complex words. In terms of their structures, words can be classified into three different types: simple, complex and compound words. **Simple words** are those that are made up of single free morphemes such as *kang* 'to eat' and *mos* 'breadfruit'. **Complex words** are those that are made up of single free morphemes with one or more bound morphemes such as *twetwekihn* 'to wash with'. **Compound words** are those that are made up of more than one free morpheme with or without suffixes. Some example words of three different types are presented below.

Simple Words	
fukul	'to break'
tihngtihng	'tight'
tak	'to rise'
ngwes	'to aim'
engan	'happy'
Complex Words	
a-luhngse-i	'to love each other'
owo-kihn-yuhk	'to be washed with'
kang-lah	'to have eaten'
loang-twen	'good at hearing'
Compound Words	
lohm sacnri	'church' [house—Sunday]
lohm oak	'canoe house' [house—canoe]
lohm ono	'hospital' [house—medicine]
oak sohk	'airplane' [canoe—to fly]
owo nuknuk kihn	'wash-cloth-with'

MORPHOPHONEMIC CHANGES

3.4 In the preceding sections, we have observed that words are made up of one or more than one morpheme. In some cases, morphemes undergo changes in form when they are followed by other morphemes. The transitive verb *fihkari* 'to spread pebbles over' is changed into *fihkare* when it is followed by the directional

suffix *-lah* as in *fihkarelah* 'to have spread pebbles over completely'. The term **morphophonemic change** is used to refer to changes that take place in the form of morphemes when two or more than two morphemes become adjacent.

Morphophonemic changes generally take place in the following cases:

1. Inalienable nouns: When inalienable nouns are followed by the possessive pronoun suffixes, morphophonemic changes take place. (See 4.1.2.1 for the characteristics of inalienable nouns.) The word 'leg' has the following suffixed forms. Notice the italicized parts. Before the different possessive suffixes, the vowels are different.

niy*a*cl	'his leg'
niy*uh*k	'my leg'
niy*o*m	'your leg'
niy*e*n	'leg of'

(See 4.1.3 for a detailed presentation of morphophonemic changes related to inalienable nouns.)

2. Transitive Verbs: Some transitive verbs undergo changes in form when they occur in the following environments.

Transitive Verb—Object Pronoun
Transitive Verb—Directional Suffix
Transitive Verb—Object Pronoun—Directional Suffix
Transitive Verb—Passive Suffix
Transitive Verb—Passive Suffix—Directional Suffix

When the transitive verb *futung* 'to kick' is followed by the third person object pronoun *ohl*, it is changed into *fotong*, as in *fotong-ohl* 'to kick him'. When the same transitive verb *futung* 'to kick' is followed by the directional suffix *-lah*, it is changed into *fotong*, as in *fotonglah* 'to kick away'.

Object pronoun suffixes and directional suffixes also undergo changes, depending upon the positions in which they occur. The third person object pronoun suffix, for example, has the following two different forms (italicized).

fotong*ohl*	'to kick him'
futungi*l*yac	'to kick him down'

The third person object pronoun form is *il* when it follows a transitive verb and when it is followed by the directional suffix *-yac*. In other places the form is *ohl*.

The directional suffix meaning 'away' has the two forms *lah* and *lac*. Observe the following examples:

foton*glah*	'to kick away'
fotongohl*lah*	'to kick him away'
futungyuh*lac*	'to kick me away'
futungyuhk*lac*	'to be kicked away'

When the directional suffix follows the first person object pronoun *yuh* or the passive suffix *-yuhk*, it is pronounced as *lac*. When the directional suffix follows a transitive verb or when it is preceded by the third person object pronoun *ohl*, it is pronounced as *lah*. (See 4.2.3 for a detailed presentation of morphophonemic changes related to transitive verbs, object pronoun suffixes and directional suffixes.)

3. Transitive verbs and derived intransitive verbs: Most of the transitive verbs have their corresponding intransitive verb forms. The transitive verb *kuhruh* 'to mix', for example, has the intransitive verb form *kar*. When the two forms are compared, we can notice the following changes. First, the transitive verb is a two-syllable word whereas the intransitive verb form is a monosyllable word. The vowels of the transitive verb are *uh*. But that of the intransitive verb form is *a*. (See 6.2.7.a for a detailed presentation.)

4 Word Classes: Parts of Speech

INTRODUCTION

The speech sounds in Kusaiean have been classified in several different ways in our discussion of the sound system of Kusaiean. In order to study its sentence structure, it is necessary to divide Kusaiean words into several different word-classes, (or parts of speech) each with its own particular properties with regard to its positions in sentences.

Note the incomplete sentence below. The blank has to be filled in for the sentence to be complete.

Sepe el———ma sacn.
Sepe she———thing that

The words listed below can be used in the blank above.

kanglah	'to have eaten'
orwaclah	'to have made'
tukyac	'to have pounded'

But the words listed below cannot be used in the blank in the above sentence.

tuhlihk	'child'
usr	'banana'
ninac	'mother'

The two groups of words above have different properties with regard to where they are permitted to occur in sentences.

To take another example, the passive suffix *-yuhk* can be used with the words below.

puok	'to hit'	puok-yuhk	'to be hit'
ngalis	'to bite'	ngalis-yuhk	'to be bitten'

kihnis	'to pinch'	kihnis-yuhk	'to be pinched'

But the words listed below can not take the passive suffix *-yuhk*.

ik	'fish'
muh	'orange'
um	'earth oven'
mos	'breadfruit'

The two groups of words above have different properties with regard to suffixes. The first group can take the suffix *-yuhk*, while the second group cannot.

Words can be classified in terms of their properties with regard to their positions in sentences and with regard to suffixes. But the classification of words based on these characteristics has some limitations; it must be remembered that classifying words is not easy for several reasons. First of all, a word of one class often is used as a word of another word-class. The word *wo*, for example, is used in three different ways in the following sentences.

Tuhlihk sac arlac *wo*.
'The child is very good.'

Sitosah soko ah kahsruhsr *wo*.
'The car runs well.'

Wo uh wo liki kuluk uh.
'Goodness is better than badness.'

Second, although criteria can be set up to classify words into different word-classes, it is often the case that they cannot hold for all the words that belong to the same word-classes. One test-frame, *Sepe el _____ ma sacn*, was used to distinguish words such as *kang* 'to eat' from words such as *usr* 'banana'. But with the test-frame alone the word *kahsruhsr* 'to run', which must belong to the same word-class as *kang*, has to be excluded from the word-class of *kang*.

Kusaiean words will be considered under two basic classes, the major word class and the minor word class. The terms major and minor refer to the number of words that constitute a word-class. Nouns, verbs, and adjectives belong to the major word class. The number of words that belong to the major word class is very large, constituting the bulk of Kusaiean words. Words that belong to the minor word-class—such as conjunctions, prepositions, and determiners—are few in number.

MAJOR WORD CLASS

NOUNS

4.1

General Characteristics of Nouns

4.1.1 Nouns generally refer to the names of things. The things that are named can be **concrete** things that we can touch or see. But there are also **abstract** things which we can neither see nor touch. The abstract things exist only in our mind. Compare the two groups of words below. The first group of words are **concrete nouns** and the second group of words are **abstract nouns**.

Concrete Nouns	
pahko	'shark'
ahluh	'dish'
nu	'coconut'
tepuh	'table'
Abstract Nouns	
nuhnak	'thought'
furokiyac	'turning'
fusrac	'motivation'
srihpac	'reason'

The major functions of the nouns in sentences are to serve as **subject of a sentence**, **object of a verb** and **object of a preposition**. These functions of nouns will be discussed in more detail in chapter 6 (on Syntax). In the sentence below, there are three nouns: *muhtwacn*, *sifacl* and *syuhl*. Each of them has a different function in the sentence, not to speak of their different position in the sentence.

Muhtwacn sac pwelah sifahl ke ah soko.
'The woman tied her hair with a string.'

The noun *muhtwacn* 'woman' in the above sentence carries out the action of binding and the noun *sifacl* 'her hair' receives the action. Nouns such as *muhtwacn* in the sentence above which carry out an action are called the **subject of a sentence**. Nouns such as *sifacl* which are affected by the action are called the **object of a verb**. (See 6.2 for some further relationships between the verbs and the subjects and objects.) The noun *ah* 'string'

occurs after the preposition *ke*. Nouns that are used with a preposition will be called the **object of a preposition.**

Structurally, there are simple, complex and compound nouns. **Simple nouns** are made up of single free morphemes. **Complex nouns** are made up of a free morpheme with one or more than one bound morpheme. **Compound nouns** are made up of more than one free morpheme. Some examples are presented below.

Simple Nouns	
koet	'octopus'
lohl	'pandanus leaf'
muhtah	'yam'
wangwes	'old coconut'
Complex Nouns (1)	
niyuhk	'my leg'
muhtuhk	'my eye'
pahol	'his hand'
altom	'your beard'
Complex Nouns (2)	
kuhiyac	'its strength'
muhiyac	'its speed'
urokiyac	'turning'
sohkiyac	'flying'

Complex nouns are presented in two groups. The complex nouns listed in (1) are inalienable nouns with possessive suffixes, those listed in (2) have become nouns through the addition of the suffixes. (See chapter 5 for a detailed discussion of word-formation.)

Compound Nouns	
lohm nuknuk	'tent' [house—cloth]
lohm sacnri	'church' [house—Sunday]
lohm ono	'hospital' [house—medicine]
lohm mongo	'restaurant' [house—food]

To summarize, the general characteristics of the nouns are described in terms of the meaning, function and structure. Nouns are generally names of things. They function as the subject of a sentence, the object of a verb or of prepositions. Structurally, there are simple, complex, and compound nouns.

SUBCLASSIFICATION OF NOUNS

4.1.2 In the preceding section, some general characteristics of nouns have been examined. A set of words, in many cases, fits the general characteristics of the nouns and can be called nouns. But some of the nouns behave very differently from other nouns with regard to the possessive suffixs or with regard to words of other word-classes. On this functional basis, the nouns will be subclassified in the following ways.

1. alienable vs. inalienable nouns
2. countable vs. uncountable nouns
3. locative vs. non-locative nouns
4. human vs. non-human nouns
5. proper personal nouns vs. common nouns

Alienable vs Inalienable Nouns

4.1.2.1 Certain nouns can take the possessive suffixes (listed in 3.2), but certain other nouns cannot take the possessive suffixes. Those nouns that can take the possessive suffixes are called **inalienable** and those nouns that can not are called **alienable nouns**. Some examples are presented below.

Inalienable Nouns	
sucf	'head'
ne	'leg'
se	'belly'
po	'hand'
Alienable Nouns	
lohm	'house'
mitmit	'knife'
ungung	'lobster'
usr	'banana'

The inalienable noun *sucf*, for example has the following suffixed forms. (See 4.1.3 for the alternations of the final vowels before the possessive suffixes.)

sifac	'its head'
sifacl	'his, her head'
sifuhk	'my head'
sifom	'your head'
sifen	'head of'

sifacsr 'our head'

It is usually possible to tell whether certain nouns are inalienable nouns or not according to their meanings. The inalienable nouns can usually be determined according to the following:

1. names of the body parts
2. nouns which denote spacial relations such as side, above, top, or behind
3. complex nouns which are derived from adjectives or verbs

Some examples of the inalienable nouns are presented below.

Names of the Body Parts	
mutahl	'his face'
kolol	'his skin'
pouk	'my hand'
mahngom	'your head'
siyacl	'his belly'
Nouns of Spacial Relations	
ulun	'top of'
lun	'inside of'
muhtuhn	'in front of'
sisken	'beside'
fin	'surface of'
kapihn	'end of'
tukun	'back of'
lihkihn	'outside of'
Complex Nouns from Verbs	
pahngoniyen	'call of'
pahtokiyen	'pushing of'
pakiyen	'splitting of'
lakihniyen	'spreading of'
Complex Nouns from Adjectives	
sranomiyen	'juiciness of'
pwacriyen	'gladness of'
kahtoiyen	'prettiness of'
fohkfohkiyen	'dirtiness of'

Some nouns listed under **Nouns of Spacial Relations** also denote names of body parts. *Kapihn* 'end of', for example, can refer to the human buttocks. Conversely, some nouns listed under **Names of Body Parts** can denote names of the parts of some objects other

than the body. The word *siyac* 'belly' can refer to the central part of a canoe. So the distinction between the names of the body parts and nouns of relations is not absolute. In some cases it is simply an arbitrary classification.

There is a small group of words called classifiers, which behave like the inalienable nouns in that they can take the possessive suffixes. But the functions of the classifiers are different from those of the inalienable nouns. (They are discussed in Section 4.5, **minor word classes.**)

There are some inalienable nouns which take only the suffix *-n*. They are incomplete in that the other possessive suffixes cannot be used. Some examples are presented below.

Incomplete Inalienable Nouns	
kwacn	'stalk of'
okan	'root of'

To summarize, the nouns are subclassified into alienable and inalienable. The alienable nouns cannot take the possessive suffixes, while the inalienable nouns can take the possessive suffixes. The incomplete inalienable nouns take only the suffix *-n*.

Countable vs Uncountable Nouns

4.1.2.2 Nouns such as *ik* 'fish', *usr* 'banana' and *mwet* 'man' can be counted. But nouns such as *kof* 'water', *simacn* 'cement' and *suhkaruh* coconut sap' can not be counted. The nouns that can be counted are called **countable nouns** and the nouns that cannot be counted are called **uncountable nouns.**

Countable nouns in Kusaiean are of two kinds. Some countable nouns are counted with the number *soko* 'one' while others are counted with the number *se* 'one'. The distinction is very important in Kusaiean because it reflects the way things are observed by the Kusaiean speakers. (See 4.6.1 for some detailed discussion of the number system.) For the moment, let us simply note that things are counted in two different ways. Some examples are presented below.

Nouns that are counted with soko	
tuhla	'ax'
ton	'eel'
oak	'canoe'
ninuhl	'needle'
suhfah	'bottle'

Nouns that are counted with se

sra	'leaf'
lihkacsihk	'gun'
lwen	'day'
kiluhs	'bed'

Uncountable nouns often refer to materials out of which things can be made, and they are not used with numerals. In the following example sentences, the objects of the preposition *ke* are uncountable nouns and no numerals are used.

Ninac el orwaclah mongo ah ke fuhlao.
'Mother made the food with flour.'

Pahpah el orwaclah lohm sacn ke simacn.
'Father made the house with cement.'

Uncountable nouns are counted with some words denoting containers or measurement. Observe the following examples. The word *paun* 'pound' denotes a measurement and the word *pack* 'bag' denotes a container.

paun	in	suka	se	'a pound of sugar'
paun	in	rais	se	'a pound of rice'
paun	in	fuhlao	se	'a pound of flour'
pack	in	kaki	se	'a bag of copra'
pack	in	rais	se	'a bag of rice'
pack	in	fuhlao	se	'a bag of flour'

But often we find that uncountable nouns are used with numerals without any word denoting container or measurement. In such a case, words indicating container and measurement are not used by the speaker when the context of the conversation makes the use of the nouns denoting container or measurement unnecessary. Given the uncountable noun *suka* and the numeral *se* as in *suka se*, several different interpretations are possible. *Suka se* can mean all these:

ip	in	suka	se	'a piece of sugar'
pack	in	suka	se	'a bag of sugar'
paun	in	suka	se	'a pound of sugar'
kacn	in	suka	se	'a can of sugar'

To summarize, the nouns can be classified into countable and uncountable. The countable nouns are counted in two

different ways. The uncountable nouns are counted with the words of container or measurement.

cative vs Non-locative Nouns

1.2.3 The sentence below has a blank which needs to be filled in with an appropriate noun which denotes a location.

Mutwacn sac oasr ———.
'The woman is (located)'

The words listed below are names of places that can be used in the blank above.

Ponpe	'Ponape'
Muhkihl	'Mokile'
Macrike	'America'
Utwac	'a village name'
Maclwem	'a village name'

The word *Ponpe*, for example, can be used in the following way.

Mutwacn sac oasr *Ponpe*.
'The woman is in Ponape.'

Nouns that denote names of places such as those listed above are called **proper place nouns** and can be used to denote a location in sentences without any preposition such as *ke*. They do not take any determiners such as *ah* 'the' or *an* 'that'.

When the words listed below are used to denote a location, they must take the preposition *ke*.

acn	'land, place'
winto	'window'
oak	'canoe'
sahk	'tree'
tuhp	'a container'
tepuh	'table'

The sentence below would be regarded as incomplete or ungrammatical.

Tulihk sac oasr *acn sac*.
'The child is the place.'

The sentence, however, can become complete when the preposition *ke* is used, as in the following:

Tulihk sac oasr *ke acn sac.*
'The child is at the place.'

In the preceding paragraphs we have observed that there are two kinds of nouns. Some nouns such as *Ponpe* can be used to express a location without the preposition *ke*, but others such as *acn* must be used with the preposition *ke* to express a location. The term **locative nouns** will be used to refer to nouns such as *Ponpe* which do not require the preposition *ke* as a locative expression.

Generally, nouns that belong to the following sets are **locative nouns**:

1. Proper place nouns such as *Kosrae* 'Kusae', *Ruk* 'Truk', *Ngutik* 'Ngatik'.
2. Nouns of spacial relations that have been presented in the discussion of the inalienable nouns.
3. Complex nouns which are made up of the locative prefix *-in* and nouns. The word *insack* 'forest' is made up of two morphemes: the locative prefix *-in* and *sahk* 'tree'. *Insack* is a locative noun.

Some examples of each set are presented below, together with an example sentence.

Proper Place Nouns

Saholuhng	'a section name'
Tacfuhnsahk	'a village name'
Leluh	'a village name'

Sepe el muhta *Tacfuhnsahk*.
'Sepe is staying in Tacfuhnsahk.'

Nouns of Relations

fin	'top of'
sisken	'beside of'
lun	'inside of'
mutuhn	'front of'

Pinsuhl soko ah oasr *fin tepuh ah.*
'The pencil is on the table.'

Complex Nouns

insack	'forest'
inusr	'banana field'
inmolsron	'harbor'
ines	'grove' or 'inside of the papaya'

Complex Nouns

Puhkantwen fihtac *ines* uh.
'There are lots of seeds inside the papaya.'

Human vs Non-human Nouns

4.1.2.4 Some nouns such as *Sepe* (a personal name) and *mwet* 'man' refer to human beings. On the other hand, nouns such as *tepuh* 'table' and *kosro* 'animal' do not refer to human beings. The nouns that refer to human beings will be called **human nouns**. The nouns which do not refer to human beings will be called **non-human nouns**. Some examples are presented below.

Human Nouns	
Alihk	(a personal name)
Kuhn	(a personal name)
ahwowo	'baby'
tuhlihk	'child'
muhtwacn	'woman'
mukul	'man'
Non-Human Nouns	
sra	'leaf'
fuh	'coconut fiber'
laim	'lemon juice'
pweng	'news'
tuhp	'a container'
i	'a tree'

The distinction between human and non-human nouns is important with regard to the use of prepositions. The preposition *se* is used with human nouns, whereas the preposition *ke* is used with non-human nouns. (See 4.8.1 for the suffixed forms of the two prepositions.) Two example sentences are given below. In the first sentence, the preposition is *ke* because its object is a non-human noun *pohk* 'box'. In the second sentence, the preposition is *sin* because its object is a human noun *mwet* 'man'.

Sepe el pahtoklah pack sac nuh *ke pohk sac*.
'Sepe pushed the bag to the box.'

Sepe el pahtoklah pack sac nuh *sin mwet sac*.
'Sepe pushed the bag to the man.'

The following sentence is grammatical although the preposition

ke is used when the object of the preposition is a human noun.

Sepe el tollah yot sac nuh *ke* muhtwacn sac.
'Sepe threw the stone at the woman.'

The sentence above shows that a human noun can sometimes be regarded as a non-human noun. The meaning of the sentence above is different from the one below in which the preposition *sin* is used.

Sepe el tollah yot sac nuh *sin* muhtwacn sac.
'Sepe threw the stone to the woman.'

When the preposition *sin* is used, the noun *muhtwacn* is used as a human noun and the woman may react to the stone. She may catch it. When the preposition *ke* is used, the noun *muhtwacn* is regarded as a non-human object at which somebody threw a stone.'

To summarize, the nouns in Kusaiean can be classified into human and non-human. The distinction is reflected in the use of prepositions *ke* and *sin*. But it does not necessarily mean that when a noun is a human noun, it must always be used as a human noun. It can be used as a non-human noun.

Proper Human Nouns vs Common Nouns

4.1.2.5 Nouns can be classified into proper human nouns and common nouns. The distinction is reflected in the use of possessive suffixes, object pronouns, and subject markers. First, let us observe the use of the possessive suffixes *-l* and *-n*. In the first example below, the possessive suffix is *-l*; in the second example, the suffix is *-n*.

niyac-l	Sah	'Sah's leg'
niye-n	mukul sac	'the man's leg'

Both *Sah* and *mukul* are human nouns. But different suffixes are used with the word 'leg'.

Although the two nouns are human nouns, they differ from each other in that. *Sah* is a personal name but *mukul* is not. The personal names such as *Sah* or *Sepe* will be called **proper human nouns**. Nouns other than personal names are **common nouns**.

The distinction between proper human nouns and common nouns is reflected in the object and subject markers. Let us observe the following sentences. In the first one, the object of the

verb *kilhte* 'to feed' is a proper human noun and the object pronoun *-l* is used. In the second sentence, the object of the verb *kihte* is a common noun, and no object pronoun is used.

Nga kihte-l *Sah*. 'I am feeding Sah.'
I feed-him Sah

Nga kihte *tuhlihk se*. 'I am feeding a child.'
I feed child

In the following two sentences, the subject pronoun *el* is used in the first sentence, but it is not used in the second sentence. When the subject noun is a proper human noun, *el* must be used. Otherwise, it must not be used.

Kuhn el srisritacl na.
'Kuhn is playing all the time.'

Tuhlihk sac srisritacl na lwen na fohn sac.
'The child is playing throughout the day.'

But it must be remembered that a proper human noun can sometimes be used as a common noun and that a common noun can be used as a proper noun. *Sepe* is a proper human noun. Suppose there are five or six girls whose names happen to be *Sepe*. In such a case, the proper human noun cannot function as a proper human noun. It must be restricted with a word such as *sac* 'the' or *sacn* 'that'. This indicates that the proper human noun is used as a common noun. In the following sentence, the subject pronoun *el* is not used, although the subject of the sentence is a proper human noun.

Sepe sacn orwaclah mongo ah.
'That Sepe made the food.'

Words such as *pahpah* 'father', *ninac* 'mother' or *ahwowo* 'baby' are not proper human nouns. But they can be used as proper human nouns when they refer to a speaker's own father or mother. Observe the subject pronoun *el* in the sentence to follow.

Ninac el som nuh Ponpe.
'Mother went to Ponape.'

The word *taktuh* 'doctor' is not a personal name. But it can also be used as a proper human noun when there happens to be only one doctor in a certain area and when no ambiguity would arise. Observe the following sentence.

Taktuh el tuhkuh ekweyah.
'The doctor came yesterday.'

To summarize, with regard to the suffixes *-l* and *-n*, the object pronoun and subject pronoun, the nouns in Kusaiean are classified into proper human nouns and common nouns. But proper human nouns can sometimes be used as common nouns and common nouns can sometimes be used as proper nouns.

Inalienable Nouns and Possessive Suffixes

4.1.3 One characteristic of inalienable nouns is that they can be used with following possessive pronoun suffixes:

First Person singular	-k		'my'
First Person Plural	-ktacl	(inclusive)	'our'
First Person Plural	-sr	(exclusive)	'our'
Second Person Singular	-m		'your'
Second Person Plural	-mtacl		'your'
Third Person Singular	-l		'his (or her)'
Third Person Plural	-ltahl		'their'

The inalienable noun *ne* 'leg', for example, has the following ten forms, including the free form and the impersonal form, neither of which use any of the possessive suffixes listed above. The term **free form** refers to unsuffixed forms of inalienable nouns such as *ne* 'leg', *po* 'hand', *fuht* 'navel', or *se* 'belly'. The term **impersonal form** refers to a form of inalienable nouns such as *niyac* 'its leg', *fihtac* 'its navel', or *paho* 'its hand', which are used when the possessor of the inalienable nouns is understood in context.

Spelling	*Gloss*
ne	'leg'
niyac	'its leg'
niyuhk	'my leg'
niyuhktacl	'our leg'
niyacsr	'our leg'
niyom	'your leg'
niyomtacl	'your (plural) leg'
niyacl	'his leg'
niyacltahl	'their leg'
niyen	'leg of'

The three plural forms *niyuhktacl* 'our legs', *niyomtacl* 'your legs' and *niyacltahl* 'their legs' will be excluded from the following discussion, as they are identical with their corresponding singular forms except for the plural marker *tahl* or *tacl*. Observe the pairs of singular and plural forms.

Singular	*Plural*
niyuhk	niyuhktacl
niyom	niyomtacl
niyacl	niyacltahl

When we confine our attention to the remaining singular forms and the plural form *niyacsr*, we notice that the last vowel of the impersonal form, the third person form and the first person plural form is *ac*. Look at the following.

Spelling	*Gloss*
niy*ac*	'its leg'
niy*acl*	'his or her leg'
niy*acsr*	'our legs'

The last vowels of the first person singular form, the second person singular form, and the construct form are not the same. Observe the last vowels of the following suffixed forms. Before the first person suffix *-k*, the last vowel is *uh*. Before the second person suffix *-m*, the last vowel is *o*. Before the construct suffix *-n*, the last vowel is *e*.

Spelling	*Gloss*
niy*uh*k	'my leg'
niy*o*m	'your leg'
niy*e*n	'leg of'

The last vowels of the suffixed forms of inalienable nouns change according to the different possessive suffixes. For the ensuing discussion it will be assumed that the final vowel of the impersonal form is basic, and a set of rules will be presented to derive the final vowels of the first person, the second person, and the construct forms. To illustrate, the final vowel *ac* in *niyac* will be assumed to be basic and the following set of rules will be used to predict the final vowels in the other forms.

ac becomes *uh* before the first person singular suffix *-k*.
ac becomes *o* before the second person singular suffix *-m*.
ac becomes *e* before the construct suffix *-n*.

The set of changes above is applicable not only to the impersonal form *niyac* 'leg' but also to any impersonal form with a final vowel *ac*. For example, the impersonal form *iwac* 'chest' has a final vowel *ac*. The last vowels of the suffixed forms of *iwac* are exactly the same as those of the suffixed forms of *niyac*, as the following list will show:

Spelling	*Gloss*	*Spelling*	*Gloss*
niy*ac*l	'his leg'	niy*ac*sr	'our legs'
iw*ac*l	'his chest'	iw*ac*sr	'our chests'
niy*uh*k	'my leg'	niy*o*m	'your leg'
iw*uh*k	'my chest'	iw*o*m	'your chest'
niy*e*n	'leg of'		
iw*e*n	'chest of'		

The free form of the word 'leg' is *ne*. Between the impersonal form *niyac* and the free form *ne*, we notice the following changes. The lower-mid vowel *ac* lowers the preceding high vowel *i*, and then it is lost together with the preceding *y*. The first vowel in *niyac* is short, but *e* in the free form is long. The changes can be shown in the following way:

niyac	
neyac	After *i* is lowered.
ne	After *yac* is lost.
ne:	After *e* is lengthened.
ne [ne:]	

The free forms of some inalienable nouns have been found, but those of some other inalienable nouns have not been found.

In the sections to follow, the inalienable nouns will be classified according to the last vowels of the impersonal forms, and the changes of the last vowels of the impersonal forms before different suffixes will be examined. The following abbreviations will be used when necessary.

C stands for any consonant.
G stands for any glide.
V stands for any vowel.

Impersonal Forms with Final *ac*

4.1.3.1 The impersonal forms listed below have the final vowel. The first vowels of the forms are all high.

Spelling	*Gloss*	*Spelling*	*Gloss*
sif*ac*	'head'	un*ac*	'hair'
siy*ac*	'belly'	kum*ac*	'public hair'
fiy*ac*	'grey hair'	kun*ac*	'duty'
ohiy*ac*	'manner'	lus*ac*	'height'
ip*ac*	'part'	luw*ac*	'remnant'
fihtʃ*ac*	'navel'	ful-w*ac*	'waist'
pihs*ac*	'shape'	fusrw*ac*	'mobility'
srihp*ac*	'cause'		
pihng*ac*	'news'		

In the preceding section, we observed that the final vowel of an impersonal form undergoes the following changes:

ac becomes *uh* before the first person suffix *-k*.
ac becomes *o* before the second person suffix *-m*.
ac becomes *e* or *ac* before the construct suffix *-n*.

Keeping the changes in mind, observe the following suffixed forms of the impersonal forms listed above, together with the free forms. As was pointed out, the last vowels of the third person and the first person inclusive plural forms are the same. Only the third person forms will be used in the lists to follow.

	'length'	'remnant'	'navel'	'reason'
Free Form				
1st Prs	lus*uh*k	luw*uh*k	fihtʃ*uh*k	srihp*uh*k
2nd Prs	lus*o*m	luw*o*m	fihtʃ*o*m	srihp*o*m
3rd Prs	lus*ac*l	luw*ac*l	fihtʃ*ac*l	srihp*ac*l
Construct	lus*ac*n / lus*e*n	luw*ac*n / luw*e*n	fihtʃ*ac*n / fihtʃ*e*n	srihp*ac*n / srihp*e*n

	'hair'	'part'	'scale'	'duty'
Free Form	syucf	ip	———	———
1st Prs	sif*uh*k	ip*uh*k	un*uh*k	kun*uh*k
2nd Prs	sif*o*m	ip*o*m	un*o*m	kun*o*m
3rd Prs	sif*ac*l	ip*ac*l	un*ac*l	kun*ac*l
Construct	sif*ac*n / sif*e*n	ip*ac*n / ip*e*n	un*ac*n / un*e*n	kun*ac*n / kun*e*n

	'shape'	'news'
Free Form	———	pweng
1st Prs	pihs*uh*k	pihng*uh*k
2nd Prs	pihs*o*m	pihng*o*m
3rd Prs	pihs*ac*l	pihng*ac*l
Construct	pihs*ac*n / pihsen	pihng*ac*n / pihngen

Observe the following additional examples with final *ac*.

Spelling	*Gloss*	*Spelling*	*Gloss*
alt*ac*	'beard'	kasrp*ac*	'riches'
mat-w*ac*	'age'	falk*ac*	'feet'
kwacw*ac*	'neck'	fakl*ac*	'condition'
at*ac*	'countenance'	esy*ac*	'liver'
sahy*ac*	'beside'	kat*ac*	'coverlet'
sralahp*ac*	'size'		

The free forms of the first three impersonal forms have been found. The word *ahluht* 'beard' is the free form of the impersonal form *altac*. When the two forms are compared, we can notice that several changes seem to have taken place in the derivation of the free form from the impersonal form. First, the first vowel *a* in *altac* is changed into *ah*. Second, the last vowel *ac* in *altac* is dropped. Third, the vowel *uh* is inserted between the consonant cluster *lt*. The consonant *l* belongs to the first syllable in *altac*. After the insertion of *uh*, the syllable is restructured and *l* becomes the first consonant of the second syllable, as in *ah·luht*. The changes can be shown in the following way:

a l t a c	
ahl t a c	After the first *a* is changed to *ah*.
ahl t	After *ac* is lost.
ahluht	After *uh* is inserted.
ah.luht	After syllables are restructured.

The free forms of the impersonal forms of *mat-wac* and *kasrpac* can be derived in a similar way:

m a t w a c	k a sr p a c	
m aht w a c	k ahsr p a c	After the first *a* is changed into *ah*.
m aht w	k ahsr p	After *ac* is lost.
m aht*uh*	k ahsr*uh*p	After *uh* is inserted.

The following are the suffixed forms.

	'beard'	'riches'	'old age'	'feet'
Free Form	ahl*uht*	kahsr*uhp*	mahtu*h*	fahl*uhk*
1st Prs	altu*hk*	kasrpu*hk*	mat-*wuhk*	falku*hk*
2nd Prs	alto*m*	kasrpo*m*	mat-wo*m*	falko*m*
3rd Prs	alta*cl*	kasrpa*cl*	mat-wa*cl*	falka*cl*
Construct	alte*n*	kasrpe*n*	mat-we*n*	falke*n*

	'neck'	'condition'	'feature'	'liver'
Free Form	———	———	———	———
1st Prs	kwacwu*hk*	fakl*uhk*	atu*hk*	esyu*hk*
2nd Prs	kwacwo*m*	fakl*om*	ato*m*	esyo*m*
3rd Prs	kwacwa*cl*	fakla*cl*	ata*cl*	esya*cl*
Construct	kwacwe*n*	fakle*n*	ate*n*	esye*n*

	'beside'	'size'	'coverlet'
Free Form	———	———	———
1st Prs	sahyu*hk*	sralahpa*hk*	kahtu*hk*
2nd Prs	sahyo*m*	sralahpo*m*	kato*m*
3rd Prs	sahya*cl*	sralahpa*cl*	kata*cl*
Construct	sahye*n*	sralahpe*n*	kate*n*

The impersonal forms listed below have the final vowel *ac*. The change of the vowel before the first person suffix *-k* and the second person suffix *-m* is different from the one that we have observed in the preceding sections. In these words *ac* becomes *e* before the first and second person suffixes. There are no apparent reasons for this irregularity.

Spelling	*Gloss*	*Spelling*	*Gloss*
ya*c*	'below'	puhsrwa*c*	'voice'
fwa*c*	'nose'	srwa*c*	'ear'

The following are the suffixed forms of the impersonal forms listed above.

	'below'	'nose'	'ear'	'voice'
Free Form	———	———	———	———
1st Prs	ye*k*	fwe*k*	srwe*k*	puhsrwe*k*
2nd Prs	ye*m*	fwe*m*	srwe*m*	puhsrwe*m*
3rd Prs	ya*cl*	fwa*cl*	srwa*cl*	puhsrwa*cl*
Construct	ye*n*	fwe*n*	srwe*n*	puhsrwe*n*

Impersonal Forms with Final *ah*

4.1.3.2 The impersonal forms listed below have the vowel *ah* at the end of the words.

Spelling	*Gloss*	*Spelling*	*Gloss*
tuhp*ah*	'cheek'	luhm*ah*	'appearance'
puhp*ah*	'rib'	luhp*ah*	'size'
ol*ah*	'birth canal'		

The final vowel *ah* undergoes the following changes before the suffixes:

ah becomes *uh* before the first person suffix *-k*.
ah becomes *o* before the second person suffix *-m*.
ah becomes *a* before the construct suffix, but the change is irregular.

The following are the suffixed forms:

	'cheek'	'rib'	'size'	'birth canal'
Free Form	———	———	———	———
1st Prs	tuhp*uh*k	puhp*uh*k	luhp*uh*k	ol*uh*k
2nd Prs	tuhp*o*m	puhp*o*m	luhp*o*m	ol*o*m
3rd Prs	tuhp*ah*l	puhp*ah*l	luhp*ah*l	ol*ah*l
Construct	tuhp*a*n	puhp*a*n	luhp*a*n	ol*a*hn

'appearance'
———
luhm*uh*k
luhm*o*m
luhm*a*n

Notice that the last vowel *ah* of the impersonal forms *luhpah* 'size' and *luhmah* 'appearance' becomes *a* before the construct suffix *-n*.

The last vowel of the two impersonal forms *srah* 'blood' and *elah* 'behavior' is *ah*. But the vowel does not undergo any change before the possessive suffixes. Observe the following suffixed forms:

	'blood'	'behavior'
Free Form	———	———
1st Prs	sr*ah*k	el*ah*k
2nd Prs	sr*ah*m	el*ah*m
3rd Prs	sr*ah*l	el*ah*l
Construct	sr*ah*n	el*ah*n

Impersonal Forms with Final *a*

4.1.3.3 The impersonal forms listed below have the vowel *a* at the end of the words.

Spelling	*Gloss*	*Spelling*	*Gloss*
puhl*a*	'tail'	muhl*a*	'genitals'
tuhn*a*	'color'	yet*a*	'appearance'
finkuhsr*a*	'groin'		

The final *a* undergoes the following changes before possessive suffixes:

a becomes *uh* before the first person suffix *-k*.
a becomes *o* before the second person suffix *-m*.
a becomes *uh* before the construct suffix *-n*.

The following are the suffixed forms:

	'tail'	'genitals'	'color'	'appearance'	'groin'
Free Form	———	———	———	———	———
1st Prs	puhl*uh*k	muhl*uh*k	tuhn*uh*k	yetuhk	finkuhsruhk
2nd Prs	puhl*o*m	muhl*o*m	tuhn*o*m	yetom	finkuhsrom
3rd Prs	puhl*a*l	muhl*a*l	tuhn*a*l	yetal	finkuhsral
Construct	puhl*uh*n	muhl*uh*m	tuhn*uh*n	yetuhn	finkuhsruhn

The two impersonal forms *muhta* 'eye' and *tuhma* 'father' have the vowel *a* at the end of words. But they do not follow the general pattern of the impersonal forms with a final vowel *a*. The third person form of *muhta* is *muhtahl*. The third person form of *tuhma* is *tuhmwacl*, which also does not follow the general pattern. Observe the suffixed forms of the two impersonal *muhta* 'eye' and *tuhma* 'father.'

	'eye'	'father'
Free Form	———	———
1st Prs	muht*uh*k	tuhm*uh*k
2nd Prs	muht*o*m	tuhm*o*m
3rd Prs	muht*ah*l	tuhmw*a*cl
Construct	muht*uh*n	tuhmw*e*n

Impersonal Forms with Final *o*

4.1.3.4 The impersonal forms with the final vowel *o* can be subdivided into two groups. In one group, the final vowel *o* does not undergo

any change before the possessive suffixes. In another group, the cases in which the final vowel *o* undergoes some changes.

The impersonal forms listed below have the vowel *o* at the end of the words. But the final vowel does not undergo any change before the possessive suffixes.

Spelling	*Gloss*	*Spelling*	*Gloss*
mahng*o*	'crown of the head'	ahlk*o*	'blood vessel'
mahsrol*o*	'border'	koan*o*	'content'
ngoasr*o*	'lip'	sroan*o*	'liquid'
inlal*o*	'one's favorite things'		

The suffixed forms of the impersonal forms listed above follows:

	'crown'	'blood vessel'	'border'	'content'
Free Form	mahng	———	mahsrol	koan
1st Prs	mahng*o*k	ahlk*o*k	mahsrl*o*k	koan*o*k
2nd Prs	mahng*o*m	ahlk*o*m	mahsrl*o*m	koan*o*m
3rd Prs	mahng*o*l	ahlk*o*l	mahsrl*o*l	koan*o*l
Construct	mahng*o*n	ahlk*o*n	mahsrl*o*n	koan*o*n
	'lip'	'liquid'	'favorite'	
Free Form	———	sroan	———	
1st Prs	ngoasr*o*k	sroan*o*k	inlal*o*k	
2nd Prs	ngoasr*o*m	sroan*o*m	inlal*o*m	
3rd Prs	ngoasr*o*l	sroan*o*l	inlal*o*l	
Construct	ngoasr*ø*n	sroan*o*n	inlal*o*n	

The final vowel *o* of the following impersonal forms undergoes the following changes:

o becomes *u* before the first person suffix *-k*, the second person suffix *-m* and the construct suffix *-n*.

Spelling	*Gloss*	*Spelling*	*Gloss*
et*o*	'testicle'	kolk*o*	'badness'
kol*o*	'skin'	mol*o*	'salary'
moton sr*o*	'forehead'		

The following are the suffixed forms of the impersonal forms above.

	'testicle'	'badness'	'skin'	'salary'
Free Form	———	———	———	———
1st Prs	et*u*k	kolk*u*k	kol*u*k	mol*u*k
2nd Prs	et*u*m	kolk*u*m	kol*u*m	mol*u*m
3rd Prs	et*o*l	kolk*o*l	kol*o*l	mol*o*l
Construct	et*u*n	kolk*u*n	kol*u*n	mol*u*n

The impersonal forms *paho* 'hand' and *mahno* 'body' end with the vowel *o*. Which undergoes the same changes that we observed immediately above. However, the first *ah* also undergoes a change. That is, *ah* becomes *o* before the first person suffix, the second person suffix and the construct suffix. Look at the following suffixed forms.

	'hand'	'body'
Free Form	po	———
1st Prs	p*o*uk	m*o*nuk
2nd Prs	p*o*um	m*o*num
3rd Prs	p*ah*ol	m*ah*nol
Construct	p*o*un	m*o*nun

Impersonal Forms with Final *oh*

4.1.3.5 The impersonal forms listed below have the vowel *oh* at the end of the words.

Spelling	*Gloss*	*Spelling*	*Gloss*
tohk*oh*	'back'	mohngo*h*	'breath'
yohr*oh*	'vicinity'	fohlo*h*	'smell'
loho*h*	'tongue'		

Word-final *oh* undergoes the following changes:

oh becomes *u* before the first person suffix *-k*, the second person suffix *-m* and the construct suffix *-n*.

The first short *oh* becomes *o* or *u* when the final *oh* becomes *u* before the suffixes.

The following are the suffixed forms of the impersonal forms listed above.

	'back'	'breath'	'vicinity'	'smell'
Free Form	tok	mong	———	———

1st Prs	tok*u*k	mong*u*k	yor*u*k	fol*u*k
2nd Prs	tok*u*m	mong*u*m	yor*u*m	fol*u*m
3rd Prs	tohk*o*hl	mohngohl	yohr*o*hl	fohl*o*hl
Construct	tok*u*n	mong*u*n	yor*u*n	fol*u*n

The impersonal forms *fohkoh* 'feces' and *fohnoh* 'buttocks' have the same first and second vowels as *tohkoh*. But the last vowel *oh* is changed into *o* instead of *u*. Look at the following suffixed forms.

	'feces'	'buttocks'
Free Form	fohk	———
1st Prs	fok*o*k	lok*o*k
2nd Prs	fok*o*m	lok*o*m
3rd Prs	fohk*o*hl	lohk*o*hl
Construct	fok*o*n	lok*o*n

Impersonal Forms with Final *i* or *e*

4.1.3.6 The two impersonal forms below end with the vowel *i*.

Spelling	*Gloss*
sr*i*	'bone'
tit*i*	'breast'

As the change of the final *i* is not the same for the two words, the suffixed forms are simply listed below.

	'bone'	'breast'
Free Form	———	———
1st Prs	sr*i*k	twetwek
2nd Prs	sr*e*m	tit*i*m
3rd Prs	sr*e*l	twetwel
Construct	sr*i*n	tit*i*n

The three impersonal forms have the final vowel *e*. As the changes of the final vowel are not the same for the three words, the suffixed forms are simply listed.

Spelling	*Gloss*	*Spelling*	*Gloss*
wihs*e*	'teeth'	intw*e*	'knee'
e	'name'		

Look at the following suffixed forms.

	'teeth'	'knee'	'name'
Free Form	wihs		
1st Prs	wihs*ihk*	intw*ek*	*ek*
2nd Prs	wihs*um*	intw*em*	*em*
3rd Prs	wihs*el*	intw*el*	*el*
Construct	wihs*en*	int*in*	*en*

VERBS

4.2

General Characteristics of Verbs

4.2.1 Words that are called verbs generally denote action or a state of mind or condition. Verbs such as *koem* 'to husk' and *kahsruhsr* 'to run' denote action. On the other hand, verbs such as *luhngse* 'to like' and *sruhnga* 'to dislike' denote state rather than action.

Structurally, there are simple, complex, and compound verbs. Simple verbs are made up of single free morphemes. Complex verbs are made up of one free morpheme with one or more than one bound morpheme. Compound verbs are made up of more than one free morpheme with or without bound morphemes. Some examples of each type of verb are presented below. The hyphen is used to indicate the morpheme boundary.

Simple Verb	*Gloss*
us	'to carry'
sife	'to gather'
sikuhl	'to hinder'
suk	'to search'
puok	'to hit'

Complex Verb (1)	*Gloss*
esam-lac	'to have hatched'
luhs-lan	'to chase away'
isacs-kihn	'to squeeze with'
etwe-yuhk	'to be known'
kihpackuhn-ma	'to throw to me'

Complex Verb (2)	*Gloss*
ahk-kahto-ye	'to beautify'
ahk-alken-ye	'to make diligent'

Complex Verb (2)	*Gloss*
simacn-i	'to overlay with cement'
pahpah-kihn	'to regard as a father'
tepuh-kihn	'to use as a table'

The complex verbs listed in (2) are derived from adjectives or nouns. *Kahto* 'pretty' is an adjective that is changed into a verb with the addition of the prefix *ahk-* and the suffix *-ye*. *Tepuh* is a noun that is also changed into a verb with the addition of the suffix *-kihn*. (See chapter 5 for different processes of deriving verbs from nouns or adjectives.)

Compound Verb	*Gloss*
1. sruh-kosro	'to catch animal'
2. sruh-kosro-kihn	'to catch animal with'
3. sruh-kosro-kuhn-lah	'to use up in catching animals'
1. owo-nuknuk	'to wash clothes'
2. owo-nuknuk-kihn	'to wash clothes with'
3. owo-nuknuk-kuhn-lah	'to use up in washing clothes'

The first compound verbs above are made up of two free morphemes. The second ones are made up of two free morphemes and one bound *-kihn*. The third ones are made up of two free morphemes and two bound morphemes *-kihn* 'with' and *-lah* (completion).

Classification of Verbs

4.2.2 The verbs in Kusaiean can be classified into transitive and intransitive verbs. When an action or a state denoted by a verb passes over to another object or person, the verb is a **transitive verb**. When an action denoted by a verb does not pass over to another object or person, the verb is an **intransitive verb**. The verb *kihpackihn* 'to throw' is a transitive verb, and the action of throwing passes over to another object as we can observe in the following sentence:

Sohn el kihpackuhnlah yot sac.
'John threw the stone.'

The verb *kahsrushsr* 'to run', on the other hand, is an intransitive verb and its action does not pass over to another. Observe the following sentence.

Sohn el kahsruhsr.
'John is running.'

The difference between the transitive verb *kihpackihn* 'to throw' and the intransitive verb *kahsruhsr* becomes clear when the two sentences below are compared.

Sohn el kihpackuhnlah.
'John threw

Sohn el kahsruhsr.
'John is running.'

The first sentence above is incomplete because the object of the verb is not specified. Someone who listens to the first sentence above will ask immediately, *Meah el kihpackuhnlah ah*? 'What did he throw?' But the second sentence above is complete as it is, because no object is necessary.

The classification of verbs into transitive and intransitive is reflected in the different parts of the grammar. Let us briefly examine some cases. One suffix by which we can tell whether a verb is transitive or intransitive is the passive suffix *-yuhk*. The passive suffix can be used with transitive verbs but not with intransitive verbs. The transitive verb *kihpackihn* 'to throw' can be used with the passive suffix *-yuhk* as in *kihpackihnyuhk* 'to be thrown.' But the intransitive verb *kahsrushsr* 'to run' can not be used with the suffix *-yuhk*. *Kahsruhsryuhk* would be meaningless. Some additional examples of transitive verbs with the passive suffix are presented below.

Transitive Verb	*Passive Form*	
ikol 'to stop'	ikolyuhk	'to be stopped'
yuki 'to plant'	yukiyuhk	'to be planted'
itul 'to string'	itulyuhk	'to be strung'
muhnan 'to cook'	muhnanyuhk	'to be cooked'
sihmihs 'to write'	sihmihsyuhk	'to be written'

The object pronouns *yuh* 'me,' *kom* 'you' or *uhl* 'him' can be used with transitive verbs, but not with intransitive verbs. The verb *sinuhkihn* 'to push' is a transitive verb which can be used with the object pronouns in the following way.

sinuhkihn *yuh*	'to push me'
sinuhkihn *kom*	'to push you'

The verb *sro* 'to jump' is an intransitive verb and the object pronouns cannot be used with it.

The suffix *-iyac* changes a transitive verb into a noun. The verb *nukum* 'to wear' is a transitive verb. When the suffix *-iyac* is attached to *nukum*, as in *nukumiyac* 'wearing', a noun is derived. But the suffix *-iyac* cannot be used with the intransitive verbs. (See chapter 5 for further differences between transitive verbs and intransitive verbs with regard to suffixation.)

Verb-related Morphophonemics

4.2.3 Transitive verbs in Kusaiean can be used with object pronouns, directional suffixes, and the passive suffix. In some cases, the transitive verbs undergo certain changes in form when they are followed by particular suffixes. The verb *nukum* 'to wear' is changed into *nokom* when it is followed by the third person object pronoun *uhl*, as in *nokomuhl* 'to clothe him'. However, *nukum* does not undergo any change when it is followed by the first person object pronoun *yuh* 'me', as in *nukumyuh* 'to clothe me'. To take another example, the same verb *nukum* is changed into *nokom* when it is followed by the directional suffix *-lah*, as in *nokomlah*. But *nukum* undergoes no change when it is followed by the suffix *-yac*, as in *nukumyac* 'to cover'.

In what follows, the changes of the transitive verbs before the different suffixes will be examined in the following order:

1. Transitive Verb—Object Pronouns
2. Transitive Verb—Directional Suffixes
3. Transitive Verb—Object Pronouns—Directional Suffixes
4. Transitive Verb—Passive Suffix
5. Transitive Verb—Passive Suffix—Directional Suffix
6. Intransitive Verb—Directional Suffix

There are six directional suffixes, each with two forms. Which of the two forms is used will also be discussed in appropriate sections.

Transitive Verbs—Object Pronouns

4.2.3.1 Transitive verbs can be used with the object pronouns. When object pronouns follow transitive verbs, some verbs undergo certain changes in form. The purpose of this section is to examine the changes in the transitive verbs when they are followed by the

object pronouns, and also the changes in the object pronoun forms.

The following is a list of the object pronouns.

Persons	*Singular*		*Plural*	
1st Person	yuh	'me'	kuht	'us'
2nd Person	kom	'you'	komtahl	'you'
3rd Person	uhl	'him or her'	uhltahl	'them'
	ohl		ohltahl	
	acl		acltahl	
	il		iltahl	
	el		eltahl	

First and Second Person Object Pronouns

The forms of the first and the second person object pronouns are constant regardless of the shape of the preceding transitive verbs or the following suffixes. However, transitive verbs which end with the vowels *uh* or *a* undergo the following changes before the first and the second person object suffixes.

> The word-final *uh* and *a* become *e* and *ac* respectively before *kom* 'you' and *yuh* 'me.'

The word *etuh* 'to know' ends with the vowel *uh*. When the verb is followed by either *yuh* or *kom*, the word-final *uh* is changed into *e*, as in the following:

et*we*yuh	'to know me'
et*we*kom	'to know you'

As the final vowel *uh* is changed into *e*, the dental consonant *t* is clearly heard as the velarized sound *tw*.

Since the word *sruhnga* 'to dislike' ends with the vowel *a*, final *a* is changed into *ac* before *yuh* and *kom*. Look at the following forms:

sruhng*wac*yuh	'to dislike me'
sruhng*wac*kom	'to dislike you'

Notice also the change of *ng* into *ngw* before the first and the second person object pronouns.

Observe the following additional examples.

Tr. Verbs		*Tr. Verb—Object*	
nuhnkuh	'to think'	nuhnkweyuh	'to think of me'
		nuhnkwekom	'to think of you'

Tr. Verbs		*Tr. Verb—Object*	
suhpuh	'to send'	suhpweyuh	'to send me'
		suhpwekom	'to send you'
luhma	'to picture in mind'	luhmwacyuh	'to picture me in mind'
		luhmwackom	'to picture you in mind'

Third Person Object Pronoun

The third person object pronoun has four forms: *uhl*, *ohl*, *el* and *il*. The last two forms appear before the suffix *-yac*. A detailed discussion of these changes will be presented in later sections. When the vowel immediately preceding the third person object pronoun is round, the form *ohl* can be used (the third person form *uhl* will be regarded as basic). When the transitive verbs are followed by the third person object pronoun *uhl*, the following changes take place in the forms of the transitive verbs:

1. The high vowels *i*, *ih* and *u* are lowered to *e*, *uh* and o respectively.
2. The mid vowels *e*, *uh* and *o* are lowered into *ac*, *a* and *oh*
3. The low vowel *a* can be changed into *ah* optionally in certain environments.
4. The word final *uh* and *a* are changed into *ac*.

In what follows, each of the changes presented above will be illustrated with examples. Some exceptions to the generalizations made above will be pointed out.

1. The high vowels *i*, *ih*, and *u* are changed into *e*, *uh* and *o* respectively. Look at the following examples.

Spelling	*Gloss*	*Spelling*	*Gloss*
*us*r*u*k	'to shake'	p*ih*sr*ih*k	'to flick'
*os*r*o*kohl	'to shake him'	pu*h*sr*uh*kuhl	'to flick him'
*u*l	'to pull'	l*ih*s	'to chase'
*o*lohl	'to pull him	l*uh*suhl	'to chase him'
t*i*l	'to pick'	k*ih*nis	'to pinch'
t*e*luhl	'to pick him'	k*uh*n*e*suhl	'to pinch him'

But when the first vowel of a transitive verb is high and the second vowel is mid, the first high vowel can remain high or can be lowered. Observe the following examples.

Spelling	*Gloss*	*Spelling*	*Gloss*
*i*kol	'to stop'	*i*rong	'to look at'
*i*kohlohl	'to stop him'	*i*rohngohl	'to look at him'
*e*kohlohl	'to stop him'	*e*rohngohl	'to look at him'

2. The mid vowels *e*, *uh* and *o* are changed into *ac*, *a* and *oh* respectively.

Spelling	*Gloss*	*Spelling*	*Gloss*
twen	'to wash'	kut*o*ng	'to stop'
tw*ac*nuhl	'to wash him'	kut*oh*ngohl	'to stop him'
kiht*e*	'to feed'	w*uh*n	'to carry'
kiht*ac*l	'to feed him'	w*a*nuhl	'to carry him'
l*o*ng	'to step on'	it*uh*ng	'to press'
l*oh*ngohl	'to step on	it*a*nguhl	'to press him'

3. The low-mid vowel *uh* is changed into *a* when it is followed by the third person suffix, but the low-mid vowel *oh* does not undergo any change. Look at the following examples.

Spelling	*Gloss*	*Spelling*	*Gloss*
sr*uh*k	'to lift'	l*oh*ng	'to hear'
sr*a*kuhl	'to lift him'	l*oh*ngohl	'to hear him'

4. The low vowels *a* and *ah* do not undergo any change in height, since there are no lower vowels. In the preceding sections (1–3) we saw that the vowels are lowered by one height when they are followed by the third person object pronoun. Look at the following examples:

Spelling	*Gloss*	*Spelling*	*Gloss*
k*ah*l	'to touch'	tuhp*a*n	'to wait for'
k*ah*luhl	'to touch him'	tuhp*a*nuhl	'to wait for him'

However, when the low vowel *a* of a transitive verb is followed by a high vowel as in *kafihs* 'to hold' or *sauk* 'to catch', the *a* is optionally changed into *ah* when the following high vowel is lowered by the third person object pronoun. Look at the following examples:

Spelling	*Gloss*	*Spelling*	*Gloss*
k*a*fihs	'to hold'	*a*pihs	'to sting'

Spelling	*Gloss*	*Spelling*	*Gloss*
k*a*fuhsuhl, or	'to hold him'	*a*puhsuhl, or	'to sting him'
k*ah*fuhsuhl	'to hold him'	*ah*puhsuhl	'to sting him'

5. Word-final *uh* is affected by the third person pronoun as well as the second and first person pronouns. The transitive verb *etuh* 'to know', for example, has word-final *uh*. When the verb is followed by the third person pronoun, *uh* becomes *ac* and *t* becomes *tw* as in *etwacl* 'to know him'. When *etuh* is used with the first and second person pronouns, *uh* becomes *e* and *t* becomes *tw*, as in *etwekom* and *etweyuh*. Any transitive verb with word-final *uh* undergoes the same change.

Observe the following additional examples.

Spelling	*Gloss*	*Spelling*	*Gloss*
nuhnk*uh*	'to think'	suhp*uh*	'to send'
nuhnkw*acl*	'to think of him'	suhpw*acl*	'to send him'
nuhnkw*e*kom	'to think of you'	suhpw*e*kom	'to send you'
nuhnkw*e*yuh	'to think of me'	suhpw*e*yuh	'to send me'
nahw*uh*	'to adorn'	kahsr*uh*	'to help'
nahw*acl*	'to adorn him'	kahsrw*acl*	'to help him'
nahw*e*kom	'to adorn you'	kahsrw*e*kom	'to help you'
nahw*e*yuh	'to adorn me'	kahsrw*e*yuh	'to help me'

6. Word-final *a* of a transitive verb is also affected by the third person object pronoun as well as by the first and second person object pronouns. When the verb *sruhnga* 'to dislike' is followed by object pronouns, the final vowel *a* is changed into *ac*, as we can see in the following examples.

Spelling	*Gloss*	*Spelling*	*Gloss*
sruhng*a*	'to dislike'	luhm*a*	'to picture in mind'
sruhngw*acl*	'to dislike him'	luhmw*acl*	'to picture him in mind'
sruhngw*ac*kom	'to dislike you'	luhmw*ac*kom	'to picture you in mind'
sruhngw*ac*yuh	'to dislike me'	luhmw*ac*yuh	'to picture me in mind'

VARIANT FORMS

When a two-syllable transitive verb takes the third person object pronoun, a three-syllable word is formed. For example, when the word *pihsrihk* 'to flick' is used with the third person object pronoun, it becomes a three-syllable word. *puhsruhkuhl*, which can be and often is reduced to a two-syllable word in actual speech. Compare the following two forms:

Spelling	*Gloss*
puhsr*uh*kuhl	'to flick him'
puhsrk*uh*l	'to flick him'

The first word above is a three-syllable word, whereas the second one is a two-syllable word. The two-syllable form is derived from the three-syllable form by reducing one syllable in the following way. The second vowel *uh* of *puhsruhkuhl* is lost. After the vowel is lost, the consonant *sr*, which belonged to the second syllable before the vowel was lost, becomes the last consonant of the first syllable. In other words, the first syllable becomes a closed one. The first vowel, which was short before the second vowel was lost, becomes long after the second vowel is lost and the consonant *sr* becomes the last consonant of the first syllable.

The changes are represented in the following way (the symbol · indicates the syllable boundaries):

puh·sruh.	kuhl	
puh·sr	kuhl	After the loss of *uh* in the second syllable.
puhsr·	kuhl	After the first syllable is closed.

We will now examine in some detail the process of syllable reduction—a term used when all or part of a syllable is lost. For syllable reduction to take place, the following conditions must be met: 1) the verb must have two or more syllables; 2) the last syllable must have an initial consonant; 3) the last syllable must end with a consonant; i.e., it must be a closed syllable. Syllable reduction cannot take place in a word such as *sruok* 'to catch' because the final syllable begins with a vowel. Nor can syllable reduction take place in a verb such as *etuh* 'to know' because the final syllable is not a closed one.

When *uh* comprises the second and third vowels of transitive verbs followed by third person object pronouns, the second

vowel is lost. Look at the following pairs of words. The first words are the long forms and the second are short forms.

Spelling	*Gloss*	*Spelling*	*Gloss*
ek*uh*luhl	'to turn him'	pahk*uh*nuhl	'to push him'
ekluhl	'to turn him'	pahknuhl	'to push him'

The short form of *apuhsuhl* 'to sting him' is expected to be *apsuhl*, according to the pattern we have observed above, but correct form is not *apsuhl* but *apsel*. Observe these additional examples.

Spelling	*Gloss*	*Spelling*	*Gloss*
afuhnuhl	'to cover him'	kafuhsuhl	'to hold him'
afnwel	'to cover him'	kafsel	'to hold him'

When the second vowel of the long form is *a*, the first and third vowels become *a*, and the second vowel is then lost. Observe the following examples.

Spelling	*Gloss*	*Spelling*	*Gloss*
kihsr*a*nguhl	'to bump into him'	srihl*a*nguhl	'to replace him'
k*a*srng*a*l	'to bump into him'	sr*a*ngl*a*l	'to replace him'
tihp*a*luhl	'to pick him up'	suhf*a*nuhl	'to scold him'
t*a*pl*a*l	'to pick him up'	s*a*fn*a*l	'to scold him'

However, when the first vowel is a front vowel, it does not change into *a*. Look at the following examples.

Spelling	*Gloss*	*Spelling*	*Gloss*
ituhng	'to press'	esam	'to remember'
it*a*nguhl	'to press him'	es*a*muhl	'to remember him'
*i*tng*a*l	'to press him'	esm*a*l	'to remember him'

When the second vowel of a long form is *o* or *oh*, the last vowel of a short form is *o*. Look at the following examples.

Spelling	*Gloss*	*Spelling*	*Gloss*
pahtohkohl	'to push him'	osrokohl	'to shake him'
pahtk*o*l	'to push him'	osrk*o*l	'to shake him'

Spelling	*Gloss*	*Spelling*	*Gloss*
ahngohnohl	'to bother him'	ekosuhl	'to turn him'
ahngn*o*l	'to bother him'	eks*o*l	'to turn him'

THREE-SYLLABLE WORDS

Three-syllable transitive verbs become four-syllable words when a third person object pronoun is affixed. The verb *suhnakihn* 'to respect' becomes a four-syllable word *suhnakuhnuhl* 'to respect him'. But the four-syllable word can be reduced to a two-syllable word *saknal*. Between the long form and the short form, we can notice the following changes. The first *uh* and *n* of *suhnakuhnuhl* are lost and the remaining *s*, *a* and *k* form one syllable, *sak*. The second vowel *uh* of *suhnakuhnuhl* is lost and the last vowel *uh* seems to be assimilated by the first vowel *a* of *sak*, and becomes a.

The changes are represented in the following way.

suh. na. kuh. nuhl	
s . a. kuh. nuhl	: After the loss of the first *uh* and *n*.
s . a. k . nuhl	: After the loss of the second *uh*.
s a k. na l	: After the assimilation and the syllable restructuring.

Observe these additional examples.

Spelling	*Gloss*	*Spelling*	*Gloss*
tuhlakuhnuhl	'to jerk him'	fohlohkuhnuhl	'to return him'
tak*n*al	'to jerk him'	foh*k*noh*l*	'to return him'

The words *kihpackihn* 'to throw' and *lihpackihn* 'to hurl' are three-syllable words. When the object pronouns are added, they become four-syllable words, as in the following.

Spelling	*Gloss*
kihpackuhnuhl	'to throw him'
lihpackuhnuhl	'to hurl him'

The four-syllable words can be reduced to two-syllable words. The first two syllables are reduced to one syllable and the last

two syllables to another. The word *lihpackuhnuhl* is reduced in the following way:

lih. pac. kuh. nuhl	
luh. pac. kuh. nuhl	: After *ih* is lowered to *uh*.
luh. p . kuh. nuhl	: After the loss of *ac*.
luh. p . k nuhl	: After loss of *uh* after *k*.
luhp. nguhl	: After merger of *k* and *n* into *ng*.

The first vowel *ih* (see above) is lowered to *uh* and is lengthened, and the second vowel *ac* is lost. The third vowel *uh* in *lihpackuhnuhl* is lost also, and the velar consonant *k* and the dental nasal *n* are merged into one sound *ng*.

MONOSYLLABLE WORDS

In the preceding sections, we have observed that three- and four-syllable words are reduced to two-syllable words. In the case of the monosyllable verbs *wi* 'to accompany' and *kang* 'to eat', a consonant must be added before the suffix can occur. If the third person object pronoun is added to the verb *wi*, the consonant *l* must be added to the second syllable, as in *wehuhl*. When the third person object pronoun is used with *kang*, the consonant *n* must be added to the second syllable, as in *kangnuhl*.

Transitive Verbs—Directional Suffixes

4.2.3.2 In the preceding section, we saw that transitive verbs undergo certain changes in form when they are followed by the object pronouns. Transitive verbs can also be followed by directional suffixes, which are listed below.

List of Directional Suffixes

ma	'to the speaker'
oht	'hence'
lah	'away'
acng	'to'
yac	'down'
ack	'up'

The directional suffix *-yac* 'down' is similar to the first and the second person object pronouns in that it affects only those transitive verbs with word-final *uh* or *a*. The rest of the directional

suffixes affect the transitive verbs just like the third person object pronoun. For example, before *kom* 'you', *yuh* 'me', and *-yac* 'down', the verb *futung* 'to kick' undergoes no change. But before *ohl* 'him' and the other directional suffixes, *futung* becomes *fotong*. Look at the following paradigm for *futung*.

fut*u*ngkom	'to kick you'
fut*u*ngyuh	'to kick me'
fut*u*ngyac	'to kick down'
fot*o*ngohl	'to kick him'
fot*o*nglah	'to kick away'
fot*o*ngma	'to kick to me'
fot*o*ngoht	'to kick to you'
fot*o*ngacng	'to kick to (something)'
fot*o*ngack	'to kick up'

The transitive verbs undergo the following changes when they are followed by the third person object pronoun:

i becomes *e*
ih becomes *uh*
u becomes *o*
e becomes *ac*
uh becomes *a*
o becomes *oh*
Word-final *uh* or *a* becomes *ac*

Exactly the same changes take place when the transitive verbs are followed by the directional suffixes *-lah*, *-ma*, *-oht*, *-acng*, and *-ack*. Note the following examples:

Spelling	*Gloss*	*Spelling*	*Gloss*
*i*l	'to rub'	sru*o*k	'to hold'
*e*llah	'to rub away'	sru*oh*klah	'to take away by holding'
p*ih*s	'to turn'	sr*uh*k	'to lift'
p*uh*sma	'to turn to me'	sr*a*klah	'to remove by lifting'
t*u*k	'to pound'	sa*u*k	'to catch'
t*o*klah	'to have pounded'	sa*o*klah	'to have caught'
twem	'to sharpen'	et*uh*	'to know'
twa*c*mlah	'to have sharpened'	etwa*c*lah	'to figure out'

Spelling	*Gloss*	*Spelling*	*Gloss*
il*uh*ng	'to part'	sr*uh*nga	'to dislike'
il*a*nguhl	'to have parted'	sruhngw*a*clah	'to come to dislike'

A word-final *uh* is changed into *e* when it is followed by the first and second person object pronouns. Exactly the same change takes place when word-final *uh* is followed by the directional suffix *-yac*. Look at the following examples.

Spelling	*Gloss*	*Spelling*	*Gloss*
suhp*uh*	'to send'	or*uh*	'to bend'
suhpw*e*yac	'to send down'	orw*e*yac	'to bend down'

Transitive Verbs—Object Suffix—Directional Suffix

4.2.3.3 A transitive verb can be used with object pronouns and directional suffixes. The transitive verb *pahtok* 'to push' is followed by both the object pronoun *kom* 'you' and the directional suffix *-yak*.

pahtok-kom-yak 'to push you up'

When a transitive verb is used with both the object pronoun and a directional suffix, there are two types of changes. First, when the object pronoun is the first or second person, the forms of the directional suffixes undergo the following changes:

Directional Suffixes After Transitive Verbs	*Directional Suffixes After* kom *and* yuh
lah is changed into	*lac*
acng is changed into	*yang*
yac is changed into	*i*
ack is changed into	*yak*
ma is changed into	*me*
oht is changed into	*wot*

Compare the forms of the directional suffixes after *lihs* 'to chase' with those after *lihskom* 'to chase you'.

luhs*lah*	lihskom*lac*
luhs*acng*	lihskom*yang*
lihs*yac*	lihskom*i*
luhs*ack*	lihskom*yak*
luhs*ma*	lihskom*me*
luhs*oht*	lihyuh*wot*

When the object pronoun which appears between the transitive verb and the directional suffix is the third person object pronoun, the directional suffixes do not undergo any change. Observe the following set of examples.

luhsuhl*lah*
luhsuhl*acng*
luhsuhl*ack*
luhsuhl*ma*
luhsuhl*oht*
lihsil*yac*

THIRD PERSON OBJECT PRONOUN FORM BEFORE -YAC

The third person object pronoun form is generally *-uhl*, which is sometimes pronounced as *-ohl* when it is preceded by a round vowel. As we saw in the preceding paragraphs the third person object pronoun affects the pronunciation of the preceding transitive verbs. But when it is followed by the directional suffix *-yac* 'down', the third person object pronoun does not affect the pronunciation of the transitive verbs and its form is generally *-il* when the last syllable of the transitive verb is a closed syllable; otherwise it is *-el*. Look at the following examples showing the verb stem with the third person suffix only, followed by the verb stem plus the third person and the directional suffix *-yac*.

Spelling	*Gloss*	*Spelling*	*Gloss*
irohng*uhl*	'to look at him'	lohs*uhl*	'to tie him'
irong*il*yac		los*il*yac	
lohng*uhl*	'to step on him'	kang*uhl*	'to eat him'
long*il*yac		kang*il*yac	

When the last vowel of a transitive verb with two or more syllables is high and when it is followed by the third person object pronoun and the directional suffix *-yac*, the high vowel is usually deleted. The verb *usruk* 'to shake', for example, is a two-syllable word and the last vowel of it is a high vowel. When it is followed by the third person object pronoun and the suffix *-yac*, the expected form is *usrukilyac*. The second vowel, however, can be deleted after lengthening of the first short vowel, as in *usrkilyac*. Note the following additional examples.

Spelling	*Gloss*	*Spelling*	*Gloss*
ilungilyac *ilngilyac*	'to rest on him'	*futungilyac* *futngilyac*	'to kick him down'
wihkihnilyac *wihknilyac*	'to hide him'	*ipihsilyac* *ipsilyac*	'to roll him down'

However, when the first vowel of a transitive verb is a low vowel such as *a* or *ah*, the second high vowel following it must be deleted. The word *apihs* 'to sting' has a low vowel *a* in the first syllable, which is followed by a high vowel *ih*. When the verb is followed by the third person object pronoun *-il* and the suffix *-yac*, the second vowel must be deleted. *Apihsilyac* is not acceptable. It must be *apsilyac*. Look at the following additional examples.

Spelling	*Gloss*	*Spelling*	*Gloss*
afihn afnilyac	'to cover' 'to cover him'	sahkihn sahknilyac	'to beat' 'to beat him'
kafihs kafsilyac	'to hold' 'to hold him'	pahkihn pahknilyac	'to push' 'to push him'

Word-final *uh* becomes *e* before the third person object pronoun and the directional suffix *-yac*. Note the following examples.

Spelling	*Gloss*	*Spelling*	*Gloss*
suhp*uh* suhpw*e*lyac	'to send' 'to send him'	or*uh* orw*e*lyac	'to bend' 'to bend him'
tahf*uh* tahfw*e*lyac	'to help' 'to help him'		

Transitive Verbs—Passive Suffix

4.2.3.4 When the passive suffix *-yuhk* is used with transitive verbs, it affects only those transitive verbs which have word-final *uh* or *a*. The word *kahsruh* 'to help' has a word-final *uh*, which becomes *e* when it is followed by the passive suffix as in *kahsrweyuhk* 'to be helped'. The word *sruhnga* 'to dislike' has a word-final *a*. *A* becomes *ac* when it is followed by the passive suffix, as in *sruhngwacyuhk* 'to be disliked'. Observe the following additional examples.

Spelling	*Gloss*	*Spelling*	*Gloss*
et*uh*	'to know'	nuhnk*uh*	'to think'
etw*e*yuhk	'to be known'	nuhnkw*e*yuh	'to be thought of'
nahw*uh*	'to adorn'	tahf*uh*	'to extend'
nahw*e*yuhk	'to be adorned'	tahfw*e*yuhk	'to be extended'

Transitive Verbs—Passive Suffix—Directional Suffix

4.2.3.5 After the passive suffix, the forms of the directional suffixes are like those that appear after the first and second person object pronouns. Compare the forms of the directional suffixes. In the first column, they appear after transitive verbs; in the second, they appear after the passive suffix.

Spelling	*Gloss*	*Spelling*	*Gloss*
pahtok*lah*	'to push away'	pahtoyuhk*lac*	'to be pushed away'
pahtok*acng*	'to push to'	pahtokyuhk*yang*	'to be pushed to'
pahtok*yac*	'to push down'	pahtokyuhk*i*	'to be pushed down'
pahtok*ack*	'to push up'	pahtokyuhk*yak*	'to be pushed up'
pahtok*ma*	'to push to me'	pahtokyuhk*me*	'to be pushed to me'
pahtok*oht*	'to push away'	pahtokyuhkwot	'to be pushed away'
luhslah	'to chase away'	lihsyuhk*lac*	'to be chased away'
luhs*acng*	'to chase to'	lihsyuhk*yang*	'to be chased to'
lihs*yac*	'to chase down'	lihsyuhk*i*	'to be chased down'
luhs*ack*	'to chase up'	lihsyuhk*yak*	'to be chased up'
luhs*ma*	'to chase to me'	lihsyuhk*me*	'to be chased to me'
luhs*oht*	'to chase away'	lihsyuhk*wot*	'to be chased away'

Intransitive Verbs—Directional Suffixes

4.2.3.6 The intransitive verbs cannot be used with the passive suffix or with the object pronouns *yuh* 'me', *kom* 'you', and *uhl* 'him'. But they can be used with directional suffixes. Unlike the transitive verbs, intransitive verbs do not undergo any change in form when they are followed by directional suffixes. On the other hand, the forms of the directional suffixes are determined by the height of the final vowels of intransitive verbs. The adjectives behave very similarly to the intransitive verbs and will be presented together with the intransitive verbs.

Each of the directional suffixes has two forms as listed below.

Directional Suffixes

lah	lac	'away'
acng	yang	'to'
ack	yak	'up'
ma	me	'to the speaker'
oht	wot	'hence'
yac	i	'down'

The directional suffixes in the first column will be referred to as *lah*-set and those in the second column will be referred to as *lac*-set. In the following paragraphs the intransitive verbs and adjectives will be presented according to the height of the final vowels, and the forms of the directional suffixes that they take will be examined.

1. When the final vowels of the intransitive verbs or adjectives are high, such as *i*, *ih* or *u*, the directional suffixes of the *lac*-set are used. Look at the following examples in which the final vowels are high.

Intransitive Verbs	*Suffixes*
ukuk 'to blow'	lac, yang, yak, me, wot, i
ahtu 'to jump'	lac, yang, yak, me, wot, i
tihpihrpihr 'to wiggle'	lac, yang, yak, me, wot, i
lihllihl 'to chase'	lac, yang, yak, me, wot, i
isis 'to burn'	lac, yang, yak, me, wot, i
ipip 'to roll'	lac, yang, yak, me, wot, i

2. When the final vowels of the intransitive verbs and adjectives are mid vowels, such as *e*, *uh* or *o*, the suffixes of the *lac*-set are usually used. But there are many unpredictable variations, as we can see in the list below. (Suffixes that are missing from this list do not occur with that particular stem.)

Intransitive Verbs	*Suffixes*
enyen 'to bail'	lac, yang, yak, me, wot, i lah
aen 'to iron'	lac, yang, yak, me, wot, i lah, ack
roe 'to slant'	lac, yang, yak, me, wot, i

Intransitive Verbs		*Suffixes*
yuh	'to rush'	lac, yang, yak, me, wot, i
kakuh	'to scratch'	lac, yang, yak, me, wot, i
sinuhk	'to push'	lac, yang, yak, me, wot, i ack
for	'to turn'	lac, yang, yak, me, wot, i lah, acng, ack
sro	'to jump'	lac, yang, yak, me, wot, i lah, acng, ack
pupop	'to hit'	lac, yang, yak, me, wot, i ma

3. When the final vowels of the intransitive verbs are either mid-low or low, suffixes of either the *lah*-set or the *lac*-set can be used, except for *-yac*, which is never used with intransitive verbs or adjectives.

Intransitive Verbs		*Suffixes*
upac	'difficult'	lac, yang, yak, me, wot, i lah, ack
pwacr	'glad'	yak ack
fihsracsr	'easy'	lac yak ack
olahlah	'wet'	lac, yang, yak, me, wot, i lah, acng, ack, ma, oht
tahltahl	'to wash'	lac, yang, yak, me, wot, i lah, acng, ack, ma, oht,
suhlahklahk	'to hurry'	lac, yang, yak, me, wot, i lah, acng, ack, ma, oht
kuhf	'to curve'	lac, yang, yak, me, wot, i lah, acng, ack, ma, oht
muhtwacta	'to wander'	lac, yang, yak, me, wot, i lah, acng, ack, ma, oht
mas	'to be sick'	lac, yak lah, ack
tohktohk	'high'	lac, yak lah, ack

Changes in Consonants

4.2.3.7 In 4.2.3.1–.6 we observed that the vowels of the transitive verbs

undergo changes when the transitive verbs are followed by certain directional suffixes or by the third person object pronoun. In this section we will examine changes in consonants that are caused by the directional suffixes or the third person object pronoun.

One change in consonants has been noted in 4.2.3.1: the word-final *uh* or *a* becomes *e* or *ac* when they are followed by object pronouns or directional suffixes. Subsequent to these changes in vowels, the consonants that immediately precede the vowels are velarized. Some examples are repeated below.

nuhnk*uh*	'to think'
nuhn*kw*ekom	'to think of you'
nuhn*kw*eyuh	'to think of me'
nuhn*kw*eyac	'to fix in mind'
nuhn*kw*aclah	'to figure out'
nuhn*kw*acack	'to think of'

In the following paragraphs we will observe similar changes.

1. When the transitive verbs that end with *i* are followed by the directional suffixes or the third person object pronoun, the final *i* is lowered to *e*, and at the same time the consonants preceding *e* are velarized. Observe the following pairs of simple and suffixed forms.

Simple Form		*Suffixed Form*
puhk*i*	'to spread sand'	puh*kw*elah
tuh*pi*	'to put in a *tuhp*'	tuh*pw*elah
kah*ti*	'to move in a cart'	kah*tw*elah
mi*li*	'to put milk'	mi*lw*elah

2. When the directional suffixes *-ack* 'up' and *-acng* 'to' are attached to verbs or adjectives that end with consonants, the final consonants become velarized, except for the cases in which the preceding vowels are round. The verb *fahk* 'to say' ends with the consonant *k*. The final consonant is velarized when followed immediately by the suffix *-ack* or *-acng*, as in *fahkwacng* 'to speak to' or *fahkwack* 'to speak up'.

Observe the following additional examples.

Simple Form		*Suffixed Form*	
ka*p*	'to grow'	ka*pw*ack	'to grow up'

Simple Form		*Suffixed Form*	
nih*m*	'to drink'	nuh*m*wack	'to drink partially'
fah*f*	'to swell'	fah*f*wack	'to swell up'
ka*ng*	'to eat'	ka*ng*wack	'to eat partially'
pah*t*	'to drift'	pah*t*wack	'to drift upwards'

3. When the suffixes *-ack* and *-acng* are attached to verbs or adjectives that end with consonants, and the vowels preceding the consonants are round, the final consonants become round. The verb *itul* 'to string', for example, ends with a consonant *l* and the vowel preceding *l* is round. When *-ack* or *-acng* is attached to the verb, the final consonant becomes round; *etoloack* 'to string upwards' and *etoloacng* 'to string towards'.

Observe the following additional examples.

Simple Form		*Suffixed Form*	
fukul	'to break'	fokoloack	'to break up'
kuni	'to extinguish'	konoelah	'to put out'
fulus	'to paste'	folosoacng	'to paste to'
koti	'to cut'	kotoelah	'to cut off'
kunuti	'to chew'	kontwelah	'to chew off'

In this grammar velarized and rounded consonants before the suffixes are not marked on the following grounds: 1) velarizing and rounding of the consonants before the suffixes are predictable as we have observed in the preceding paragraphs, and 2) there will be no confusion as to the right pronunciation of the suffixed forms even though the changes are not marked.

ADJECTIVES

4.3

General Characteristics of Adjectives

4.3.1 Adjectives generally denote the kind, state, condition or quality of objects. The word *wo* 'good' in *tuhlihk wo sac* 'the good child' denotes the quality of the child. The word *fol* 'hot' in *kof fol sac* 'the hot water' denotes the state of the water.

Adjectives have two major uses. One use is to modify nouns in terms of the kind, state, condition or quality, as we have seen in the preceding paragraph. The term **attributive use** will be used to refer to the modifying function of the adjectives. The other use is

very similar to that of the intransitive verbs. The word *wo* 'good', for example, has a predicate-like function in the following sentence.

Tuhlihk sac arlac *wo*.
'The child is very good.'

The term **predicate use** will be used to refer to the use of adjectives such as that of *wo* 'good' in the sentence above.

The distinction between adjectives and intransitive verbs is not easy to draw. However, we can see some clear differences between the two word-classes. First, intransitive verbs can be used in an imperative sentence. (See 9.3 for the definition of the imperative sentence.) Look at the following examples.

Srolah liki oak soko ah.
'Jump off the canoe.'

Sayang nuh sel Sohn.
'Shout to John.'

Kahsruhsr nuh lohm sum ah.
'Run to your house.'

But adjectives cannot be used in imperative sentences. In order for adjectives to be used in imperative sentences, they must be causativized, as the examples below show.

Ahkwoye kom.
'Be good.' (Make yourself good.)

Ahkpihsrpihsrye kom.
'Be quick.' (Make yourself quick.)

Ahkalkenye kom.
'Be diligent.' (Make yourself diligent.)

Second, with regard to nominalization, adjectives and intransitive verbs behave differently. The term **nominalization** refers to the process of forming nouns from adjectives or verbs. Adjectives can be changed into nouns with the suffix *-iyac*. The word *kuluk* 'bad' can be changed into a noun with the suffix *-iyac* as in *kulukiyac* 'badness'. But intransitive verbs cannot be used with this suffix. Look at the following additional examples which show the relationship between adjectives and their corresponding nouns.

Adjectives		*Nouns*	
wo	'good'	woiyac	'goodness'

Adjectives		*Nouns*	
lohsr	'dark'	lohsriyac	'darkness'
kahto	'pretty'	kahtoiyac	'prettiness'

Third, there is a verb *orek* 'to be being or to pretend' with which the adjectives can be used but the intransitive verbs can not. When *orek* is used with adjective, it can be translated as 'be being ...' or 'to pretend to be ...' Look at the following sentences.

Sohn el *orek* suhmaht.
'John pretends to be smart.'

Sohn el *orek* fuhng.
'John is being handsome.'

Like the other classes of words in Kusaiean, adjectives can be analyzed as simple, ecomplex, and compound. Simple adjectives are made up of single free morphemes. Complex adjectives are made up of a free morpheme with one or more than one bound morpheme. Compound adjectives are made up of at least two free morphemes, with or without additional bound morphemes. Some examples are presented below.

Simple Adjectives	*Gloss*
kuluk	'bad'
fuhsr	'young'
paho	'dry'
engan	'glad'
upac	'hard', 'difficult'
Complex Adjectives (1)	
kuluk*lah*	'to have become bad'
paho*yak*	'to get dry'
engan*ack*	'to become glad'
upac*lac*	'to have become (too) difficult'
Complex Adjectives (2)	
liy*etwen*	'sensitive in seeing'
lohng*twen*	'sensitive in hearing'
sruok*twen*	'good at catching'
lahlah	'branchy'
fohkfohk	'dirty'

Complex adjectives listed in (2) are derived from verbs or nouns. The word *liyetwen* 'good at seeing' is made up of two morphemes.

Liye 'to see' is a free morpheme and also a verb. *Twen* is a suffix which changes some verbs into adjectives. In other words, *liyetwen* is derived from the verb *liye* 'to see'. The word *lahlah* 'branchy' is derived from the noun *lah* 'branch'. By reduplicating the noun *lah*, the adjective *lahlah* is derived. (See Chapter 5 for some other processes of deriving adjectives from other parts of speech.)

Compound Adjectives

sruhsrah fohkfohk	'brown' (red—dirty)
sruhsrah nwacsnwacs	'light red' (red—clean)
folfol sra	'green' (blue—leaf)
folfol nwem	'ocean blue' (blue—ocean)

Suffixes that are commonly used with adjectives are *-i* 'down', *-yak* 'up', or *-lah* 'away'. When the suffixes are used with adjectives they denote different aspects of inception, or completion. (They will be discussed in 6.3, together with verbal suffixes.)

Subclassification of Adjectives

4.3.2 As with the nouns and verbs, the adjectives will be subclassified according to their uses—attributive and predicative.

Attributive Adjectives

4.3.2.1 Attributive adjectives are classified in terms of their meaning. They are material, color, size, shape and quality adjectives. The subclassification of the adjectives in terms of meaning is important because, although more than one adjective can modify a noun, it is seldom the case that more than one adjective of the same class modifies a noun. When a noun is modified by more than one adjective, the adjectives appear after the noun in a relatively fixed order. For example, if the two adjectives *rangrang* 'yellow' and *simacn* 'cement' modify the noun *lohm* 'house', the material adjective *simacn* 'cement' occurs right after the noun as in *lohm simacn rangrang se* 'a yellow house'.

Some adjectives that belong to the different classes are presented below.

Material Adjectives

sahk 'wooden'

Material Adjectives

yot	'stone'
kuhtin	'cotton'
nuknuk	'cloth'
simacn	'cement'

The words listed above can also be used as nouns. Nouns that denote materials can usually be used as material adjectives.

Color Adjectives

rangrang	'yellow'
folfol	'blue'
sroalsroal	'black'
sruhsrah	'red'
fasrfasr	'white'
apact	'grey'
suklac	'burgundy'

Size Adjectives

luhlahp	'big'
yohk	'large'
sralahp	'wide'
srihk	'small'
fuhlwact	'high'
pihsisacl	'low'

Shape Adjectives

raun	'round'
maspang	'square'
sukoe	'square'

Quality, State, Condition Adjectives

wo	'good'
kuluk	'bad'
fwel	'smooth'
sraksrak	'rough'
mihs	'calm'
sirengreng	'curly'

Predicate Adjectives

4.3.2.2 Adjectives of predicative use can be divided into two classes:

emotional and non-emotional adjectives. The term **emotional adjective** is used to refer to the adjectives that are used to describe emotions or feelings, such as *ahsor* 'sad' or *engan* 'glad'. Adjectives other than emotional adjectives are **non-emotional adjectives**. Some examples of each class of adjectives are presented below.

Emotional Adjectives

toasr	'sad', 'depressed'
tonong	'shy'
tuhpwek	'ashamed'
pwacr	'happy'
sensen	'worried'
sok	'jealous'
sahnweng	'afraid'

Non-Emotional Adjectives

fwel	'smooth'
suhlallael	'mean'
rahpkuh	'greedy'
sakihrihk	'strange'
watwen	'brave'
los	'pretty'
yuh	'delicious'
fuhng	'handsome'

The classification of predicate adjectives into emotional and non-emotional is useful in the following respect. The classification makes it easy to interpret the prepositions. (See 4.8 for the definition and uses of the preposition.) The preposition *sihk*, for example, can have two different meanings when it is used with emotional adjectives. In the following sentence the emotional adjective *ahsor* 'sad' is used. As the two translations indicate, the preposition *sihk* has two different meanings.

Muhtwacn sac ahsor sihk.
'The woman is sad because of me.'
'The woman (seems to be) sad to me.'

However, with non-emotional adjectives the preposition has only one meaning. Look at the following sentence where the non-emotional adjective *wo* 'good' is used.

Muhtwacn sac wo sihk.
'The woman (seems to be) good to me.'

The compound preposition *nuh sihk* can be used only with non-emotional adjectives, as in the following sentence.

Muhtwacn sac wo nuh sihk.
'The woman is kind to me.'

But the following sentence is not acceptable.

Muhtwacn sac ahsor nuh sihk.

PRONOUNS

4.4 A **pronoun** is a word that is used as a substitute for a noun. There are six subclasses of pronouns: personal, reflexive, reciprocal, indefinite, relative, and demonstrative. In what follows each of the types of pronouns will be examined.

PERSONAL PRONOUNS

4.4.1 In a conversation or dialogue there is a person who speaks and a person or persons spoken to. There may be some others who are involved in that conversation or dialogue. The term **first person** is used to refer to the speaker. The term **second person** is used to refer to the person who is spoken to. The term **third person** is used to refer to persons spoken about.

Personal pronouns substitute for nouns, but they differ from nouns in the following respects. Nouns can be used as subjects of sentences or objects of verbs and prepositions without any change in their forms. The form of the noun *nu* 'coconut' remains the same whether it is used as a subject or an object. Note the noun *nu* 'coconut' in the following sentences.

Nu se puhtatlac. 'A coconut fell.'
subject
Nga sollah *nu* se. 'I opened a coconut.'
object

The personal pronouns change their forms according to their functions. The form of the first person personal pronoun is *nga* when it is used as a subject, but *yuh* when it is used as an object.

A second way in which nouns differ from pronouns is that nouns can refer to single or plural objects with no change in form. The noun *mwet* 'person' can be used to refer to a single person, as in *mwet se* 'one man', and it can also be used to refer to more than one person, as in *mwet singuhul* 'ten men'. But the

personal pronouns take the bound morpheme *tahl* (plural marker) when they refer to more than one person. The second person form is *kom* 'you' when it refers to a single person, but it is *komtacl* when it refers to more than one person.

The personal pronouns will be discussed in the sequential order of subject pronouns, object pronouns, and possessive pronouns.

Subject Pronouns

4.4.1.1 The subject pronouns are listed below.

Persons	*Singular*	*Plural*
First	nga	kuht kitacl
Second	kom	komtacl
Third	el	eltahl

As the name indicates, the subject pronouns are used as **subjects**. Observe the following examples where the pronouns are used as subjects.

Nga soenna liyacl Sohn.
'I have not seen John yet.'

Kuht nuhmlah piru ah
'We drank the beer.'

Kom (or *komtacl*) enenuh kuhtuh pac?
'Do you (or you (pl)) need some too?'

El (or *eltahl*) tuhkuh ngac?
'When did he (or they) come?'

The first person plural pronoun has two forms *kuht* 'we inclusive' and *kitacl* 'we exclusive'. The terms **inclusive** and **exclusive** are used to distinguish the two plural forms. When the speaker includes the person being spoken to (often called the addressee), the inclusive plural form is used. When the speaker excludes the person spoken to, the exclusive form is used.

The third person singular pronoun is peculiar in two respects. One is that in addition to functioning as a pronoun as we have already defined it, this form also functions as a **subject marker**, indicating that the subjects are proper personal nouns. In the following pairs of sentences, the word *el* is used both as subject and as a marker of a proper personal noun.

el as Subject	*el as Subject Marker*
El mas. 'He is sick.'	Sohn *el* mas. 'John is sick.'
El puokohl Sah. 'He is hitting Sah.'	Sohn *el* puokohl Sah. 'John is hitting Sah.'

The third person personal pronouns, in addition, are the only ones that can be modified by the determiners. In the examples below the pronouns *el* and *eltahl* are used with the determiners.

el uh	'this he'
el an	'that he'
el oh	'that he over there'
eltahl uh	'these here'
eltahl an	'those there'
eltahl oh	'those over there'

Object Pronouns

4.4.1.2 The pronouns listed below are object pronouns.

Persons	*Singular*	*Plural*
First	yuh	kuht (inclusive) kitacl (exclusive)
Second	kom	komtahl
Third	el il uhl ohl acl	eltahl iltahl uhltahl ohltahl acltahl

Five forms of the third person object pronouns are listed. These different forms occur in the following environments:

1. Before the directional suffix *yac* 'down', the two forms *el* and *il* occur. The form *el* occurs when transitive verbs end in the vowels *uh* or *a*, as we can see in the examples below.

suhp*uh*	'to send'
suhp*wel*yac	'to send him down'
et*uh*	'to know'
et*wel*yac	'to know him thoroughly'
ema	'to taste'
em*wel*yac	'to taste and choose'

The form *il* occurs when the transitive verbs end in any consonant, as shown below.

sruok	'to hold'
sruok*il*yac	'to hold him firmly'
taun	'to bury'
taun*il*yac	'to bury him'

2. The form *acl* occurs after transitive verbs that end in the vowel *uh* or *a*. It also occurs when the object pronoun is not followed by the directional suffix *yac*.

suhp*uh*	'to send'
suhpw*acl*	'to send him'
et*uh*	'to know'
etw*acl*	'to know him'
sruhng*a*	'to hate'
sruhngw*acl*	'to hate him'

3. The form *uhl* occurs elsewhere; that is, it occurs in all the environments except for the three specified in the preceding sections. Look at the following examples.

lohng	'to listen to'
lohng*uhl*	'to listen to him'
lohng*ohl*	
kahl	'to touch'
kahl*uhl*	'to touch him'
suhfan	'to criticize'
suhfan*uhl*	'to criticize him'

When the last vowel of a transitive verb is round, the third person object pronoun can be either *uhl* or *ohl*, as we can see in the first set above.

The third person object pronoun, when it is suffixed to verbs, changes the form of the transitive verbs in many cases. (For a detailed discussion of such changes, see 4.2.3.1.)

As the name indicates, the object pronouns are used as objects of transitive verbs. In the sentences below the object pronouns are used as objects of transitive verbs. (The object pronouns are italicized.)

Mwet sac koase*yuh*.
'The man hates me.'

Mwet sac ac srihfe*kom*.
'The man will tempt you.'

Nikmet fotong*ohl*.
'Don't kick him.'

The third person singular pronoun object can function both as a pronoun and as a marker indicating that the object is a proper personal noun, such as *Sohn* or *Sepe*.

uhl as Object	*uhl as Object Marker*
Nga ol*ohl*. 'I washed him.'	Nga ol*ohl* Sohn. 'I washed John.'
Ninac el kiht*acl*. 'Mother is feeding him.'	Ninac el kiht*acl* Sepe. 'Mother is feeding Sepe.'

Possessive Pronouns

4.4.1.3 The possessive pronouns are bound morphemes. The morphophonemic changes related to the possessive pronouns are treated in 4.1.3. The possessive pronouns are listed below.

Persons	*Singular*	*Plural*
First	-k	-sr (Inclusive) -ktacl (Exclusive)
Second	-m	-mtacl
Third	-l	-ltahl
Construct Form	-n	

A new term **construct form** is introduced in the list above. The construct form is a third person form. But it differs from the third person form *-l* in the following respect. When the noun expressing the possessor is a proper personal noun, the third person form is used. When the noun expressing the possessor is not a proper personal noun, the construct form is used. Observe the following.

sifac-*l Sepe*	'Sepe's head'
sife-n *muhtwacn* se	'The woman's head'
niyac-*l Kuhn*	'Kehn's legs'
niye-*n tepuh* se	'legs of (the) table'

Sepe is a proper personal noun and the possessive pronoun *l* is used in *sifacl Sepe*. On the other hand *muhtwacn se* is not a proper personal name and the construct form *n* is used in *sifen mwet*.

The possessive pronouns as bound morphemes can be attached to the following sets of words.

1. inalienable nouns
2. classifiers
3. prepositions
4. nominalized intransitive verbs
5. nominalized transitive verbs
6. nominalized adjectives

The meanings of the possessive pronouns differ slightly, depending upon their use with the sets of words listed above. Some of these different meanings will now be examined.

First, the possessive pronouns denote the possessors when they are used with the inalienable nouns, as in the following examples. (The hyphen is used to denote the morpheme boundary.)

siyuh-k	'my belly'
siyo-m	'your belly'
siyac-l	'his belly'
siye-n kosro	'dog's belly'

But there are cases in which the meaning of the possessive pronouns is difficult to define. In the following examples it is difficult to say that the possessive pronouns denote the possessors.

siskuh-k	'beside me'
sisko-m	'beside you'
siskac-l	'beside him (or her)'
siske-n siyac sac	'beside the chair'

A second variation in meaning is that the possessive pronouns denote the possessor when they are used with classifers. Note the following.

nu na-k	'my eating coconut'
mos suhno-m	'your breadfruit trees'
ik osrawac-l	'his (or her) raw fish'

The general classifier *la* can be used with nominalized intransitive verbs, as in the following.

yuhn lohm luh-k	'my house-decorating'
fakfuhk pahko lo-m	'your shark-spearing'
kihnkihn la-l	'his pinching'

The possessive pronouns above have the subject-like relation to the deverbalized nouns, such as *yuhn* 'decorating', *fakfuhk* 'spearing' and *kihnkihn* 'pinching'. That is, the one who decorates the house is 'I' in the expression *yuhn lohm luh-k* and the one who spears the shark is 'you' in the expression *fakfuhk pahko lo-m*.

Third, the possessive pronouns can be used with the prepositions, as the following suffixed forms of the prepositions will illustrate.

sih-k	'by me'	kei-k	'near me'
su-m	'by you'	kei-m	'near you'
se-l	'by him'	kac-l	'near him'

(For different meanings of the prepositions, see 4.8.)

A fourth variation is that the possessive pronouns denote the objects of verbs when they are used with nominalized transitive verbs. Observe the following examples.

usrukıyuh-k	'shaking me'
ouliyo-m	'washing you'
pahngoniyac-l	'calling him'

Finally, when the possessive pronouns are used with nominalized adjectives, they denote the possessors of abstract quality or state. Observe the following examples.

kahtoiyuh-k	'my prettiness'
kahtoiyo-m	'your prettiness'
kahtoiyac-l	'his (or her) prettiness'

To summarize, the personal pronouns have subject, object and possessive forms. Unlike the nouns, the personal pronouns use the plural bound morpheme *-tahl*. The possessive pronouns have several different meanings depending upon the kinds of words they are attached to.

Polite Forms of Personal Pronouns

4.4.1.4 The polite forms of the personal pronouns are used when a speaker talks respectfully to somebody. There are two sets of polite forms. Those of the first set are made up of the personal pronouns, *-to* (respect marker) and *-tahl* (plural marker). Those of the second set are made up of the personal pronouns and *os*,

whose meaning is not clear. The plain forms of the personal pronouns are presented for the sake of comparison.

	Plain Form	*Polite Forms*	
Subject Pronoun		I	II
1st Person	kuht	kuhttotahl	——
2nd Person	kom	komtotahl	komwos
3rd Person	el	eltotahl	elos
Object Pronoun			
1st Person	kuht	kuhttotahl	——
2nd Person	kom	komtotahl	komwos
3rd Person	el	eltotahl	elos
Possessive Pronoun			
1st person	-sr		——
2nd Person	-m	-mtotahl	-mtotahl
3rd Person	-l	-ltotahl	-elos

The polite forms listed in column I are used to refer to more than one person, whereas those listed in column II are usually used to refer to single persons. However, *elos* can be used to refer to more than one person. In such a case, there might be a possible difference in uses between *eltotahl* and *elos*, but this difference remains to be found out.

Humble Forms of Personal Pronouns

4.4.1.5 One noticeable fact that we can observe in the pronoun chart above is that the first person singular pronoun does not have polite forms. Instead, there are two first person pronoun forms which are used when the speaker humbles himself or his group. The two humble forms are *lout* (or *luhut*) 'I' and *kwen* 'we'.

REFLEXIVE PRONOUN *sifac*

4.4.2 The **reflexive pronoun** is *sifac* 'myself, yourself, or himself'. The pronoun has two important uses; a reflexive and an emphatic use. We will note the reflexive use of *sifac* first and then its emphatic use in the following sentences. The pronoun indicates that the subjects and the objects of the transitive verbs are identical.

Sohn el *sifac* na unilyac.
'John killed himself.'

Muhtwacn sac *sifac* na lihkacskilyac.
'The woman shot herself.'

The pronoun *sifac* in the first sentence above indicates that the one whom John killed is John himself.

The pronoun *sifac* in its emphatic use emphasizes a part of a sentence such as the subject, the object of the transitive verb, or the object of the preposition. The following sentences illustrate.

El *sifac* na nahwuh sifael.
'She herself adorned her hair.'

Nga *sifac* na orwaclah mong ah.
'I myself made the food.'

The pronoun *sifac* can refer to the first, second, or third person singular or plural. Note the following examples.

Nga (or kuht) *sifac* na pakiyac sahk soko ah.
'I myself (or we ourselves) chopped down the tree.'

El (or eltahl) *sifac* na som nuh Utwac.
'He himself (or they themselves) went to Utwac.

Nga kahsrwel Sohn *sifac* na.
'I helped John himself.'

RECIPROCAL PRONOUN *sie sin sie*

4.4.3 The term **reciprocal pronoun** refers to the words *sie sin sie*. The pronoun is a compound form, made up of *sie* 'one' and *sin* 'of'. It is used to express mutual action or relation. The following are examples.

Eltahl luhngse *sie sin sie*.
'They like each other.' 'They like one another.'

Kuht etuh *sie sin sie*.
'We know each other.'

Nimet akuhkuhin nuh sin *sie sin sie*.
'Don't argue with each other.'

Eltahl insese nuh sin *sie sin sie*.
'They agree with each other.'

INDEFINITE PRONOUNS

4.4.4 The pronoun *ma* is used to represent previously mentioned words in order to avoid repetitions. In the following sentences,

ma represents the noun *pinsuhl* 'pencil', which is mentioned previously.

Nga molelah pinsuhl itkoe.
'I bought seven pencils.'

Nga sang *ma* rangrang soko nuh sel Sepe.
'I gave yellow ones to Sepe.'

In the sentence below, *ma* represents *ik*, which is mentioned previously.

El ahsack ik lukoac na el use *ma* yohk soko nuh sihk.
'He caught two fish and he gave the big one to me.'

Besides *ma*, the cardinal numbers and some quantifiers, such as *ekahsr* 'a few' or *kuhtuh* 'some', can function as indefinite pronouns. In the following sentences, two cardinal numbers are used. The first cardinal number *yuh* 'nine' is used attributively, whereas the second cardinal number *itkoe* is used as an indefinite pronoun.

Sohn el ahsack ik *yuh* ac nga ahsack *itkoe*.
'John caught nine fish and I caught seven.'

Itoke 'seven', functioning as an indefinite pronoun, can stand for many different things. But in the sentence above, it is clear from the preceding part of the sentence that the number of fish is being talked about. In the following sentence, the quantifier *ekahsr* 'a few' is used.

Sepe el moleah nuknuk puhkantwen ac nga molelah *ekahsr* na.
'Sepe bought a lot of clothes and I bought a few.'

Ekahsr in the sentence above is used as an indefinite pronoun and it is clear from the context that the quantifier denotes the number of clothes.

The word *pac* is often used with the cardinal numbers or quantifiers and denotes addition or difference. The cardinal number *sie* means 'one.' *Sie pac* means 'one more' or 'another.' *Kuhtuh* means 'some' and *kuhtuh pac* means 'some more' or 'some others.' *Sie pac*, *kuhtuh pac*, or any cardinal number with the word *pac* can be used as indefinite pronouns. The following examples will illustrate.

Use sie pac na.
'Bring one more.' 'Bring another.'

Kuhn el sun mwet Koria ekahsr fong ac kuht sun kuhtuh pac.
'Kuhn met a few Koreans last night and we met some others.'

RELATIVE PRONOUN *ma*

4.4.5 The **relative pronoun** is a pronoun which is used before a relative clause, whose function is to modify a noun. In the sentence to follow, the italicized part is a relative clause which modifies the preceding noun *oak*. *Ma* is the relative pronoun.

Oak soko ma *nga orwaclah* ah tihli.
'The canoe that I made sank.'

The relative pronoun *ma* has a dual function. First, it functions as a connector; that is, it connects the two clauses within the sentence. In the sentence above, *ma* connects the relative clause *nga orwaclah* to the sentence *oak soko ah tihli*. Second, *ma* indicates that the preceding noun *oak* in the sentence above is the object of the verb *orwaclah* in the relative clause.

In the sample sentence below, the relative pronoun *ma* connects the relative clause (italicized) to the whole sentence, and it indicates that the preceding noun *tuhlihk se* 'child' is the subject of the relative clause.

Mwet luti sac pwenlah tuhlihk se ma *tuhng* ah.
'The teacher led away the child who was crying.'

Relative clause formation will be described in detail in 10.2.

DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS

4.4.6 The words listed below are demonstrative pronouns.

nge	'this' 'these'
ngacn	'that' 'those'
ngoh	'that or those over there'
ngi	'that or those way over there'

The four words can also be used as determiners. (cf. 4.7).

The demonstrative pronouns are used only in equational sentences of identification such as the ones presented below.

Sohn pa	nge.	This is	is John.
	ngacn.	That	
	ngoh.	That (one) over there	
	ngi.	That (one) way over there	

Tuhlihk na kahto se pa ngoh.
'That is a very pretty girl.'

Mwet na suhkahto se pa nge.
'This is the very ugly man.'

As we can see in the sentences above, the demonstrative pronouns are used in pointing out a specific thing or things.

CLASSIFIERS

4.5

General Characteristics of Classifiers

4.5.1 Some nouns in Kusaiean can refer to different but related things. The noun *nu*, for example, can refer to 'coconut meat', 'coconut tree' or 'coconut milk'. The noun *oak* can refer to a real canoe which can be used for transportation or fishing, or to a toy canoe. However, there is a small set of words which make the meaning of a noun specific. When the word *suhna* is used with the noun *nu* as in *nu suhna*, the noun *nu* means 'coconut tree'. When the word *nihmac* is used with the noun *nu*, the noun *nu* means only 'coconut milk'. The term **classifier** is used to refer to the set of words such as *suhna* or *nihmac*.

Besides marking a noun specific, the classifiers have another important function. With the use of the classifiers, the possessors of the alienable nouns can be expressed. The possessors of the inalienable nouns are expressed by the possessive suffixes. But the alienable nouns cannot take the possessive suffixes. The possessors of the alienable nouns can be indicated. only via the classifiers. The possessive suffix *-k* 'my' can be attached, for example, to the word 'head' as in *sifuh-k* 'my head'. But the suffix can not be used with the alienable noun *nu* 'coconut'. In order to say 'my coconut', a classifier has to be used, as in *nu suhnuhk* 'my coconut'.

The classifiers are very similar to the inalienable nouns in that they can take the possessive suffixes. The classifier *suhna* has the following suffixed forms.

1st Person	suhnuhk
2nd Person	suhnom
3rd Person	suhnwacl
1st Person Plural	suhnwacsr
Impersonal	suhnwac
Construct	suhnwacn

The following is a list of commonly used classifiers. The impersonal forms are used in the list. Notice that the classifiers *nahtuh* and *kiyac* appear twice. *Nahtuh* is a classifier for pets, tools, or toys, and is also a classifier for kinship relationship. *Kiyac* is a classifier for mats, and also a classifier for the kinship relationship.

1.	Transportation	okoac
2.	Land, Shelter	se
3.	Plant	suhnwac
4.	Tool, Pet, Toy	nahtuh
5.	Food	
	A. Drinkable	nihmac
	B. Raw, Uncooked	osrwac
	C. Chewable	niyac
	D. Edible	na
5.	Mat	kiyac
6.	Kinship	
	A. Mother, Wife	kiyac
	B. Father, Husband	tuhmwac
	C. Off-spring	nahtuh
	D. Sibling (1)	wiyac
	E. Sibling (2)	lili
	F. Sibling (3)	lolo
7.	Decoration	
	A. For the neck	ola
	B. For the ear	srwac
	C. For the head	sunyac
8.	General	la

The suffixed forms of the classifiers follow:

	Transportation	*Land, Shelter*
1st Prs.	okuhk	sihk
2nd Prs.	okom	sum
3rd Prs.	okoacl	sel
Construct	okan	sin
	Plant	*Pet, Tool, Toy*
1st Prs.	suhnuhk	nuhtihk
2nd Prs.	suhnom	nuhtum
3rd Prs.	suhnwacl	nahtuhl
Construct	suhnuhn	nuhtin

	Drinkable	*Raw, Uncooked*
1st Prs.	nimuhk	osrwek
2nd Prs.	nihmom	osrwem
3rd Prs.	nihmacl	osrwacl
Construct	nihmen	osrwen
	Chewable	*Edible*
1st Prs.	niyuhk	nak
2nd Prs.	niyom	nohm
3rd Prs.	niyacl	nwacl
Construct	niyen	nwacn
	Mat, Mother	*Sibling*
1st Prs.	kiyuhk	wiyuhk
2nd Prs.	kiyom	wiyom
3rd Prs.	kiyacl	wiyacl
Construct	kiyem	wiyen
	For the neck	*For the ear*
1st Prs.	oluhk	srwek
2nd Prs.	olom	srwen
3rd Prs.	olwacl	srwacl
Construct	olwen	srwen
	For the head	*General*
1st Prs.	sunyuhk	luhk
2nd Prs.	sunyom	lom
3rd Prs.	sunyacl	lal
Construct	sunyen	luhn

Position of Classifiers

4.5.2 The classifiers usually appear after the nouns. Notice the relative position of the classifiers in the following examples. (The classifiers are italicized.)

> Oak sasuh soko *okoacl* Sah ah arlac muhi.
> 'Sah's new canoe is very fast.'
>
> Pinsuhl fototo soko *nahtuhl* Sepe ah kaptwaclihk.
> 'Sepe's short pencil is broken.'

The noun *oak* 'canoe' in the sentence above is modified by the adjective *sasuh* 'new', the numeral *soko* 'one', the classifier *okoacl* and the determiner *ah* 'the'. The classifier *okoacl* follows the

adjective and the numeral but it precedes the determiner. We can see the same order in the second sentence above.

Uses of Classifiers

4.5.3 In what follows, the uses of the classifiers will be presented.

a. Classifier for Transportational Means: okoac. The classifier *okoac* is used with nouns that denote transportational means and it specifies that the nouns refer to real canoes or cars. The following nouns are commonly used with the classifiers *okoac*.

oak	'canoe'
oak sohk	'air plane'
sitosah	'car'
reoa	'a small canoe'
sikutuhr	'scooter'
riaka	'rear-car' 'jinriksha'
toraku	'truck'
koptuhr	'helicopter'

b. Classifier for Land, Shelter: se. The classifier *se* is commonly used with nouns which denote human shelter, or nouns which are related to human shelters. It is also used with nouns that denote geographical features such as a mountain or river. The following nouns are commonly used with the classifier *se*.

lohm	'house'
inum	'kitchen'
fakihl	'room'
sucwuhlsrihsr	'porch'
innek	'road'
infacl	'river'
insack	'forest'
tuhka	'island'
wan	'plantation'
sahruh	'ruins'
luhfahl	'bank (of a river)'

c. Classifier for Plants: suhnwac. Kusaiean nouns which refer to plants can also refer to their fruits (if there are any). To cite an instance: the noun *usr* alone can ambiguously refer to a banana (fruit) or to a banana tree. The classifier *suhnwac* as in

usr suhmwac, restricts the meaning of *usr* to a banana plant. Some names of plants are presented below.

ahng	'turmeric'
koac nu	'coconut'
muhtah	'yam'
es	'papaya'
tuh	'sugar cane'
muh	'orange'
mokmok	'arrow root'

d. Classifier for Tools, Pets, Animals: nahtuh. The classifier *nahtuh* is used with nouns which denote tools, pets, or animals that are raised by human beings. Some nouns which are used with the classifier *nahtuh* are presented below.

pinsuhl	'pencil'
pohl	'ball'
puk	'book'
ao	'watch'
kosro	'dog'
oak	'canoe'
oak sohk	'air plane'
pik	'pig'

e. Drinkable Food: nihmac. The classifier *nihmac* is used with liquids that we can drink. Some nouns denoting these liquids are presented below.

nu	'coconut milk'
suka	'sugar'
piru	'beer'
suhkaruh	'coconut sap'
sroano	'liquid'
engengkal	'liquid from *engengkal*'
kof	'water'
ti	'tea'

f. Raw, Uncooked Food: osrwac. The classifier *osrwac* is used with nouns which denote raw or uncooked foods. Some nouns are presented below.

epal	'a fish'
usr	'banana'
tohsrihsr	'a fish'

ac	'mullet'
muh	'orange'

g. Chewable Food: niyac. The classifier *niyac* is used with nouns which denote foods, such as sugarcane or pandanas fruit, which we chew to take the juice out. Some nouns are presented below.

tuh	'sugarcane'
mweng	'pandanus fruit'
engengkal	'root of the *engengkal*'
nu wiwi	'young coconut'

h. Classifier for Other Edible Foods: na. The classifier *na* is used with nouns which denote foods other than those that are classified by *nihmac*, *osrwac*, and *niyac*. See the nouns presented below.

ik	'fish'
el	'sea urchin'
ahpuhl	'apple'
es	'papaya'
pilolo	'a Mokilese food'
fahfah	'a poi'

i. Classifier for Mat: kiyac. The classifier *kiyac* is used with nouns which denote mats. Some nouns that refer to different mats are presented below.

kiaka	'mat'
kiaka otwot	'a mat'
kiaka fahkfuhk	'a mat'
kiaka mahsuhl	'a mat'
kiaka sacpacnis	'a straw mat'
sahpkuh	'a mat'

j. Classifier for Mother, Wife: kiyac. The classifier *kiyac* is exactly the same in form as the classifier for 'mat'. It is also used with nouns which denote mother or wife.

muhtwacn	'woman'
ninac	'mother'

k. Classifier for Father, Husband: tuhmwac. The classifier *tuhmwac* is used with nouns that denote father or husband.

pahpah	'father'
mukul	'man'

l. Classifier for Offspring: nahtuh. The classifier *nahtuh*, which is the same as the classifier for tool or pet, is used with nouns which denote offspring. The following nouns are commonly used with the classifier *nahtuh*.

tuhlihk	'child'
ahwowo	'baby'

m. Classifier for Siblings: wiyac. The classifier *wiyac* is used to one's siblings. It can be used to refer to one's sister or brother.
n. Classifier for Siblings: lili and lolo. The two classifiers *lili*, and *lolo* are used to refer to one's siblings. But they are different from *wiyae* because the latter can be used to refer to one's brother or sister, whereas *lili* is used by the sister to refer to her brother and *lolo* is used by the brother to refer to his sister.
o. Classifier for Neck Decorations: ola. The classifier *ola* is used with nouns that name things one wears around one's neck.

ros	'flower'
ah	'string'
pahl	'belt' (for dogs)
tahol	'towel'
acnkisuhf	'handkerchief'

p. Classifier for Ear Decoration: sra. The classifier *sra* is used with nouns that denote objects which one can put on one's ears for decoration.

yacrihng	'ear-ring'
ros	'flower'
elahnglahng	'a flower'
for	'a flower' (plumeria)
panne	'a flower'

q. Classifier for Head Decoration: sunyac. The classifier *sunyac* can be used with nouns such as those listed below.

suhrafraf	'hat'
ampuhraclac	'umbrella'
nuknuk	'cloth'
sra	'leaf'

When the word *sra* 'leaf' is used with *sunyuhk*, as in *sra sunyuhk*, it means that the leaf is used for a head decoration or as head protection from the rain or sunshine.

r. *General Classifier: la.* When the classifier *la* is used with nouns, it indicates that the objects denoted by the nouns are in one's possession.

tepuh	'table'
tahol	'towel'
tahpweng	'bell'
pohk	'box'

The general classifier *la* is also used to express a maker of a thing or a performer of an action. For example, *luhk* in *pwacpa luhk uh* can be ambiguous. It can mean 'the paper that I possess' or 'the paper that I am writing'. Usually when the general classifier is used with the deverbalized nouns, it indicates a performer of a certain action. *Luhk* in *som luhk uh* denotes one who is going, and *som luhk uh* can be translated as 'my going'. Note the following examples.

Itact luhn muhtwacn sac
'the woman's pressing'

Itut luhn tuhlihk sacn
'that boy's stringing'

patpuht luhn mwet sac
'the man's hammering'

So far, we have discussed the seventeen classifiers commonly used in Kusaiean. The major functions of the classifiers are to restrict the meaning of a noun and to indicate the possessor of an object.

A noun can be classified with more than one classifier, depending upon the meaning of the noun. Let us cite a few examples. The noun *mos* 'breadfruit' can be used with the following classifiers. (The first person forms of the classifiers will be used.)

mos	suhnuhk	'my breadfruit tree'
mos	nak	'my breadfruit (food)'
mos	nuhtihk	'my breadfruit for toy'

The different classifiers above make the meaning of the noun *mos* specific. The noun *innek* can take the classifier *se* or *la*, as in

innek	sihk	'my road'
innek	luhk	'my way (of living)'

When *innek* is used with *sihk*, it refers to a physical road. When it is used with *luhk*, it refers in an abstract way to one's beahvior or to one's way of living or thinking. The noun *kuom* can be used with the classifier *la* and also with the classifier *na*, as in

kuom	luhk	'my tray'
kuom	nak	'my food contained in the tray'

When *kuom* is used with *luhk*, it refers to a physical object; when it is used with *nak*, it refers to the food that is contained in the tray.

The noun *muhtwacn* can be used with the classifier *kiyac* and *wiyac*.

muhtwacn *kiyuhk*	'my wife'
muhtwacn *wiyuhk*	'my sister'

When *muhtwacn* is used with *kiyac*, it refers to one's wife and when it is used with *wiyac*, it refers to one's sibling.

To summarize, a noun can be used with more than one classifier, and the meaning may be determined by the classifiers.

NUMERALS AND QUANTIFIERS

4.6

NUMERALS

4.6.1 The term **numeral** refers to a word-class which is related to numbers. There are three different classes of numerals: serial counting numbers, cardinal numbers, and ordinal numbers. The **serial counting numbers** are used to count things. The **cardinal numbers** are used to denote the number of objects. The **ordinal numbers** are used to show the order or succession of items. The three types of numbers will be discussed separately.

Serial Counting Numbers

4.6.1.1 Following is a list of numbers that are used in serial counting.

sra	'one'
lo	'two'
tol	'three'
ahng	'four'
luhm	'five'

on	'six'
it	'seven'
oal	'eight'
yuk	'nine'

(Numbers for 'ten' and above are discussed later in this section under Number Formation.)

When a Kusaiean is asked to count the number of certain objects, he uses the number words listed above.

Cardinal Numbers

4.6.1.2 There are two sets of cardinal numbers. Those listed in Column I below will be called the **soko cardinals** named after the first number in the series; those in Column II will be called **sie cardinals.**

I	II
soko	sie (or se)
lukoac	luo
tolko (or tolkoe)	tolu
yoko	ahkosr
luhmko (or luhmkoe)	limekohsr
onko (or onkoe)	onkohsr
itko (or itkoe)	itkohsr
oalko (or oalkoe)	oalkosr (oalkuhsr)
yuh	yuh

Notice that the number '9' is the same for both cardinals. But the numbers 1 through 8 of the first set are different from those of the second set. Each of the cardinal numbers 1 through 8 of the two sets is made up of two morphemes: One denoting a number and the other a classificatory element.

The classificatory element of the *soko* cardinals has three forms: *koac*, *ko* and *koe*. The form *koac* occurs with the number for '2'. The form *ko* is used with the numbers 1 through 8, except for 2. The form *koe* can be used as a variant form of *ko* with the numbers 3, 5, 6, 7, and 8.

The *sie* cardinals are also made up of two morphemes of a number element and a classificatory element. The form of the classificatory element with the numbers 1 through 3 is difficult to isolate from the number element. With numbers 3 through 8, the classificatory element has two forms: *kosr* and *kohsr*. The

form *kosr* is used with the numbers 4 and 8; the form *kohsr* is used with the numbers 5, 6 and 7.

The cardinal number *sie* 'one' has another form *se* 'one'. The form *se* is used when the number follows a noun, as in the following expression.

Mwet se tuhkuh ekweyah.
'A man came yesterday.' ('one man')

On the other hand, the number *sie* is used in a fraction or in a partitive expression. Look at the following expression. The first *sie* is used in a fraction and the second *sie* is used in a partitive expression.

Fraction:	sie tahfuh tolu	'one third'
Partitive:	sie mwet ah	'one of the men'

Uses of Cardinal Numbers

The choice of the cardinal number is determined by the preceding noun or by the intended meaning of the noun. If, for example, we are counting two fish, the cardinal number *lukoac* 'two' is used. On the other hand, if we are counting *tuhp* 'a container', the cardinal number *luo* 'two' is used. In what follows, some observation will be made as to what kinds of nouns are used with which cardinal numbers.

Soko Cardinals

The types of nouns that are generally used with the *soko* cardinals are listed here.

1. Nouns that refer to fish.
2. Nouns that refer to insects and four legged animals.
3. Nouns that refer to plants.
4. Nouns that refer to means of transportation.
5. Nouns that refer to things that are long or pointed.

Examples of each of the types of nouns listed above are given below:

1. *Nouns that refer to fish*

ik	soko	'a fish'
fihf	soko	'a fish'
koet	tolkoe	'three squids'
ton	itkoe	'seven eels'

2. *Nouns that refer to four-legged animals or multi-legged insects*

kaho	soko	'one cow'
nacni	lukoah	'two goats'
kosro	yoko	'four dogs'
karapao	oalko	'eight water buffaloes'
*acyac luhmkoe		'five centepedes'
*powac onkoe		'six crabs'

3. *Nouns that refer to plants*

i tolkoe	'three *i* trees'
op yoko	'four *op* trees'
*fa itko	'seven ferns'
*mos oalko	'eight breadfruit trees'

4. *Nouns that refer to transportational means*

oak soko	'a canoe'
ak sohk lukoac	'two airplanes'
*sitosah tolkoe	'three cars'
reoa onkoe	'six reoas'
*sikutuhr luhmkoe	'five scooters'

5. *Nouns that refer to long or pointed objects*

pinsuhl soko	'one pencil'
finohl lukoac	'two mountains'
*infacl yoko	'four rivers'
innek soko	'one road'

With certain nouns such as *alilyacp* 'devil fish' or *oac* 'paddle', different speakers use different cardinal numbers. Some people use the *soko* cardinal numbers, as in *alilyacp soko* and *oac soko*. Some other people say *alilyacp se* and *oac se*. (*Some speakers use the *soko* cardinal numbers with the starred words in the above list.

Sie Cardinals

The remaining countable nouns, other than those that are counted with the *soko* cardinals, are counted with the *sie* cardinals. Some examples are presented below.

nu se	'one coconut'
usr ahkosr	'two bananas'
mos oalkosr	'eight breadfruit'
es itkohsr	'seven papayas'

acpuhl se	'one apple'
mwet se	'one man'
muhtwacn luo	'two women'
tuhka tolu	'three atolls'
kuom limekohsr	'five trays'
nwek onkohsr	'six nets'

To summarize, there are two sets of cardinal numbers. They are *soko* cardinal numbers and the *sie* cardinal numbers. The choice of the *soko* cardinal numbers over the *sie* cardinal numbers depends upon the nouns or the intended meaning of the nouns. Some nouns can be used with both the *soko* and *sie* cardinal numbers. In some cases the meaning of the noun changes, depending on the type of cardinal number that is used with it. For example, the word *acpuhl* 'apple' can mean either 'apple' or 'apple tree'. If the *soko* number is used, *acpuhl* refer to the tree.

acpuhl soko	'an apple tree'
acpuhl lukoac	'two apple trees'

However, if the *sie* cardinal number is used, then *acpuhl* clearly refers to the fruit.

acpuhl se	'one apple'
acpuhl luo	'two apples'

Some additional examples of nouns whose meanings change when used with the different types of numbers are given below.

mos tolkoe	'three breadfruit trees'
mos tolu	'three breadfruit'
innek soko	'a road'
innek se	'a way'
paip yoko	'four cigarettes'
paip ahkosr	'four packs of cigarettes'
kahpuh se	'buttock'
kahpuh soko	'butt (as of cigarettes)'
tukunpaho luo	'nails'
tukunpaho lukoac	'two fingers'
muhtwacn se	'one woman'
muhtwacn soko	'one female animal'

Ordinal Numbers

4.6.1.3 The ordinal numbers are made up of the prefix *ahk-* 'ordinalizer' and the *sie* cardinal numbers. The ordinal numbers for 1 through 9 are presented below.

ahkse	'first'
ahkluo	'second'
ahktolu	'third'
ahkahkosr	'fourth'
ahklimekohsr	'fifth'
ahkonkohsr	'sixth'
ahkitkohsr	'seventh'
ahkoalkosr	'eighth'
ahkyuh	'ninth'

Notice the following examples in which the ordinal numbers are used.

Mwe fihl se ahkse lucng ah
'The first shelf from the top'

Lohm se ahkluo ten ah
'The second house from the bottom'

Pohk se ahkahkosr lucng ah
'The fourth box from the top'

NUMBER FORMATION

4.6.2 In the discussion of the serial counting numbers, the cardinal numbers, and the ordinal numbers, we discussed numbers only up to 9. In this section, we will observe how numbers above 9 are formed. In order to facililate the discussion, the different types of numerals will be presented separately.

Cardinal Numbers

In order to express numbers higher than 9, the following morphemes and words are used.

-nguhul	'ten'
-foko (or fok)	'hundred'
tausin	'thousand'
milion	'million'

Multiples of ten are formed by the addition of the bound morpheme *-nguhul* to the serial counting numbers except for the number *10*. The serial counting number *sra* '1' is not used. Instead, *si* which is very close to the cardinal number *sie* '1' is used. The morpheme denoting *10* has some variant forms. Notice them in the list below. The serial counting numbers for one through nine are also presented for comparison.

Serial Counting		*Multiples of ten*	
sra	'1'	si-nguhul	'10'
lo	'2'	lo-ngoul	'20'
tol	'3'	tol-ngoul	'30'
ahng	'4'	a-ngaul	'40'
luhm	'5'	luhm-ngaul	'50'
on	'6'	on-ngoul	'60'
it	'7'	it-nguhul	'70'
oal	'8'	al-nguhul	'80'
yuh	'9'	yuh-nguhul	'90'

Intermediate numbers such as 11, 12, 24, 33, etc., are expressed by adding the units after the multiples of ten. Some examples are presented below.

singuhul soko	'11'
singuhul sie	'11'
longoul lukoac	'22'
longoul luo	'22'
longoul yoko	'24'
longoul ahkosr	'24'

Multiples of a hundred are formed in the same way as multiples of ten. The morpheme denoting 'hundred' is *fok* in *siofok* 'one hundred', but with other multiples it is *foko*. Observe the following list of multiples of hundred.

sio-fok	'100'
lo-foko	'200'
tol-foko	'300'
ahng-foko	'400'
luhm-foko	'500'
on-foko	'600'
it-foko	'700'

al-foko	'800'
yuh-foko	'900'

The word *tausin* and *milion* are borrowed from English. Multiples of thousand and million are expressed with the *sie* cardinals as in the examples below.

tausin se	'one thousand'
tausin luo	'two thousand'
tausin ahkosr	'four thousand'
milion se	'one million'
milion luo	'two million'
milion tolu	'three million'

Some examples of complex numbers are presented below.

241	lofoko angngahul sie
2376	luo tausin tolfoko itnguhul onkoe (onkosr)
10,000	singuhul tausin
100,000	siofok tausin

Ordinal Numbers

The formation of higher ordinal numbers is the same as the cardinal numbers. Some examples are presented below.

ahk-singuhul	'tenth'
ahk-siofok	'hundredth'
ahk-tausin	'thousandth'
ahk-milion	'millionth'
ahk-singuhul luo	'twelfth'

Serial Counting Numbers

With the serial counting numbers, intermediate numbers such as 11, 12, 13, etc., are not used. In counting the number of certain objects, the units 1 through 9 and the multiples of ten, hundred, thousand and million are used. If, for instance, someone is to count up to 30, he will count in the following way.

sra, lo, tol, ahng, luhm, on, it, oal, yuh, singuhul
sra, lo, tol, ahng, luhm, on, it, oal, yuh, longoul
sra, lo, tol, ahng, luhm, on, it, oal, yuh, tolngoul

USES OF NUMBERS

4.6.3 Like the adjectives, the cardinal and ordinal numerals can be used attributively as well as predicatively. Look at the following examples.

Attributive Use

The numerals in the following examples are used attributively, modifying the preceding nouns.

Pik *soko* ah kahinglac.
'The pig ran away'.

Nu *se* puhtati.
'A coconut dropped'.

Mwet *luo* masack fong.
'Two people got sick last night'.

Lohm *se ahktolu* ah ikori.
'The third house fell over'.

Nga enenuh puk *se ahkluo* lacyot.
'I need the second book from the right'.

Predicative Use

The numeral in the following examples are used predicatively.

Mwet ma tuhkuh nuh ke toeni sac fong ah *oalkosr*.
'The number of persons who came to the meeting last night was eight'.

Sohn el *ahkitkohsr*.
'John was the seventh'.

Tuhlihk nahtuhl Kuhn ah *oalkosr*.
'Kuhn's children are eight (in number)'.

However, unlike the adjectives, the cardinal numbers can appear before the nouns in a partitive expression. The following examples show the cardinal numbers appearing before the nouns.

Luo mwet ah tuhkuh.
'Two of the men came.'

Cf. Mwet *luo* ah tuhkuh.
'The two men came.'

Soko pik ah misac.
'One of the pigs died.'

Cf. Pik *soko* ah misac.
'The one pig died.'

Sohn el eslah *sie* paip ah.
'John took one of the cigarettes.'

(See 4.4.4 for the use of the cardinal numbers as indefinite pronouns.)

FRACTIONS

4.6.4 A fraction denotes one or more parts of a whole number. In expressing a fraction, the *sie* cardinals are used. To take the fraction 1/5 as an example, the number *sie* '1' which is used above the line is the **numerator** and the number *limekohst* '5' which is used below the line is the **denominator**. Both the numerator and the demominator are read with the *sie* cardinals.

The word *tahfuh* is used in reading a fraction. The fraction $\frac{3}{4}$, for example, is read as *tolu tahfuh ahkosr*. To indicate the whole number 5 as in the fraction $5\frac{3}{4}$, the word *fohn* 'whole' or 'complete' is used as in *limekohsr fohn tolu tahfuh ahkosr*. Some additional examples are presented below.

$\frac{1}{2}$	sie tahfuh luo
$\frac{2}{5}$	luo tahfuh limekohsr
$\frac{7}{100}$	itkohsr tahfuh siofok
$3\frac{7}{74}$	tolu fohn itkohsr tahfuh itnguhul ahkosr

There is another kind of fraction, called a **decimal fraction**, whose denominator is some power of 10 such as 100, 1,000, or 100,000. In reading a decimal fraction, the numerator is expressed by the *sie* cardinal numbers and the denominator by the ordinal numbers. The decimal fraction 0·0005 ($\frac{5}{10\,000}$) is read as *limekohsr ahksinguhul tausin* 'five one ten-thousandth'. When a whole number such as 57 as in 57·004 is included, it is separated by the conjunction *ac* 'and' as in *luhmngaul itkohsr ac ahkosr ahktausin* 'fifty seven and four one thousandth'. Look at the following additional examples.

0·02	luo ahknguhul
0·003	tolu ahkfoko
0·0007	itkohsr ahknguhul tausin
8·00035	oalkosr ac tolngoul limekohsr ahktausin

QUANTIFIERS

4.6.5 The term **quantifier** refers to a word which denotes the quantity of something. The following is a list of quantifiers.

puhkantwen	'many' 'much' 'a lot of'
noh fohn	'all'
nuh kwewa	'every'
ekahsr	'some' 'a few'
kuhtuh	'some'
puhs	'more than enough'
puh	'less than enough'

The quantifiers *puhkantwen* 'many', *ekahsr* 'some', and *kuhtuh* can be used attributively like the adjectives. In the following sentences, the quantifiers are so used.

Nga molelah mos *puhkantwen*.
'I bought many breadfruit.'

Sah el nuhmlah piru *puhkantwen*.
'Sah drank a lot of beer.'

Kuhn el molelah pinsuhl *ekahsr*.
'Kuhn bought a few pencils.'

Nga luhngse *kuhtuh* kof ah.
'I want some water'.

The quantifiers *puhkantwen* 'many' or 'much', *puhs* 'more than enough', *puh* 'less than enough', and *kuhtuh* 'some' can be used as predicates as in the following sentences.

Mos ah { puhkantwen. / puhs. / puh. / kuhtuh. } 'The breadfruit are { a lot. / more than enough. / less than enough. / some. }

Notice that the quantifiers *puhkantwen* and *kuhtuh* are used both attributively and predicatively.

The quantifiers *puhkantwen* 'many' or 'much', *ekahsr* 'a few', *kuhtuh* 'some', and *noh fohn* 'all' can be used as indefinite pronouns. In the following sentences, the quantifiers are used in that way.

Sohn el kuhkakuhnlah *noh fohn*.
'John sold all.'

Noh fohn na tuyak ke nga utyak ah.
'All (of them) stood up when I entered.'

Ismau el luhngse *kuhtuh* pac.
'Isamu wants some more.'

The quantifiers *noh fohn* 'all' and *nuh kwewa* 'every' usually occur

after the determiner *ah*, *uh* or *an*. The following sentences illustrate.

Nga molelah mos ah *noh fohn*.
'I bought all the breadfruit.'

Nga liye puk ah *noh fohn* na nga molelah *kuhtuh*.
'I looked at all the books and bought some.'

Nga ac ohsun nuh sin mwet an *kwewa*.
'I will meet every man.' 'I will meet every one of the men.'

DETERMINERS

4.7

General Characteristics of Determiners

4.7.1 The term **determiner** is used to refer to words such as *ah*, *uh*, *an* and *oh* whose main function is to restrict the reference of a noun to a specific object.

Structurally, there are simple and compound determiners (as the lists below show).

Simple Determiners
ah 'the'
uh 'this' 'these'
an 'that' 'those'
oh 'that or those over there'

Compound Determiners (1)
sac 'the'
se 'this'
sacn 'that'
soh 'that over there'

Compound Determiners (2)
nge 'this' 'these' 'here'
ngacn 'that' 'those' 'there'
ngoh 'that' 'those'
ngi 'that' 'those'

The compound determiners listed in (1) are made up of the numeral *se* 'one' and the simple determiners. The compound determiners listed in (2) are made up of the morpheme *ng*, whose meaning is not clear, and the simple determiners.

In the following paragraphs the uses of the simple deter-

miners will be discussed first, followed by a description of the uses of the compound determiners.

The Uses of Determiners

4.7.2

Simple Determiners

4.7.2.1 In order to use the simple determiners properly in Kusaiean, we have to take the location of the object into consideration. The determiner *uh* is used when the object(s) being talked about is (are) near the speaker. The determiner *an* is used when the object is near the listener. The determiner *oh* is used when the object is away from both the speaker and the listener. Note the following.

pinsuhl	soko	uh	'this pencil'
pinsehl	soko	an	'that pencil (near you)'
pinsuhl	soko	oh	'that pencil over there'

The determiner *ah* is a little different from the others in that it can be used regardless of the location of the object, when the speaker assumes that the hearer also knows about the thing that is being discussed. (See the special use of the determiner in 4.7.2.3.)

Second, in the proper use of the determiners, time factors also must be considered. The determiner *ah* is used with nouns which are associated with the past. The determiner *uh* is used with nouns which are associated with the present or future. The determiner *an* is used with nouns which are associated with the future. *Wik met* in the sentence below is used with the determiner *ah*, but it cannot be used with the other determiners *an*, *uh* or *oh* because *wik met* refers to a week which is past.

Sepe el tuhkuh *wik met ah*. (but not *uh* or *an*)
'Sepe came back last week.'

In the example sentence below, the determiner *uh* or *ah* can be used with the noun *wik fahsr*, which refers to a week which is to come. But *ah* can not be used with the *wik fahsr*.

Sepe el ac tuhkuh *wik fahsr uh* or *an*. (but not *ah*)
'Sepe will come next week.'

The difference in meaning between *wik fahsr uh* and *wik fahsr an* is not clear.

To summarize, two factors are very important in the proper use of the determiners. They are the relative locations of the objects and the time factors. The two determiners *ah* and *uh* have some special uses which will now be taken up.

Special Use of Determiner *uh*

4.7.2.2 In the preceding section we observed that the determiner *uh* is used with a noun which refers to some object which is near the speaker. It is also used with a noun whose reference is present or future. Besides these regular uses, the determiner *uh* has a special use when a whole class or group of things is referred to. Thus, when we say, *ik uh*, the expression can be ambiguous. It can mean 'certain fish which are near the speaker,' or 'the whole class of fish.' Observe *ik uh* in the two sentences below.

Ik uh srwack na moul, tuh ik an misac tari.
'These fish are still alive, but those fish are already dead.'

Ik uh muhta inkof ah.
'The fish live in the water.'

Ik uh in the first sentence refers to some specific fish near the speaker, but *ik uh* in the second sentence does not refer to any specific fish but to fish as a whole or to the whole class of fish. The term **generic use** will be used to refer to the special use of the determiner *uh* as it is used in the second sentence above.

The generic use of the determiner *uh* is exemplified in the following sentences.

Ac uh fasrfasr kihris.
'The mullets are white and greasy.'

Fihf uh kwekwe na pwacye kolo.
'The skin of *fihf* is very hard.' (*Fihf* is a kind of fish.)

Apihl uh wo ke pa uh.
'The *apihl* fish is very good for bait.' (*Apihl* is kind of fish.)

Special Uses of Determiner *ah*

4.7.2.3 The determiner *ah* is not sensitive to location factors, but is very sensitive to the time factor. It is used with nouns whose reference is past. Besides this use, the determiner *ah* has three special uses. Each of them will be presented below.

a. Anaphoric Use

In a conversation or a story, a speaker may introduce a person or an object for the first time, and then he can refer back to the same person or object. In this case the determiner *ah* is used. Observe the following sentences:

Met, loat soko muhta Yeson.
'Once there lived a whale in Yeson.'

Loat soko ah som owo infacl *ah*.
'The whale want washing in the river.'

Loat soko in the first sentence is not used with the determiner *ah*, but it is in the second sentence. The determiner *ah* indicates that the speaker is referring back to the same whale which he introduced in the first sentence. The term **anaphoric use** refers to the use of the determiner *ah* which refers back to what has been previously mentioned.

As you can see in the following pair of sentences, the use of the determiner *ah* is the same as the one we have observed above.

Nga ohsun nuh sin mwet luo olutu.
'I met two men this morning.'

Mwet luo *ah* tuhkuh Ponpe me.
'The two men came from Ponape.'

The determiner *ah* in *mwet luo ah* indicates that the speaker is referring back to the same persons which he introduced in the first sentence.

b. Unique Reference

The determiner *ah* is used with nouns that refer to unique things (the only one). The noun *faht* 'sun' refers to an object that is unique. The noun *mahlwem* 'moon' also refers to a unique object. In the sentences below the determiner *ah* is used with nouns with unique reference.

Faht *ah* takack lwen nuh kwewa.
'The sun rises every day.'

Mahlwem *ah* kahlwem ke fong uh.
'The moon shines at night.'

But in some cases *unique* must be interpreted in a much narrower sense. The sun or the moon is unique in the Kusaiean's conception

of the universe. Nouns such as *infacl* 'river' or *winto* 'window', which are not unique, can be interpreted as being unique. Suppose a conversation is taking place in an area where there is only one river. The river can be unique in that particular area. In the sentence to follow, the determiner *ah* is used with the noun *infacl* 'river', which shows that the noun *infacl* is interpreted as being unique.

Sepe el som yihyih infacl *ah*.
'Sepe went washing in the river.'

Sepe el som fan mos nuh lucng *ah*.
'Sepe went to pick breadfruit in the mountain.'

Suppose again that a conversation is taking place in a room with only one window. In this case the noun *winto* 'window' can be interpreted as being unique. When the determiner *ah* is used with the noun *winto*, it indicates that the noun is regarded as being unique in the immediate environment of a conversation.

To summarize, the determiner *ah* is used with nouns whose references are unique. The term unique can be interpreted in the absolute sense of being the only one in the whole universe or in a relative sense of being the only one in the immediate environment of a conversation.

c. Implicational Use

The special use of the determiner *ah* which is to be discussed here seems to be the most difficult one. Let us observe the following sentence.

Sah el orwaclah oak soko, tuh kiyacs *ah* muhsahllah.
'Sah has made a canoe but the outrigger boom is broken.'

The noun *kiyacs* in the sentence above is used with the determiner *ah*. But the determiner *ah* is used neither in the anaphoric nor in the unique sense. Its use in the sentence above can be explained in the following way: To say that one has made a canoe implies that he has put together all the components which typically belong to a canoe, such as *em* 'outrigger boom' and *kiyacs* 'outrigger.' The speaker mentions *oak soko* 'a canoe' and then uses the determiner *ah* with *kiyacs* 'outrigger boom'. This seems to suggest that, although *kiyacs* is not introduced explicitly, it is already implied by *oak soko*. In other words, the determiner *ah* is used

with *kiyacs* as if the noun *kiyacs* were introduced explicitly in the previous conversation.

Note the following sentence. The determiner *ah* is used with the noun *insin* 'engine'. The use of *ah* with *insin* is similar to the one that we *observed* with *kiyacs*. Although *insin* is not introduced explicitly, it is implied by the noun *sikutuhr* 'scooter'.

Nga tuh molelah sikutuhr soko ke yac tolu met ah.
'I bought a scooter three years ago.'

tuh insin *ah* srwack na wo.
'but the engine is still good.'

The term **implicational use** refers to the use of the determiner *ah* such as the one illustrated above. The determiner *ah* is used with a noun whose existence is implied by another noun which is previously mentioned. The noun *kiyacs* is implied by the noun *oak* and the noun *insin* is also implied by the noun *sikutuhr*.

To summarize, we have observed three different uses of the determiner *ah*: anaphoric, unique referential, and implicational. But the three uses share a common factor. The determiner *ah* is used when the speaker assumes that the listener also knows the object of the thing which the speaker is talking about. The common knowledge of the speaker and the hearer about an object may come about in different ways. The three different uses represent the ways through which the common knowledge of the speaker and the hearer is implied.

Compound Determiners *sac, se, sacn, soh*

4.7.2.4 The compound determiners *sac, se, sacn* and *soh* are made up of the numeral *se* 'one' plus the simple determiners. They always denote single objects.

The uses of the compound determiners are similar to those of the simple determiners, except for a few differences. Let us observe the similar uses first.

Like those of the simple determiners, the uses of the compound determiners are determined by the relative locations of the objects which are being talked about. *Se* is used when the object is near the speaker. *Sacn* is used when the object is near the speaker. *Soh* is used when the object is away from both the speaker and the hearer. The following illustrate.

tuhp se 'this container'

tuhp sacn 'that container'
tuhp soh 'that container over there'

Also like the simple determiners, the uses of the compound determiners also depend on the time factors. *Sac* is used with a noun whose reference is past. *Se* is used with a noun whose reference is either present or future. *Sacn* is used with a noun whose reference is future.

Sah el tuhkuh ke lwen sac.
'Sah came on the day.'

Sah el tuhkuh ke lwen se.
'Sah came this day.'

Sah el ac tuhkuh lwen sacn.
'Sah will come that day.'

Both *se* and *sacn* are used with nouns whose reference is future.

The compound determiners *se* and *sac* differ from *uh* and *ah* in the following way. The simple determiner *uh* can be used to denote a whole class of objects. But *se* does not have that function. While the simple determiner *ah* has three special uses—anaphoric, unique referential, and implicational—the compound determiner *sac* has only the anaphoric use. Observe the following sentences..

Sie pacl ah tohkohsra se ac kasra se oai Kosrae.
'Once upon a time, a king and a queen reached Kusaie.'

Kasra *sac* oahi Tahfuhnsahk . . .
'The queen landed on Tafuhnsak . . .'

The noun *kasra* in the first sentence above is introduced by *se* 'one'. When the noun is used in the second sentence, the determiner *sac* 'the (singular)' is used. This determiner indicates that the speaker is referring back to the same queen he introduced in the first sentence.

Locative Determiners *nge, ngacn, ngoh, ngi*

4.7.2.5 The locative determiners are compared below with the simple determiners:

Simple Determiner	*Locative Determiner*	*Gloss*
ah	——	'the'
an	ngacn	'that' 'those'

Simple Determiner	*Locative Determiner*	*Gloss*
uh	nge	'this' 'these'
oh	ngoh	'that' 'those over there'
—	ngi	'that' 'those over there' (invisible to the speaker)

The simple determiner *ah* 'the' does not have its corresponding locative determiner. On the other hand, the locative determiner *ngi* 'that' does not have its corresponding simple determiner.

Both *ngi* and *ngoh* are used to refer to things which are away from both the speaker and the listener. However, *ngoh* differs from *ngi* in that *ngoh* is used with objects which are visible to the speaker whereas *ngi* is used with objects which are invisible to the speaker.

The locative determiners can be used with either singular or plural objects. Look at the following examples:

mwet se nge	'the man here'
mwet luo nge	'the two men here'
pik soko nge	'the one pig here'
pik tolkoe nge	'the three pigs here'

Compared with the simple determiners, the locative determiners have a stronger locational meaning.

The locative prefix *in-* can be used with the locative determiners as in the following:

Locative Determiner	*Prefixed Forms*	
nge	innge	[iŋŋe:]
ngaen	inngaen	[iŋŋɛ:n]
ngoh	inngoh	[iŋŋɔ:]

Notice that the *n* in the prefix *in-* assimilates to the following *ng* sound, and is pronounced as *ng*, as the phonetic symbols indicates.

PREPOSITIONS

4.8

General Characteristics of Prepositions

4.8.1 **Prepositions** are words that are used with nouns or their equiva-

lents to show the relationships of the nouns to the verbs or adjectives. The nouns that appear after the prepositions have different relationships to the verbs, depending upon the kind of verb.

There are four prepositions in Kusaiean *se*, *ke*, *nuh* and *liki*. When they occur without suffixes they may be considered **simple prepositions**. The prepositions *se* and *ke* take the possessive suffixes. The preposition *liki* takes the object pronouns.

The prepositions *se* and *ke* with the possessive suffixes are called complex prepositions and are presented below.

Persons	*se*	*ke*
1st Person	sihk	keik
2nd Person	sum	keim
3rd Person	sel	kacl
1st Person Pl	sesr	kacsr
Construct	sin	ke
Impersonal	se	kac

The preposition *liki* with the object pronouns can also be considered complex prepositions. They are as follows:

	liki
1st Person	likiyuh
2nd Person	likikom
3rd Person	luhkwel
1st Person Pl	Iuhkwesr
Construct	liki
Impersonal	liki

In addition to the simple prepositions, there are two compound prepositions, *nuh se* and *nuh ke*. In the following paragraphs the uses of the prepositions listed below will be examined.

se	nuh ke
ke	nuh
nuh se	liki

Uses of Prepositions

4.8.2 Preposition *se*

4.8.2.1 The preposition *se* is used with human nouns. (See 4.1.2.4) The

meaning of the preposition differs, depending upon the verbs or the adjectives with which the preposition is used. The different meanings of *se* will be examined below.

(1) The verbs *oasr* and *wacngihn* can be used either as existential or locative verbs. When the preposition *se* is used with *oasr* or *wacngihn*, the object of the preposition denotes a possessor. Note these example sentences (see 4.8.1 for the suffixed forms of the prepositions.)

Oasr mani *sihk*.
'I have money.'

Wacngihn mani *sel* Kuhn.
'Kuhn does not have money.'

Puk ah oasr *sel* Sah.
'Sah has the books.'

Pacng soko uh wacngihn *sel* Sepe.
'Sepe does not have the pen.'

When the possessor is denoted by the preposition *se*, the things to be possessed are usually ones that a person can carry in his hands or with him.

(2) When the preposition *se* is used with verbs of buying or asking, the object of the preposition denotes a seller or one that imparts knowledge or news. Observe the following sentences.

Nga molelah pik ah *sin* mwet sac.
'I have bought the pigs from the man.'

Salis el ac eis puk sac *sel* Sepe.
'Salis will receive the book from Sepe.'

Kuhn el siyuhk *sihk* lah meah muhsahllah ah.
'Kuhn asked me what has been broken.'

Sru el nguhsre kuhtuh mani ah *sihk*.
'Sru requested some of the money from me.'

(3) The preposition *se* denotes a causer when it is used with emotional adjectives. The sentences below illustrates.

Sepe el ahsor *sihk*.
'Sepe is sad because of me.'

Sepe el pwacr *sum*.
'Sepe is happy because of you.

Sepe el mwekihn *sel* Srue.
'Sepe is ashamed of Srue.'

In the last sentence above, the one who experiences the shame is Sepe and the one who causes Sepe to experience the shame is Srue. But the causer Srue does not necessarily do anything intentionally to make Sepe ashamed. Sepe may be ashamed at what Srue is or says, or at the way Srue behaves.

(4) When the preposition *se* is used with non-emotional adjectives, the object of the preposition denotes an observes, as in the following sentences.

Muhtwacn sac arlac kuluk *sihk*.
'The woman seems to be very bad to me.'

Mukul sac arlac kuhlwacng *sihk*.
'The man seems to be very friendly to me.'

Tuhlihk mukul sacn arlac watwen *sihk*.
'The boy seems to be very brave to me.'

Enuh soko ah muhlahlah *sihk*.
'The pole seems to be light (not heavy) to me.'

(5) The term **deverbalized nouns** refers to nouns that are derived from verbs. Compare the sentences below.

Sah el *ituhng* pahsruhk sacn.
'Sah is pressing the taro.'

Ituhngiyen pahsruhk sacn sel Sah arlac wo.
'Sah's pressing of the taro is very good.'

In the first sentence above, the one who presses the taro is *Sah*. In the second sentence, the one who presses the taro is also *Sah*. *Sah* is the subject of the first sentence but not the second. In the second sentence, the verb *ituhng* is nominalized and the presser is expressed as the object of the preposition *se*. Observe the set of the sentences below.

Sah el lihm kiaka sac.
'Sah is folding the mat.'

Lihmiyen kiaka sac *sel Sah* arlac na pihsrpihsr.
'Sah's folding the mat is very fast.'

Preposition *ke*

4.8.2.2 The preposition *ke* is used with non-human nouns. The meaning of the preposition can differ, depending upon the verbs or the adjectives with which the preposition is used.

(1) When the preposition *ke* is used with emotional adjectives the object of the preposition denotes cause. Notice the example sentences to follow.

Sepe el engan *ke* wanihs sac.
'Sepe is happy because of the parcel.'

Sepe el toasr *ke* misac luhn mukul tuhmwacl ah.
'Sepe is sad because of her husband's death.'

(2) When the preposition *ke* is used with non-emotional adjectives, the preposition can be translated as '(good) at', 'adept) in', or 'with regard to'. Note the example sentences below.

Sah el suhmaht *ke* maht.
'Sah is good at mathematics.'

Sah el fohs *ke* ma sap sac.
'Sah is confused about the regulation.'

Sepe el wo *ke* kahs Inglis uh.
'Sepe is very good at English.'

(3) When the preposition *ke* is used with verbs of making such as *oruh* 'to make', the object of the preposition denotes material out of which things are made.

Sepe el orwaclah nuknuk sac *ke* kuhtin.
'Sepe made the clothes with cotton.'

Sepe el muhsahi lohm sac *ke* simacn.
'Sepe is building the house with cement.'

(4) With verbs that denote action, the object of the preposition *ke* denotes an instrument with which the action is carried out.

Ninac el twacni nuknuk sac *ke* ninuhl soko.
'Mother sews the clothes with a needle.'

Pahpah el patihkyac osra soko *ke* acmuhr se.
'Father hit the nail with a hammer.'

Sepe el suhmuhslah lwacta sac *ke* pinsuhl soko.
'Sepe wrote the letter with a pencil.'

(5) When the preposition *ke* is used with verbs of speaking, such as *fahk* 'to say' or 'to speak', the object of the preposition denotes the content of speaking or saying. Example sentences are below.

Sepe el fahk nuh sihk *ke* pweng sac.
'Sepe told me about the news.'

Eltahl lwesihk nuh sel Sepe *ke*ik.
'They gossiped to Sepe about me.'

Sah el sramsram nuh seltahl *ke* macruht sac.
'Sah talked to them about the marriage.'

(6) The preposition *ke* as a preposition of location can be used with any verb. The object of the preposition *ke* denotes the location of an action or of an event. But the preposition *ke* is not used when the noun is already a locative one. (See 4.1.2.3 for the distinction between locative and non-locative nouns.) Compare the two sentences below.

Oasr pinsuhl soko fin tepuh sac.
'There is a pencil on the table.'

Oasr pinsuhl soko *ke* tepuh sac.
'There is one pencil at the table.'

Fin 'top of' in the first sentence above is a locative noun and no preposition is used. But *tepuh* 'table' is not a locative noun and must be used with the preposition *ke*. One problem with the locative preposition *ke* is that its meaning is not clear. It seems to mean 'at', 'around' or 'about'.

Some nouns such as *fakihl* and *lohm* can be used as a locative expression with or without the preposition *ke*, as in the examples below. But it is not clear whether there is any difference in meaning.

Oasr mwet ekahsr *ke lohm sihk ah.*
'There are a few people in my house.'

Oasr mwet ekahsr *lohm sihk ah.*
'There are a few people in my house.'

The preposition *ke* can also denote a source, which can be translated as 'from'. Look at the following sentences.

Nga eslah tala limekohsr *ke* pacng ah.
'I withdrew five dollars from the bank.'

Ninac el ut kof *ke* inkof ah.
'Mother drew water from the lagoon.'

(7) When *ke* is used as a preposition of time, it can denote either a point in time or the duration of time. In the following sentences, *ke* denotes a point in time.

Eltahl tuhkuh *ke* { wik met ah. / mahlwem met ah. / yac met ah. }

'They came { last week. / last month. / last year. },

Sah el lutlut *ke* ao luo ekweyah.
'Sah was studying at two o'clock yesterday.'

Sah el pahkelah sahk ah *ke* ao tolu.
'Sah chopped down the trees { at three o'clock.' / in three hours. }

In the following sentences, the preposition *ke* denotes the duration of time.

Wilsin el ac muhta Awai *ke* yac luo.
'Wilsin will stay in Hawaii for two years.'

Kuhn el muhta nihmnihm *ke* yac singuhul.
'Kuhn has been drinking for ten years.'

Preposition *nuh se*

4.8.2.3 The preposition *nuh se* is made up of *nuh* and se. The preposition *nuh* essentially denotes direction. It can be translated as 'to' or 'toward'. The uses of the preposition *nuh se* will be examined below.

1) When the preposition *nuh se* is used with non-emotional adjectives, the object of the preposition denotes one who is affected. Observe the following sentences:

Mwet sac arlac kuluk *nuh sihk*.
'The man is very bad to me.' 'The man is doing something bad to me.'

Tuhlihk sac tuhngack *nuh sihk*.
'The child is very boastful to me.'

Sepe el arlac suhlallacl *nuh sihk*.
'Sepe is very mean to me.'

In the sentences above the subjects are human nouns. In the sentences below the subjects are non-human nouns that indicate suitability for one's purpose.

Sahk soko ah loes *nuh sihk*.
'The pole is long to me.' 'The pole is long for my purpose.'

Kof sac emsron *nuh sihk*.
'The water is tasteless to me.'

2) When the preposition *nuh se* is used with verbs of saying, such as *fahk* 'to say', *sramsram* 'to talk', or *kahskahs* 'to speak', the object of the preposition denotes the listener. These sentences illustrate.

Sah el fahk pweng sac *nuh sihk*.
'Sa told the news to me.'

Nga kahskahs *nuh sel ninac*.
'I talked to my mother.'

3) When the preposition *nuh se* is used with verbs of giving or selling, the object of the preposition denotes a receiver or buyer. Observe these sentences.

Nwenah el se ik ah *nuh sihk*.
'Nwenah brought the fish to me.'

Tuhlwen el kuhkakuhnlah pik soko ah *nuh sel* Kuhn.
'Tuhlwen sold the pig to Kuhn.'

Pahpah el kihtelah muhtah ah *nuh sin* muhtwacn sac.
'Father gave the yam to the woman.'

Preposition *nuh ke*

4.8.2.4 The preposition *nuh ke* is a compound preposition made up of *nuh* and *ke*. Different uses of the preposition are presented below.

1) When *nuh ke* is used with motion verbs, the object of the preposition denotes the direction. Observe the sentences to follow.

Nga ukoelah won ah *nuh ke* kalkal in won sac.
'I chased the chicken to the cage.'

Sepe el isongyac pohl sac *nuh ke* luhf sacn.
'Sepe pushed the ball into the hole.'

Sah el sroacng *nuh ke* tepuh sacn.
'Sah jumped onto that table.'

2) When *nuh ke* is used to express time, it means 'until'. Note the following.

Pahpah el mas *nuh ke* yac met ah.
'Father was sick until last year.'

Ninac el pahpahtuhr *nuh ke* ao luo tahfuhn lwen tok.
'Mother fished until 2 o'clock in the afternoon.'

Kuht poheli mos ah *nuh ke* lututacng ah.
'We boiled the breadfruit until early in the morning.'

To express the starting point of time, the directional suffixes *me* and *lac* are used. From a certain point of time in the past up to the present is expressed by *me*, and toward some time in the future from the present is expressed by *lac*.

Ke ao tolu ekweyah *me* nwe olutu.
'From two o'clock yesterday on until this morning.'

Ke ao luo mihsenge *lac* nwe ulelac.
'From two o'clock today on until the day after tomorrow.'

3) The preposition *nuh* ke can denote purpose, which can be translated as 'for'. Look at the following sentences.

Eltahl orwaclah mongo ah *nuh ke* { macruht sac. / kuhfa sac. / lwen lal Kuhn ah. }

'They have prepared the food for { the marriage.' / the feast.' / Kuhn's birthday.' }

Sahk soko uh fal *nuh ke* kiyacs soko ke oak soko ah.
'The stick is suitable for an outrigger boom of the canoe.'

Preposition *nuh*

4.8.2.5 The preposition *nuh* is used to express a direction or the upper limit of a period of time. We have observed in the preceding section that the preposition *nuh ke* is also used to denote a direction or the upper limit of a period of time. The use of *nuh* alone instead of *nuh ke* depends upon the kinds of nouns used. When the object of the preposition is a locative noun, only *nuh* is used. When the object of the preposition is a non-locative noun, *nuh ke* is used. Observe the following sentences.

Sohn el som *nuh* Ponpe.
'John went to Ponape.'

Sohn el som *nuh ke* ohfihs lal ah.
'John went to his office.'

Preposition *liki*

4.8.2.6 1) The preposition *liki* denotes a starting point when it is used with verbs that denote motion. Look at the following sentences where the preposition *liki* is used with motion verbs and denotes starting points.

Kuhp sac puhtatlac *liki* fin tepuh sac.
'The cup fell off the table.'

Sohn el srolah *liki* oak soko ah.
'John jumped away off the boat.'

Kuhn el yuhlac *liki*yuh.
'Kuhn ran away from me.'

However, *liki* cannot be used with proper place names. The italicized words in the following sentences are proper place names. Without the preposition *liki*, the proper place names can denote starting points.

Kuhn el tuhkuh *Ponpe* nuh Kosrae.
'Kuhn came to Kusaie from Ponape.'

Sah el som *Kosrae* lac nuh Saepen.
'Sah went from Kusaie to Saipan.'

With common locative nouns such as *inkof* 'lagoon' or *insack* 'forest', which are made up of the locative prefix *in-* and nouns *kof* 'water' and *sahk* 'tree', the use of *liki* is optional.

Sepe el kahsruhsr (*liki*) inkof ah *nuh* lohm sel ah.
'Sepe ran from the lagoon to her house.'

Sah el yuhlac (*liki*) insack ah *nuh* inkof ah.
'Sah ran from the forest to the lagoon.'

2) The preposition *liki* is used to introduce the second part of a comparison, which can be translated as 'than'. Look at the sample sentences below.

Ninac el fact *liki* ninac kiyacl Sohn ah.
'(My) mother is fatter than John's mother.'

Oak soko okuhk uh muhi *liki* ma okoacl Sah ah.
'My canoe is faster than Sah's.'

Nga luhngse kohfi uh *liki* piru uh.
'I like coffee better than beer.'

Sah el pahtok *liki*yuh.
'Sah is more long-winded than I.'

ADVERBS

4.9

General Characteristics of Ajectives

4.9.1 An **adverb** is a word which modifies an adjective, a verb, or a whole sentence. The following sentences will illustrate these types of modification.

Sohn el *arlac* suhlallacl.
'John is very mean.'

Sepe el orekma *wo*.
'Sepe works well.'

Sahp el ac tuhkuh lutu.
'Perhaps she will come tomorrow.'

The word *arlac* in the first sentence above modifies the following adjective *suhlallacl* 'mean'. The word *wo* in the second sentence modifies the preceding verb *orekma* 'to work'. The word *sahp* 'perhaps' modifies the whole sentence that follows it.

Adverbs can be classified according to the positions in which they usually occur in sentences. Some adverbs, called **sentential adverbs**, occur at the beginning of sentences. The term **preverbal adverb** will be used to refer to those adverbs that occur between the subject and the verb or adjective in a sentence. Some adverbs occur after the verbs in sentences. The term **postverbal adverb** will be used to refer to those adverbs. In addition to these three types of adverbs, there are speical adverbs that do not fit into any of the three types. The three types of adverbs and the special adverbs will now be presented.

Classification of Adverbs

4.9.2

Sentential Adverbs

4.9.2.1 Following is a list of sentential adverbs that are commonly used in Kusaiean.

The meanings of all the sentential adverbs are not clearly understood, and the glosses given for each of them are only approximate.

Sentential Adverbs

sahp	'perhaps'
oacna	'possibly'
luhman	'seemingly' 'apparently'
fuh	'maybe'

The sentential adverbs below are used at the beginning of each sentence. They modify the whole sentence, usually in terms of uncertainty.

Sahp ngwac muhta inge nuh ke Tisacmpuh ma.
'Perhaps I will stay here until December or so.'

Oacna el som nu Leluh tari.
'Possibly he went to Leluh.'

Luhman el wellac.
'Apparently he became crazy.'

Fuh, el ac na kahinglac nuh Maclwem.
'Maybe he ran away to Maclwem.'

Preverbal Adverbs

4.9.2.2 A list of preverbal adverbs is presented below. The adverbs *wac* and *kwac* are both translated as 'always'. Both *sa* and *ke* are also translated as 'quickly'. There might be some difference in meaning between the words which are translated as 'always' or 'quickly', but these differences have not yet been found.

Preverbal Adverbs

arulac	'very'
wac	'always'
kwac	'always'
sa	'quickly'
ke	'quickly'
srwack	'still'
sifil	'again'
luhkuhn	'nearly'
kuhrwacn	'almost'
luhman	'a little' 'slightly'

The following sentences examplify the use of the preverbal adverbs. Observe that the preverbal adverbs appear before the verbs or adjectives.

1. *arulac* 'very'

The adverbs *arulac* 'very' seems to be derived from the adjective *aru* 'devoted'. With the directional suffix *lac*, it functions as an adverb. (It has a variant form *arlac*.)

Sepe el *arulac* na mas.
'Sepe is very sick.'

Ik ah *arulac* na osrwacng.
'The fish are very smelly.'

2. *wac* and *kwac* 'always'

Both *wac* and *kwac* are glossed as 'always'. If there is any difference in meaning, it remains to be found.

El *kwac* na titi.
'He is always complaining.'

El *wac* na tuhng.
'He is always crying.'

Sohn el *wac* na pahtlac nuh ke toeni uh.
'John is always late for meetings.'

Sepe el *kwac* na yuhni sifacl.
'Sepe is always adorning her hair.'

The adverb *kwac* has a negative counterpart *suhkwac* which is made up of the negative prefix *suh-* and *kwac*. *Suhkwac* means 'not always' or 'seldom'.

Kuhn el *suhkwac* na yok mos.
'Kuhn seldom plants breadfruit trees.'

3. *sa* and *ke* 'quickly'

El *sa* na ipactoklac.
'He quickly jumped into water.'

Sohn el *ke* na pakiyac sahk soko.
'John quickly cut the tree.'

4. *srwack* 'still'

Sah el *srwack* na mwetkwel.
'Sah is still sleepy.'
Ma nuh kwewa *srwack* na fahsr wo.
'Everything is still going well.'
Nga *srwack* na ke sihm a mwetkwel se pa tuhme.
'I still want to write but sleepiness fell upon me.'

5. *sifil* 'again'

Sifil is often used with another adverb *pac* 'also'.

Sepe el *sifil* pac pahgonyuh.
'Sepe called me again.'
Oak soko ah *sifil* pac som nuh Kosrae.
'The ship went to Kusaie again.'

6. *kuhrwacn* and *luhkuhn* 'almost, nearly'

El *kuhrwacn* na ikori.
'He almost fell.'

Sah el *luhkuhn* na walomlah in meoa ah.
'Sah nearly drowned in the ocean.'

Sepe el *kuhrwacn* na ituhngyuhki.
'Sepe was almost run over.'

Sepe el luhkuhn na misac.
'Sepe was nearly dead.'

7. *luhman* 'a little'

Luhman is used both as a sentential adverb and as a preverbal adverb. As a sentential adverb, *luhman* means 'apparently'; as a preverbal adverb it means 'a little' or 'slightly'.

El *luhman* mas.
'He is a little sick.'

Nga *luhman* mwetkwel.
'I am a little drowsy.'

Post-verbal Adverbs

4.9.2.3 In terms of meaning, the post-verbal adverbs can be grouped into four classes: **manner**, **place**, **time** and **frequency** adverbs. Each class of the post-verbal adverbs will be presented below. The post-verbal adverbs are, in most cases, derived from words of other parts of speech (as we will see immediately below).

Manner Adverbs

The manner adverbs are mostly derived from the adjectives. The adjective *kuluk* 'bad', for example, can be used either as an adjective or adverb. *Kuluk* in the first sentence below is used as an adjective, but it is used as an adverb in the second sentence and modifies the preceding verb.

Ma sacn arlac *kuluk*.
'That thing is very bad.'

Sohn el kahs Kosrae *kuluk*.
'John speaks Kusaiean badly.'

Some additional examples are presented below.

Sah el mwet na *moniyuhk* se.
'Sah is very devoted man.'

Sah el orekma *moniyuhk* lwen nuh kwewa.
'Sah works devotedly every day.'

Moniyuhk in the first sentence above is an adjective. In the second sentence it is used as an adverb modifying the preceding verb.

Sepe el muhtwacn na *tuhfal* se.
'Sepe is a nervous woman.'

Sepe el siyuhk sihk *tuhfal*.
'Sepe asked me nervously.'

Tuhfal in the first sentence above is used as an adjective; in the second sentence it is used as an adjective modifying the verb *siyuhk*.

Place Adverbs

Like the manner adverbs, the place adverbs are derived from words of other parts of speech. Different sets of place adverbs will be presented below.

1. The two sets of compound determiners listed in Column I can be changed into the place adverbs listed in Column II. (See 4.7.2.4–5e for the definition and uses of the compound determiners.)

I		II	
se	'this'	inse	'in this section or area.'
sac	'that'	insac	'in that section or area'
soh	'that over there'	insoh	'in that section or area over there'
nge	'this' or 'these'	innge	'here'
ngac	'that' or 'those'	inngacn	'there'
ngoh	'that or those over there'	inngoh	'there over there'

ngi	'that or those way over there'	inngi	'there way over there'

Look at the following sentences in which the derived place adverbs are used.

Sohn el muhta na { innge. / inngac. / inngoh. / inngi. } 'John is staying { here.' / there.' / over there.' / way over there.' }

Lohm sel Alihk ah oasr { inse. / insecn. / insoh. }

'Alihk's houses are in { this area.' / that area.' / that area over there.' }

2. Proper place names such as *Kosrae* 'Kusaie', *Ponpe* 'Ponape', or *Muhkihl* 'Mokil' can function as place adverbs. In the following sentences the proper place names are used as place adverbs.

Sohn ac Kuhn, eltahl orek ma { Kosrae. / Ponpe. / Muhkihl. }

'John and Kuhn are working in { Kusaie.' / Ponape.' / Muhkihl. }

3. Relational nouns such as *tukun* 'after', *muhtuhn* 'before', or *ye* 'under', or *fin* 'on' can function as place adverbs. In the following sentences, they are used as place adverbs.

Puhkantwen puhk *tukun* lohm sel Kuhn ah.
'There is a lot of sand behind Kuhn's house.'

Lohm sihk uh oasr *muhtuhn* lohm sel Sah ah.
'My house is before Sah's house.'

4. Words which denote directions such as *lacsac* 'left', *lacyot* 'right', *lucng* 'up' or *ten* 'down', can be used as place adverbs. In the following sentences, they are so used.

Sohn el muhta *lucng*.
'John is staying upstairs.'

Ninac el muhta *ten*.
'Mother is staying downstairs.'

5. Compound locative words such as *inkof* 'lagoon', which is made up of the locative prefix *in-* and the noun *kof* 'water', can be used as place adverbs.

Tuhlihk ah *yihyih inkof* ah.
'The children are bathing in the lagoon.'

Eltahl forfor *insack* ah.
'They are wandering in the forest.'

Puhkantwen fihtac ines uh.
'There are many seeds inside the papayas.'

Time Adverbs

The words listed below are common time adverbs.

met	'before, earlier'
tok	'later'
inngena	'now, nowadays'
piyacng ah	'a while ago'
piyacng uh	'after a while'
yohfong	'the night before last night'
fong	'last night'
ofong	'tonight'
lacfong	'tomorrow night'
lenyoh	'the day before yesterday'
ekweyah	'yesterday'
mihsenge	'today'
lutu	'tomorrow'
ulelac	'the day after tomorrow'
lutuyoh ah	'the morning before yesterday morning'
lutu ekweyah	'yesterday morning'
olutu	'this morning'
lututacng	'tomorrow morning'
lutu in sruhsruhl fong	'the moring after tomorrow morning'
ekuhyoh ah	'the evening before yesterday evening'
ekuh ekweyah	'yesterday evening'
oyekuh	'this evening'
ekuh in lutu	'tomorrow evening'
ekuh in sruhsruhl fong	'the evening after tomorrow evening'

Frequency Adverbs

The three words *pacl* 'time', *pengana* 'every single', and *nuh kwewa* 'every' are commonly used as frequency adverbs. The word *pacl* 'time' is used with *sie* cardinals to denote a particular number of times.

Sah el puokyuhwi *pacl* tolu.
'Sah hit me three times.'

Kuhn el som nuh Ponpe *pacl* puhkantwen.
'Kuhn has been to Ponape many times.'

The word *pengana* is used only with the word *lwen* as in the following sentences.

Eltahl tuhkuh nuh lohm sihk ah *pengana* lwen.
'They came to my house every day.'

Kuht orekma *pengana* lwen.
'We work every day.'

The words *nuh kwewa*, when it is used with nouns such as *wik* 'week', *mahlwem* 'month', or *yac* 'year', denotes frequency, as in the following sentences.

Eltahl pahtuhr { lwen / mahlwem / wik } nuh kwewa.

'They fish every { day.' / month.' / week.' }

Another adverb of frequency is *sokolac na* 'without stopping, or incessantly'. Look at the following example sentence in which *sokolac na* is used.

Af *sokolac* na.
'It is raining incessantly.'

Special Adverb *na*

4.9.2.4 The adverb *na* is treated specially and separately for these reasons. First, it can modify not only adjectives and verbs, but also another adverb. Second, it has a wide range of meaning, depending upon the word that it modifies. Third, it can occur at different positions in sentences. In the following examples, the different uses of *na* in terms of meaning and position are presented.

When *na* modifies a noun or a noun phrase, it means 'merely' or 'simply'.

El tuhlihk srihsrihk se *na*.
'He is merely a small child.'

El mwet lutlut se *na*.
'He is simply a student.'

When *na* is used with a noun or personal pronoun, it means 'only' or 'very'.

Nga etuhlah ma *na* el oruh nuh sum uh.
'I know the very thing that he is doing to you.'

Nga koasel Sohn *na*.
'I dislike only John.'

When *na* is used with verbs such as *ke* 'to want' or *etuh* 'to know', it means 'very much' or 'definitely'.

El ke *na* ngan weluhltahl som.
'He very much wants me to accompany them.'

Nga etuh *na* lah kom srwack na alken.
'I know definitely that you are still diligent.'

Na can mean 'just' or 'simply' when it is used with verbs.

Nga siyuhk *na* inel pa el foloyak.
'I just asked his name and he became mad.'

Nga tuhkuh in *na* liyekom.
'I came just to see you.'

Na can modify adjectives, in which case it means 'very'.

Sah el enganack *na* ke mwe sang sac.
'Sah became very happy with the gift.'

Sepe el ahsorack *na* ke misac luhn mukul sac.
'Sepe became very sad because of the man's death.'

Na can modify other adverbs, but is not easy to determine what *na* means in this case. Observe the following examples.

Eltahl srwack *na* kuh.
'They are still well.'

El tiyac *na* sismohk.
'He does not smoke.'

El kwac *na* titi.
'He always complains.'

INTERROGATIVE WORDS

4.10 The term **interrogative word** refers to words that are used to ask questions. Words such as *meah* 'what', *suc* 'who', and *fuhkah* 'how' are interrogative words.

General Characteristics of Interrogative Words

4.10.1 Functionally, there are interrogative pronouns, interrogative adjectives, and interrogative adverbs. In order to simplify the discussion, all of the interrogative words are lumped together in this section.

The following is a list of interrogative words with their glosses.

Interrogative Words	*Glosses*
kuh	'interrogative sentence marker'
meah (or meac)	'what'
suc	'who'
fuhkah	'how'
fuhkah nwe	'what makes one to. . . .'
fuhkah tuh	'how does it happen. . . .' 'how come'
efuh	'why'
efuhkuh	'why'
ekahsr	'how many'
ngac	'when'
oyac	'where'
piyac	'where'
fuhkuhniyac	'what part (or relation) of'
suhkah	'for what'
faskah	'what if' 'what about'
-ahkah	'a bound morpheme used to form interrogative words'

Uses of Interrogative Words

4.10.2 In this section we examine each of the interrogative words. Some occur in different places in sentences. The different positions of the interrogative words will also be examined.

1. *kuh* 'interrogative sentence marker'. *Kuh* signals that the following sentence is an interrogative sentence. The first sentence

below is a statement, but the second is an interrogative sentence, which is indicated by the interrogative sentence marker *kuh*.

Sohn el mas.
'John is sick.'

Kuh Sohn el mas?
'Is John sick?'

Note the following additional examples.

Kuh kom masrinsracl?
'Are you hungry?'

Kuh mukul sac arlac kuh?
'Is the man very strong?'

Kuh muhtwacn sac luhngse mukul sacn?
'Does the woman love that man?'

However, in actual speech, the interrogative sentence marker *kuh* is often omitted. The following sentence, for example, can be either a statement or a question.

Sohn el ac som nuh Utwac.
'Will John go to Utwac?'
'John will go to Utwac.'

The intonation usually makes it possible to distinguish a statement from an interrogative sentence. (See 2.8 for a discussion of intonation.)

2. *meah* 'what'. When *meah* 'what' is used in relation to a person, it asks about the person's occupation. When it is used with regard to a thing, it asks the name of the thing. Observe the following examples.

Question: *Meac* mwet sac?
'What is the man?'

Answer: El mwet luti sac.
'He is a teacher.'

Question: *Meac* muhsahllah?
'What has been broken?'

Answer: Sikutuhr okuhk ah muhsahllah.
'My scooter has been broken.'

Meah can be used as an interrogative adjective. When it is used with a human noun, it asks about the person's occupation. When

it is used with a non-human noun, it asks about the object in terms of its purpose or use.

Question: Mwet *meac* se tuhkuh ekweyah ah?
'What person came yesterday?'

Answer: Mwet luti se.
'A teacher.'

Question: Mongo *meac* se orek pacl se uh?
'What food is prepared at this time?'

3. *suc* 'who'. *suc* is used to identify a person or a person's name.

Question: *Suc* el an?
'Who is he?'

Answer: El pa Sah.
'He is Sah.'

Question: *Suc* inel an?
'What is his name?'

Answer: Inel pa Kuhn.
'His name is Kehn.'

Question: *Suc* ollah nuknuk ah ah?
'Who has washed the clothes?'

Answer: Sepe.
'Sepe.'

Suc can be used as an interrogative adjective. But the nouns with which *suc* can be used are restricted to those that denote time or quantity. Some nouns that denote time or quantity are presented below.

Nouns denoting time

minit	'minute'
ao	'hour'
lwen	'day'
wik	'week'
mahlwem	'month'
yac	'year'
fong	'night'

Nouns denoting quantity or size

luhpah	'size'
lusac	'length'
pisac	'number'

In the following sentences *suc* is used attributively with some of the nouns listed above.

Question: Ao *suc* kom ac som an?
'What time are you going?'

Answer: Ao ahkosr.
'four o'clock'

Question: Wik *suc* el ac tuhkuh an?
'What week will he come?'

Answer: Wik lutu an.
'Next week.'

Question: Lusac *suc* kom enenuh an?
'What length do you need?'

Answer: Fahtwem se.
'One fathom.'

Question: Pihsac *suc* el luhngse uh?
'What number (how many)'

Answer: Longoul.
'Twenty.'

Suc can be translated as 'whose' when it is used with the classifiers.

Luhn suc nuknuk sac mihsacsac ah?
'Whose clothes are torn?'

Sin suc acn se wo liki acn sihk ah?
'Whose field is better than mine?'

Okoen *suc* sitosah soko el us tuhkuh ah?
'Whose car did he use to come?'

Nuhtin *suc* pinsuhl soko an fin tepuh ah?
'Whose pencil is lying on the table?'

Niyen *suc* tuh soko emwem e met an?
'Whose sugar cane is most sweet?'

4. *fuhkah* 'how'. *Fuhkah* is translated as 'how', but it has a wide range of uses. There are at least five different uses which are described here. First, it is used to ask about the way or manner in which certain actions are carried out. The following are examples.

Question: Kom pahngon *fuhkah* "yam" nuh Kosrae?
'How do you say "yam" in Kusaiean?'

Answer: Muhtah.
'We call them "muhta."'

Question: Kom ac twem mitmit sac *fuhkah*?
'How will you sharpen a knife.'

Answer: Ngwac fwacli.
'I will use a file.'

When *fuhkah* is used in the sense of 'in what manner or way', it can occur before the object of a verb or after it, as we see in the sentences above. In the first question above, *fuhkah* occurs before "yam", which is the object of the verb *pahngon*. In the second question, *fuhkah* occurs after the object of the verb *twem* 'to sharpen'.

A Second use of *fuhkah* is to ask about the condition or state in which certain things or persons are in. Observe the following examples.

Question: Kom *fuhkah*?
'How are you?'

Answer: Nga kuh na.
'I am well.'

Question: Lohm lutlut ah *fuhkah*?
'How is the school?'

Answer: Lohm lutlut ah arlac wo.
The school is very good.'

Third, *fuhkah* is used to identify depth, width or length, height, or weight, or similar concepts.

Fuhkah loaliyen infacl ah?
'What is the depth of the river?'

Fuhkah sralahpiyen innek ah?
'What is the width of the road?'

Fuhkah lusacl Sohn?
'What is John's height?'

Fuhkah muhiyen oak soko ah?
'What is the speed of the canoe?'

Fuhkah mahtoltoliyen ipin sahk ah?
'How thick is the wood?'

Fourth, *fuhkah* can be used attributively like an attributive adjective.

Question: Imac *fuhkah* se el molelah ah?
'What field did he buy?'

Answer: Imac in kuhtak se.
'A taro patch.'

Question: Acing *fuhkah* se el konacack ah?
'What crab did he find?'

Answer: Acing in pot se.
'A crab.'

Fifth, *fuhkah* can be used as a verb meaning 'how did you come or go'. It is generally used with one of the directional suffixes such as *lah* or *ma*. The following examples illustrate.

Question: Kom *fuhkahlah* nuh Maclwem?
'How did you go to Maclwem?'

Answer: Nga sikutuhrlac.
'I went by scooter.'

Question: Sepe el *fuhkahi* nuh ten ah?
'How did Sepe come to the sea-side?'

Answer: El fani na.
'He just climbed down.'

5. *fuhkah nwe* 'What makes something or somebody to . . .'. *Fuhkah nwe* is apparently made up of two morphemes: *fuhkah*, which we observed in the preceding section, and *nwe*. But it is difficult to give even an approximate meaning to the morpheme *nwe*. *Fuhka nwe* will be treated here as one interrogative word, as in the following example sentences.

Question: *Fuhkah nwe* ipiplac yot sac?
'What made the stone roll?'

Answer: Nga muhta fac tuh pa ipiplac.
'I lay on it and accidentally it rolled.'

Question: *Fuhkah nwe* kom tuhngalilyac?
'What made you hit him?'

Answer: El koskosiyuhi pa nga tuhngahlilyac.
'He called me bad names and so I hit him.'

6. *fuhkah tuh* 'How does it happen that . . .' 'how come'. Like the interrogative word *fuhkah nwe*, *fuhkah tuh* is made up of two morphemes. But it is not clear what *tuh* in *fuhkah tuh* means. Observe the following examples.

Question: *Fuhkah tuh* kom masack?
'How did it happen that you were sick?'

Answer: Nga orekma arlac upaclac.
'I worked too hard.'

Question: *Fuhkah tuh* el walomlah?
'How come he drowned?'

Answer: El nihkihn kofkof.
'He did not know how to swim.'

Question: *Fuhkah tuh* el misac?
'How did it happen that he died?'

Answer: El mas kweok.
'He was seriously ill.'

7. *efuh* 'why'. *Efuh* is used to identify cause or reason.

Efuh kom uniyac pik soko ah?
'Why did you kill the pig?'

Efuh Sah el koltahelah lohm sac?
'Why did Sah paint the house with coaltar?'

Efuh mongo ah kuluklac?
'Why did the food become rotten?'

8. *efuh kuh* 'why' *Efuh kuh* is apparently made up of two morphemes, *efuh* and *kuh*. But what *kuh* means in *efuh kuh* is not clear. The two words are treated as a unit. *Efuh kuh* differs from *efuh* in that *efuh kuh* has some additional meaning of rebuke or protest. Note the following.

Efuh kuh kom tiyac tuhkuh ekweyah ah?
'Why did you not come yesterday?'

Efuh kuh el suhpuhklah sahk soko an?
'Why did he cut down the tree?'

9. *ekahsr* 'how many'. *Ekahsr* is used to identify the number of countable objects. Although it is usually used with countable nouns, it can be used with uncountable nouns such as *piru* 'beer' or *kof* 'water'. When *ekahsr* is used with uncountable nouns, it asks about the number of objects in terms of their containers. We see this below.

Wek *ekahsr* kom uslah nuh ke macruht sac?
'How many marriage gifts did you bring to the marriage?'

Tuhp *ekahsr* el orweyac ah?
'How many containers did you fill?'

Piru *ekahsr* kom kuh in nuhmlah pacl se?
'How many (bottles of) beer can you drink at one time?'

10. *ngac* 'when'. *Ngac* is used to identify the time of a certain action or an event.

Kom tuhkuh *ngac* nuh Kosrae?
'When did you come to Kusaie?'

El kaliyac sruhnguhl sac *ngac*?
'When did he close the door?'

Ngac can be used attributively like an attributive adjective. But the nouns which *ngac* can be used with are limited to those that denote time, such as *lwen* 'day', *fong* 'night', *mahlwem* 'month', or *yac* 'year'. The following sentences illustrate.

Lwen *ngac* se Sohn el tuhkuh nuh Kosrae ah?
'What day did John come to Kusaie?'

Mahlwem *ngac* se Sepe el isuslac ah?
'What month was Sepe born?'

Fong *ngac* se oak soko ah oai ah?
'What night did the ship arrive?'

Ngac can be used with the preposition *nuh*. *Nuh ngac* (or *nwe ngac*) means 'until when' or 'until what time'.

Kom ac sroali lohm sacn *nwe ngac*?
'Until what time will you paint the house?'

Sepe el mas *nwe ngac*?
'Until when was Sepe sick?'

Ngac is often used with the indefinite pronoun *ma* 'one', as in *ma ngac*. *Ma ngac* can be translated as 'how old', but 'how old' must be interpreted in several different ways, depending upon the context in which it is used. The following sentences, for example, can be interpreted in at least three different ways.

Ma *ngac* ik nwacl Sohn ah?
'How old is John's fish?'

1. When did he catch it?
2. When did he cook it?
3. When did he buy it?

As the interrogative sentence above can have several different interpretations, so the following sentences can be answers to it.

1. El sruokyac ekweyah.
   'He caught it yesterday.'
2. El ahkmolyelah lutu ah.
   'He cooked it yesterday.'
3. El molelah fong.
   'He bought it last night.'

Observe the following additional set of examples.

Question: Ma *ngac* sikutuhr okoacl ah?
'How old is his scooter?'

Answer: Ma ke mahlwem met ah.
'He used it for the past few months.'

Ma in 1970.
'It was made in 1970.'

The interrogative word *ngac* can be used with another interrogative word such as *suc* 'who' or *meah* 'what', as in *suc ngac* 'who else' or *meah ngac* 'what else'. As the translations indicate, *ngac* in such a case means 'else'. Look at the following examples in which *ngac* is used in the sense of 'else'.

Suc *ngac* tuhkuh ah?
'Who else came?'

Meah *ngac* kom molelah ah?
'What else did you buy?'

11. *oyac, yac* 'where'. *Oyac* is used to identify the place of a certain action or of an event. It has a variant form *yac*. There seems to be no difference in meaning between the two forms. Notice the following.

Kom orekma *oyac* lwen nuh kwewa?
'Where did you work every day?'

El tuh muhta *oyac* ekweyah?
'Where did he stay yesterday?'

Kom pahtuhreack siifac se *oyac*?
'Where did you catch the ray fish?'

Oyac can be used with the preposition *nuh* as in *nuh oyac* 'to where' or 'whereto'.

Eltahl kahsruhsr *nuh* oyac fong met ah?
'Where did they run to last night?'

Komtacl ac som *nuh oyac* wik fahsr uh?
'Where are you going this coming week?'

Oyac can be used attributively like an attributive adjective. In the sentence below, *oyac* is so used. *Oyac* is used to identify the place where the thing is made or the place where the thing is borrowed from. Since the meaning of the sentence below is ambiguous, there can be at least two possible answers.

Kom nguhsrelah aen *oyac* se?
'What iron did you borrow?'

1. Where is the iron made?
2. Where did you borrow it?

The following two sentences can be answers to the interrogative sentence above.

Answer 1: Aen Suhmuhn se.
'An iron made in Germany.'

Answer 2: Aen se luhn mwet sac yen oh.
'An iron of the man over there.'

Observe the following additional examples.

Question: Pinsuhl *oyac* soko kom sroalkihn ah?
'With what pencil did you draw?'

Answer 1: Pinsuhl Sacpacnis soko.
'With a pencil made in Japan.'

Answer 2: Ma soko an inpohk sac ah.
'With the one that was in the box.'

Oyac can be used with the indefinite pronoun *ma* in the same way as the interrogative word *ngac* 'when'. *Ma oyac* can be translated as 'what', but specifically it asks about the place where the thing is made or the place from which the thing came from. Observe the examples below.

Question: Ma *oyac* mitmit se kom twem ah?
'What knife is the one that you sharpened?'

Answer: Ma macrike se.
'One made in America.'

Answer: Ma nahtuhl Sohn.
'John's.'

12. *piyac* 'where'. The interrogative word *piyac* can be translated as 'where be (is, was, are, or were)', as we can see in the example sentences below.

Mitmit nuhtihk ah *piyac*?
'Where is my knife?'

Piyac acn se sel Salihk ah?
'Where is Salihk's land?'

The interrogative word *piyac* 'where be' seems to be made up of two morphemes *pi* and *yac* 'where'. The morpheme *pi* seems to have the meaning of 'to be' or 'to exist'. However, as it is not used anywhere else, *piyac* is regarded as a unit.

As the meaning of 'to be' or 'to exist' is included in *piyac* 'where be', the word cannot be used in a sentence in which there

is a verb. In the following sentence, there is a verb *oasr* 'to be' or 'to exist', and the interrogative *piyac* can not be used, although *oyac* (or *yac*) 'where' can be.

Sohn el oasr *oyac*? (but not *piyac*)
'Where is John?'

Observe the following additional examples.

Eltahl orek ma *oyac*? (but not *piyac*)
'Where are they working?'

Sohn el isuslac *oyac*? (but not *piyac*)
'Where was John born?'

Tuhlihk se nahtuhl Kuhn ah lutlut *oyac*? (but not *piyac*)
'Where is Kuhn's son studying?'

13. *fuhkuhniyac* 'what part of' or 'what relation of'. *Fuhkuhniyac* can take possessive suffixes, as the following suffixed forms show.

fuhkuhniyuhk	'what part of me'
fuhkuhniyom	'what part of you'
fuhkuhniyacl	'what part of him or her'
fuhkuhniyen	'what part of'
fuhkuhniyacsr	'what parts of our ours'
fuhkuhniyomtacl	'what parts of yours'
fuhkuhniyacltahl	'what parts of theirs'

Some example sentences in which *fuhkuhniyac* is used are presented below.

Question: *Fuhkuhniyom* Sah el tukyac ah?
'What part of you did Sah hit?'

Answer: El tukyac inyuwuhk.
'He hit my chest.'

Question: *Fuhkuhniyen* tuhlihk sac kihneta ah?
'What part of the child is wounded?'

Answer: Fintohkohl pa kihneta ah.
'It is his back that got wounded.'

Question: Sah el *fuhkuhniyom*?
'What relation is Sah to you?'

Answer: El ma wiyuhk.
'He is my brother.' 'She is my sister.'

16. *-ahkah*. *-ahkah* is a bound morpheme which forms complex interrogative words when it is suffixed to the words listed below.

sralahp	'wide'	sralahpahkah	'how wide'
lusac	'length'	lusackah	'how long'
fuhlwact	'high'	fuhlwactahkah	'how high'
luhpah	'size'	luhpahkah	'how big'
———		puhtahkah	'how long (time)'

There might be some other words which can take the suffix *-ahkah* and which can be changed into interrogative words, but those listed above are all that have been found so far. A few examples of each of the interrogative words using the suffix *-ahkah* will be presented below.

A. *sralahpahkah* 'how wide'
Sralahpahkah inkacnek ah?
'How wide is the road'

Sralahpahkah nuknuk sac?
'How wide is the cloth?'

B. *lusackah* 'how long'
Lusackah ah soko an?
'How long is the piece of string?'

Lusackah acn yenuh nwe Utwac?
'How long is the distance from here to Utwac?'

C. *fuhlwactahkah* 'how high'
Fuhlwactahkah lohm sum an?
'How high is your house?'

Fuhlwactahkah finohl soko ngi?
'How high is that mountain?'

D. *luhpahkah* 'how big'
Luhpahkah acn sel Srue ah?
'How big is Srue's land?'

Luhpahkah lohm sum an?
'How big is your house?'

E. *puhtahkah* 'how long (time)'
puhtahkah el ac muhta we an?
'How long will he stay there?'

Puhtahkah kuht ac soanel an?
'How long shall we wait for him?'

CONJUNCTIONS

4.11

GENERAL CHARACTERISTICS OF CONJUNCTIONS

4.11.1 The term **conjunction** is used to refer to a class of words that are used to join together sentences or parts of sentences.

Functionally, conjunctions can be grouped into coordinators, subordinators, and complementizers. The differences in these three types of conjunctions will be discussed in the following paragraphs.

The **complementizers** make the sentences that follow function as nouns. In the sentence below, the part italicized is a complete sentence in itself. But it functions as the object of the verb *nuhnkuh* 'to think'.

Nga nuhnkuh muh *Sepe el ac tuhkuh.*
'I think that Sepe will come.'

The sentence italicized is similar in function to *mwet sac* 'the man' of the following sentence.

Nga nuhnkuh *mwet sac.*
'I am thinking of the man.'

The **subordinators** make the sentences that follow function as prepositional phrases, denoting cause, reason, purpose, or result. The italicized parts in the first sentence below are a complete sentence, which denotes cause just like the prepositional phrase *ke acnwuhk sac* 'because of the fight' of the second sentence below.

Sepe el ahsor *lah Sohn el tiyac tuhkuh.*
'Sepe is sad because John did not come.'

Sepe el ahsor *ke acnwuhk sac.*
'Sepe is sad because of the fight.'

Conjunctions other than the subordinators and the complementizers are the **coordinators**.

USES OF CONJUNCTIONS

4.11.2

Coordinators

4.11.2.1 The following is a list of coordinators.

ac	'and'
a	'but'
na	'and then'
nwe	'and finally'
tuh, twe	'and yet' 'and accidentally' 'but'
kuh	'or'

The uses of each of the coordinators listed above are as follows:

1. *ac* 'and'

The conjunction *ac* is used to indicate addition. It is used to add words, phrases or sentences.

Word *ac* Word

Sepe *ac* Sue akuhkuhin sie sin sie.
'Sepe and Sue are arguing with each other.'

Nga puokohl Kuhn *ac* Sah.
'I hit Kuhn and Sah.'

Phrase *ac* Phrase

Sohn el molelah pinsuhl lukoac *ac* pacng soko.
'John bought two pencils and one pen.'

Muhtwacn se *ac* mukul luo som nuh Ponpe.
'One woman and two men went to Ponape.'

Sentence *ac* Sentence

Kuhn el ollah pahol *ac* Sah el oul niyacl.
'Kuhn has washed his hands and Sah is washing his legs.'

Sepe el oasr lohm ah *ac* Srue el oasr lohm lutlut ah.
'Sepe is at home and Srue is at school.'

Often the word *oyacpac* 'also' is used when the conjunction *ac* is used to connect words or phrases.

Ninac el ekuhllah kiaka sac *ac oyacpac* ilul ah.
'Mother turned the mat and also the pillow.'

Pahpah el kuhkakuhnlah pik ah *ac oyacpac* kaho ah.
'Father sold the pigs and also the cows.'

2. *a* 'but in contrast' 'while on the other hand' 'whereas'

The conjunction *a* is used to show contrast. Notice the conjunction in the following sentences.

Nga itul ros ah *a* el an mutul.
'I am stringing the flowers but she is sleeping.'

Sruhnguhl luhk ah ikacklah *a* ma lal Sah an kauli.
'My door was open, but his thing (door) was closed.'

Salihk el til kaki ah *a* Sah el til etong ah.
'Sahlihk is picking coconuts but Sah is collecting firewood.'

3. *na* 'and then'

The conjunction *na* is used to connect words or sentences. The meanings of the conjunction differ depending upon the elements it joins together. The conjunction *na* can connect two nouns or noun phrases, as in *Sepe na Sah* 'only Sepe and Sah'. In this case, the conjunction means 'only . . . and . . .'. Some additional examples are presented below.

Sepe na Sah.
'Only Sepe and Sah.'

Acpuhl se na muh se.
'Only an apple and an orange.'

An adjective can be repeated more than once as in *kahto na kanto* 'very pretty', to intensify the meaning of the adjective. Here are additional examples.

Tuhlihk sahk sac kahto *na* kahto.
'The doll is very pretty.'

Orekma sac upac *na* upac.
'The work is very difficult.'

Tuhlihk sac alken *na* alken.
'The child is very diligent.'

A verb can also be repeated more than once as in *nihm na nihm* 'drink and drink' to emphasize an action which takes place constantly. Here are examples.

Sepe el itul *na* itul ros ah.
'Sepe is constantly stringing the flowers.'

Sah el nihm *na* nihm piru ah.
'Sah is constantly drinking beer.'

Kuhn el futung *na* futung pohl ah.
'Kuhn is constantly kicking the ball.'

Sentences can be joined together by the conjunction *na*. When it connects sentences, *na* means 'and then' or 'and immediately'. In the first sentence below, the two actions of writing a letter and sending it are related. The action of writing a letter must have

been finished before one can send the letter. The conjunc *na* is used to denote such a sequence of related actions.

Nga suhmuhslah lwacta se *na* suhpwaclah.
'I wrote a letter and sent it.'

El tawiyac nwek se *na* us pahtuhr.
'She finished weaving the net and took it for fishing.'

Nga turohngi ik soko *na* pahko soko yuhme.
'I was spearing a fish and immediately a shark rushed at me.'

4. *nwe* 'and finally'

The conjunction *nwe* indicates that some action or state been going on for some time and then another action or s follows. The following sentences are illustrative.

Sah el mas *nwe* misac.
'Sah was sick (for some time) and finally died.'

Nga taun e se *nwe* Sah el tuhkuh kahsrweyuh.
'I was making a fire (for some time) and then Sah came and helped me.'

Nga tawi nwek se *nwe* ngallac pouk.
'I was weaving a net (for some time) and my hand ached.'

5. *tuh* or *twe* 'and yet' 'and accidentally' 'but'

The conjunction *tuh* is used to connect sentences. It me either 'and yet' or 'and accidentally'.

Sah el twenlah niyacl *tuh* srwack na fohkfohk.
'Sah washed his legs and yet they are still dirty.'

Nga tukyac fahfah sac *tuh* sintikuhl kuhtuh.
'I pounded the poi but it is somewhat lumpy.'

Sepe el tawiyac nwek sac *tuh* tiyac fokoko.
'Sepe wove the net but it is not strong.'

El twem mitmit sac *tuh* kihneta pahol.
'He was sharpening the knife and accidentally cut his hand.'

Kuhn el tuk fahfah se *tuh* ahwowo el tuhngyak
'Kuhn was pounding poi but the baby began to cry.'

6. *kuh* 'or'

The conjunction *kuh* indicates alternative choices. It used to connect words, phrases or sentences. The follow are illustrative sentences.

Srue el kauli lwen luo *kuh* tolu.
'Srue was in hospital for two or three days.'

Sepe el wellac *kuh* sruhilac.
'Sepe became crazy or drunken.'

Kuh kom luhngse semihs *kuh* ton?
'Do you want fresh-water eel or salt-water eel?

Subordinators

4.11.2.2 The following is a list of subordinators.

ke	'when'
met liki	'before'
tukun	'after'
pa, pa sis	'so', 'therefore'
mweyen	'because'
oacna	'like' 'as' 'as if'
muh	'so that ... may'
lah	'now that' 'since' 'to see if'

A discussion of the uses of each of the subordinators listed above follows.

1. *ke* 'when', *met liki* 'before' and *tukun* 'after'

The three words *ke*, *met liki* and *tukun* are regarded as subordinators here. But *ke* and *met liki* are essentially prepositions (See 4.8), and *tukun* is the construct form of *tohkoh* 'its back'. They differ from the other conjunctions in some respects. First, let us observe the sentences to follow, to see how they differ from the others.

Pahpah el misac ke nga fuhsr *ah*.
'Father died when I was young.'

Pahpah el misac met liki nga isuslac *ah*.
'Father died before I was born.'

Pahpah el misac tukun nga isuslac *ah*.
'Father died after I was born.'

As we can see in the sentences above, when the subordinators *ke*, *met liki*, and *tukun* are used, one of the determiners *ah*, *uh*, *an* and *oh* must also be used at the end of the sentences. Only the determiner *ah* is used in the sentences above because the time reference is past. But the other determiners, *uh* and *an* are to be used when the time reference is not past. Observe the following sentences.

Nga ac orekma ke el ac tuhkuh *uh*.
'I will work when he comes.'

Nga ac orekma met liki (or tukun) el tuhkuh *an*.
'I will work before (or after) he comes.'

It will be shown in 10.2.5. that the sentences above are shorter forms of the following. The omitted elements are in parenthe

Pahpah el misac ke (pacl se ma) nga fuhsr ah.
'Father died at the time when I was young.'

Pahpah el misac met liki (pacl se ma) nga isuslacah.
'Father died before the time when I was born.'

Pahpah el misac tukun (pacl se ma) nga isuslac ah.
'Father died after the time when I was born.'

2. *pa sis* or *pa* 'therefore' 'thus' 'consequently' 'so'

The subordinator *pa sis* expresses a result. The secc element *sis* seems to be optional; that is, either *pa sis* or *pa* c be used without much difference in meaning. Some examp are presented below.

Nuknuk lal ah fohkfohklah *pa* el som ayaol.
'His clothes became dirty so he went to change them.'

Ninac el arlac kahfofo *pa* el tiyac kuh in sihm nuh sum.
'Mother is very busy so she cannot write to you.'

Nga mas kuhtuh *pa* nga sap Sepe el tuhkuh.
'I was a little sick so I asked Sepe to come.'

3. *mweyen* 'because'

The subordinator *mweyen* expresses a cause. Some exam sentences in which *mweyen* is used are presented.

Kosro el lohi ruf kacl ah *mweyen* srihng.
'The dog is licking the wound because (it is) itchy.'

El tiyac wi sritacl *mweyen* ngal niyacl.
'He can not go playing because his legs hurt.'

El losyac nuknuk lal ah *mweyen* arlac ahrosros.
'He tied his clothes because they were very loose.'

4. *oacna* 'like' 'as' 'as if'

The subordinator *oacna* expresses a manner as below.

Sohn el suhmuhslah lwacta se oacna nga oruh ah.
'John wrote a letter in the same way I did.'

Sepe el yuhlac nuh lohm ah oacna elan sohk.
'Sepe hurried to the house as if she were flying.'

5. *muh* 'so that . . . may'

The subordinator *muh* expresses a purpose and can be translated as 'so that—may (or can)'. Note the following sentences.

Eltahl suhlahklahk *muh* eltahl in tiyac pahtlac nuh ke oak ah.
'They hurried so that they may not be late for the boat.'

Sah el kaiyuh *muh* ngan tiyac sismohk.
'Sah advised me so that I may not smoke.'

Kuhn el kosrweyuhlac *muh* ngan tiyac som.
'Kuhn blocked me so that I {may / can} not go.'

6. *lah* 'now that' 'since' 'to see if'

The subordinator *lah* has two distinct meanings. It expresses, for one, a cause when it is used with adjectives that denote emotions.

Srue el engan *lah* mukul tuhmwacl ah tuhkuh.
'Srue is happy because her husband came.'

Sohn el tuhfal *lah* el pa uniyac mwet sac ah.
'John was nervous because it is he who killed the man.'

Tuhlihk sac mwekihn *lah* el kohfluhfohl.
'The child was bashful because he was naked.'

The subordinator *lah* also expresses a purpose. It can be translated as 'to see if'. Observe the following example sentences.

El pahgonyuh *lah* ngwac kahskahs nuh sel.
'He called me to see if I would speak to him.'

El ikacs pohk sac *lah* meah an loac ah.
'He is opening the box to see what is inside it.'

El ikorinyuh *lah* nga ac kasrkuhsrak.
'He tripped me to see if I would be mad.'

Complementizers

4.11.2.3 The complementizers of Kusaiean are as follows: (see 10.3.1 for a detailed discussion of the complementizers.)

lah	'whether'
muh	'that'
tuh	'that'

The three words *lah*, *muh* and *tuh* are used as complementizers.

We have already seen that *lah* and *muh* are used as subordinators, and *tuh* is used as a coordinator. In this section, the uses of *lah*, *muh*, and *tuh* as complementizers will be examined.

1. *lah* 'whether'

The complementizer *lah* with its following sentence can be used as an object of verbs such as *siyuhk* 'to ask', *etuh* 'to know', or *nuhnkuh* 'to think'. Observe the following sentences.

Sohn el siyuhk sihk lah *Sepe el ac tuhkuh.*
'John asked med if Sepe would be coming.'

Nga tiyac etuh lah *el kikiyacp.*
'I do not know whether he lies or not.'

Nga nuhnkuh lah *el ac moli acn sacn.*
'I am wondering whether he should buy the land or not.'

The italicized part in each sentence above is the direct object of *siyuhk*, *etuh* and *nuhnkuh* respectively.

The complementizer *lah* is used when the sentence it introduces is an interrogative sentence. (See 9.2 for the definition of the interrogative sentence.) The following are additional example sentences.

El siyuhk sihk lah *suc uslah sitosah okuhk ah.*
'He asked me who drove away my car.'

El etuh lah *suc ac tuhkuh lutu uh.*
'He knows who is coming tomorrow.'

2. *muh* 'that'

The complementizer *muh* in the following sentences can function as a direct object of verbs such as *fahk* 'to say', *sulkackihn* 'to announce', *esam* 'to remember', and *finsrak* 'to hope'. In the sentences below, the italicized part of each sentence is a complete sentence in itself, but it functions as an object of a verb.

Kuhn el fahk nuh sihk muh *kom mas.*
'Kuhn told me that you were sick.'

Eltahl sulkackihn muh *oak ah tihli.*
'They announced that the ship sank.'

Sepe el esam muh *ma lal pa nuknuk sac.*
'Sepe remember that the clothes are her things.'

3. *tuh* 'that'

The complementizer *tuh* can be used interchangeably with *muh*. But it is not clear whether there is any difference in meaning. Note the following pairs of sentences.

El finsrak muh (or tuh) *oak ah in tuhkuh.*
'He hopes that the ship will come.'

Sah el titi muh (or tuh) *nga suhlallacl nuh sel.*
'Sah complains that I am mean to him.'

INTERJECTIONS

4.12 An **interjection** is a word which is used to express joy, sadness, surprise, fear, or anger. The following is a partial list of interjections, with a brief description of their uses or glosses.

AC 'what?' 'I beg your pardon.'
Ac, meac se kom fahk ah?
'What? what did you say?'

ACAC 'well . . .' an expression of hesitation.
Acac, el muh el ac som nuh Utwac.
'Well, he plans to go to Utwac.'

AC 'Here it is.' 'Here, take this.'
Ac, kom siyuhk pa nga usyot.
'Here take this. You asked and I give it.'

AYARI 'Wow' an expression of surprise or pleasure
Ayari, kuhseyacl el fuhng na pwacye.
'Wow, she really pretty.'

E 'No, I do not like it.'
E, nga tiyac ke kang.
'No, I do not want to eat.'

NGI 'Look' 'Lo'
Ngi, tuhlihk muhtwacn se ngi.
'Look, that girl over there.'

KURA an expression that one makes when emerging from a hiding place.

KUHSEYACL 'gee' an expression of surprise.
Kuhseyacl, kuhtuh kom kahto.
'Gee, you are so pretty.'

KOACL 'O.K.' 'That is good.'
Kocal, kuht som.
'O.K., let us go.'

LWEPUHK 'Whew' an expression of anger, frustration, discomfort or irritation
Lwepuhk, meac kom usruhk an?
'What are you looking at?'

MA 'hey' 'hello'
Ma, nikmet fahsr nuh insacn.
'Hey, don't go in there.'

MAC 'I beg your pardon.'
Mac, sifilpac fahk.
'I beg your pardon. Say that again.'

OO 'O, I see.'
Oo, tuhlihk mukul sacn.
'Oh, I see. That is the guy.'

OH an expression of tiredness.
Oh, kuhseyacl nga ullac ke orekma sac.
'Oh, I am really tired of the work.'

MACNSIS 'never mind' 'Please'
Macnsis, kon tiyac tuhkuh lutu.
'Never mind. You don't have to come tomorrow.'

PWEPWE an expression of surprise.
Pwepwe, kuhseyacl nga tiyac na etuh?
'What, why don't I understand this?'

PRRR 'It is cold.'
Prrr, nga mihsrihsryak.
'Prrr, I am getting cold.'

SUHPOHL an expression of amazement
Suhpohl, kom tuhkuh ngac?
'When did you come?'

SH 'Be quiet!'
Sh . . . , mwet wohwohn.
'Sh, don't make noise.'

TS an expression of disapproval
Ts . . . , kuluk na ma kom oruh an.
'Ts . . . , that is very bad.'

WAH an expression of surprise
Wah, kuh kom pa el fahk ah.
'What, are you the one that she is talking about?'

WE or *WES* 'alas' an expression of sorrow.
We, kuh pwacye el pa misac ah.
'Alas, he is the one that died.'

WEHU 'hurrah'
Wehu, kuht pa itto uh.
'Hurrah, we are the winners.'

5 Word-formation: Changing Parts of Speech

The Kusaiean language, like many other languages, has various ways of forming new words from a given word. The noun *fohk* 'dirt' or 'feces' can be changed into a locative noun *infohk* 'ground' with the addition of the prefix *in-*. With the suffix *-lah*, *fohk* can be changed into a predicate word *fohklah* 'to defecate'. By reduplicating the noun *fohk*, we can have an adjective *fohkfohk* 'dirty'. From the derived adjective *fohkfohk*, the following three transitive verbs can be derived with the suffixes *-i* and *-kihn* and the prefix *ahk-* with its accompanying transitiving suffix *-ye*:

fohkfohki	'to dirty, to stain'
fohkfohkkihn	'to consider (something) dirty'
ahkfohkfohkye	'to cause (something) to become dirty or dirtier'

The three transitive verbs above can be changed into passive forms. (See 5.4, for a detailed discussion)

fohkfohkiyuhk	'to be dirtied, to be stained'
fohkfohkkihnyuhk	'to be considered dirty'
ahkfohkfohkyeyuhk	'to be caused to become dirty or dirtier'

The suffix *-iyac* can change the three derived transitive verbs *fohkfohki*, *fohkfohkkihn* and *ahkofohkfohkye* into nouns (See 5.6 for a detailed discussion.)

fohkfohkiyac	'dirtying, staining'
fohkfohkkihniyac	'considering (something) dirty'
ahkifohkfohkyeiyac	'causing (something) to become dirty'

From the single word *fohk* 'dirt' or 'feces', twelve different words are derived with the addition of different bound morphemes. The term **derivation** will be used for the process of deriving a word from another word with the addition of suffixes or prefixes.

Besides through derivation, there is another way of changing parts of speech. A word of one part of speech can be used as a word of another part of speech. The word *mongo*, for instance, can be used both as a noun meaning 'food' and as an intransitive verb meaning 'to eat'. The term **conversion** will be used when the use of a word is converted into another use.

In Sections 5.1–12 derivations will be presented, and in Section 13 conversions will be presented.

DERIVATION OF TRANSITIVE VERBS WITH THE SUFFIX *-i*

5.1 The transitivizing suffix *-i* can change certain nouns and adjectives into transitive verbs. In the following paragraphs meaning of the derived transitive verbs will be examined.

Nouns into Transitive Verbs

5.1.1 Generally speaking, nouns that fall into the following sets can take the transitivizing suffix *-i* to become transitive verbs.

1. Nouns that refer to tools or instruments
2. Nouns that refer to component parts, such as handles that can be attached to other things
3. Nouns that refer to containers
4. Nouns that refer to materials or additives
5. Nouns that refer to measurement

The transitive verbs derived from nouns that refer to tools or instruments mean 'to do something with' or 'to carry out a certain action with'. The noun *acmuhr* 'hammer' is changed into a transitive verb *acmuhri*, 'to hammer' or 'to strike or pound with a hammer'. Look at the following additional examples.

Nouns		*Transitive Verbs*	
aen	'iron'	aeni	'to iron'
lihkacsihk	'gun'	lihkacsihki	'to gun' 'to shoot with a gun'
sahfuhl	'shovel'	sahfuhli	'to shovel'
fais	'vice'	faisi	'to tighten with a vice'
lak	'lock'	laki	'to lock'
osra	'spear'	osrai	'to spear'

In the following sentences derived transitive verbs are used.

Sepe el *aeni* wes luhk ah.
'Sepe is ironing my shirts.'

El *lihkacsihki* won ah.
'He is shooting at the birds.'

Tuhlwen el *sahfuhli* puhk ah.
'Tuhlwen is shoveling the sand.'

When nouns which refer to things that can be attached to other things are changed into transitive verbs with the addition of the suffix *-i*, the derived transitive verbs mean 'to equip or provide something with' or 'to put something to'. The noun *puhtin* 'button', when it is changed into the transitive verb *puhtini*, means 'to button' or 'to provide something with a button or buttons'. Some additional examples are provided below.

Nouns		*Transitive Verbs*	
pakiht	'pocket'	pakihti	'to put a pocket on'
fung	'handle'	fungi	'to put a handle on'
sipuhr	'zipper'	sipuhri	'to put a zipper on'
kafa	'cover'	kafai	'to put a cover on'
winto	'window'	wintoi	'to put a window in'
kala	'collar'	kalai	'to put a collar on'

In the following sentences, transitive verbs derived from nouns that refer to component parts are used.

Ninac el *pakihti* tuhrasis luhk ah.
'Mother is putting a pocket on my trousers.'

Pahpah el *wintoi* lohm sesr ah.
'Father is putting a window (or windows) in our house.'

Nga ac *kalai* wes se luhk uh.
'I will put a collar on my shirt.'

When transitive verbs are derived from nouns that refer to containers, their meaning is 'to hold', or 'to contain'. The noun *fohtoh* 'basket' can be changed into a transitive verb *fohtohi*, which means 'to basket' or 'to put in a basket'. Some additional examples are provided below.

Nouns		*Transitive Verbs*	
ahluh	'bowl'	ahluhi	'to put in a bowl'
tuhp	'a container'	tuhpi	'to put in a container'
pack	'bag'	packi	'to put in a bag'
kuhp	'cup'	kuhpi	'to put in a cup'
piro	'bureau'	piroi	'to put in a bureau'
pohk	'box'	pohki	'to put in a box'

In the following sentences, transitive verbs derived from nouns which refer to containers are used.

Sepe el *packi* puk ah.
'Sepe is putting the books in a bag.'

Eltahl *tuhpi* ikoen pik soko ah.
'They are putting the pork in a container.'

Ninac el *pohki* rais ah.
'Mother is putting the rice in a box.'

When transitive verbs are derived from nouns that refer to materials or additives, they convey the meaning 'to add or to apply something to or over.' The noun *suka* 'sugar' is changed into a transitive verb with the addition of the transitivizing suffix *-i*; the derived transitive verb means 'to add sugar to'. *Sukai* can also have a figurative meaning of 'to coax' or 'to sweeten'. Some additional examples are listed below.

Nouns		*Transitive Verbs*	
laim	'lemon juice'	laimi	'to add lemon juice to'
puhk	'sand'	puhki	'to spread sand over'
fihkar	'pebble'	fihkari	'to spread pebbles over'
sohl	'salt'	sohli	'to salt'
sroal	'black dirt'	sroali	'to paint with *sroal*'
koltah	'coaltar'	koltahi	'to paint with coaltar'

In the following example sentences, transitive verbs derived from nouns that refer to materials or additives are used.

Nga ac *puhki* inum ah.
'I will spread sand on the kitchen floor.'

El wacna *sukai* kohfi nihmacl ah.
'He always puts sugar in his coffee.'

El *koltahi* sinkac sac.
'He is applying coaltar on the wall.'

When transitive verbs are derived from nouns that refer to units of measurement, the derived transitive verbs mean 'to change into'. The noun *auns* 'ounce', for example, can be changed into a transitive verb *aunsi*, which means 'to change something into ounces' or 'to measure by the ounce'. Some additional examples are provided below.

Nouns		*Transitive Verbs*	
fit	'feet'	fiti	'to change into feet'
			'to measure by feet'
yact	'yard'	yacti	'to change into yards'
			'to measure by the yard'
paun	'pound'	pauni	'to change into pounds'
			'to measure by the pound'
ins	'inch'	insi	'to change into inches'

In the example sentences below, the transitive verbs are derived from nouns which refer to units of measurement.

Sohn el *fiti* sahk soko ah.
'John is measuring the stick by in feet.'

Sohn el *fiti* lusac ke sahk soko ah.
'John is changing the length of the tree into feet.'

Ninac el *yacti* nuknuk se.
'Mother is measuring the cloth by the yard.'

Ninac el *yacti* lusac ke nuknuk se.
'Mother is changing the length of this cloth into yards.'

Adjectives into Transitive Verbs

5.1.2 Some adjectives can also be changed into transitive verbs with the transitivizing suffix *-i*. The derived transitive verbs mean 'to change something into a certain state'. The adjective *rangrang* 'yellow' can be changed into a transitive verb *rangrangi*, which means 'to change something into yellow'. Some additional examples are presented below:

Adjectives		*Transitive Verbs*	
folfol	'blue'	folfoli	'to make or dye blue'
maluh	'thirsty'	maluhi	'to make thirsty'
mukohl	'sour'	mukohli	'to make sour'
emwem	'sweet'	emwemi	'to sweeten'
sralahp	'wide'	sralahpi	'to widen'
loal	'deep'	loali	'to deepen'

In the following sentences, the transitive verbs are derived from adjectives.

Ninac el *folfoli* tuhrasis se luhk ah.
'Mother is dying my trousers blue.'

Sronot sac *loaliyac* infacl ah.
'The flood deepened the river.'

Sepe el *emwemelah* kof se nimuhk ah.
'Sepe sweetened my water.'

Transitive verbs derived from adjectives that describe human character, personality, or appearance can have a very special meaning when they are used with one of the directional suffixes. The adjective *suhlallacl* 'mean' or 'base' can be changed into a transitive verb with the suffix *-i*, as in *suhlallacli*. When the transitive verb is used with the suffix *-lah* 'away', it means 'mean man took away' Observe the following example sentence.

Muhtwacn sac *suhlallaclelah* puk sac.
'The mean woman took away the book.'

The adjective part of the transitive verb *suhlallacli* seems to be used to point out a certain person, while the idea of taking something away seems to be expressed by the directional suffix *-lah*.

Some additional examples are presented below.

Tuhlihk sacn *factelah* ma sac.
'The fat child took away the thing.'

Muhtwacn sac *kahtoelah* kom nuhtihk ah.
'The pretty woman took away my combs.'

Mwet sac *pusrohsrelah* mani lal ah.
'The stinking man took away his (or her) money.'

Tuhlihk muhtwacn se *tihpiselah* ring se lal Sepe ah.
'The ugly girl took away Sepe's ring.'

Tuhlihk sac *yohkelah* mitmit se nuhtihk ah.
'The big child took away my knife.'

DERIVATION OF TRANSITIVE VERBS WITH THE SUFFIX *-kihn*

5.2 The instrumental suffix *-kihn* can change nouns, adjectives, and intransitive verbs into transitive verbs. In what follows, we will examine the derived transitive verbs in terms of their meaning.

NOUNS INTO TRANSITIVE VERBS

5.2.1 The transitive verbs that are derived from nouns with the suffix *-kihn* can have one of the following meanings:

1. To use something as a substitute for
2. To treat or regard as
3. To use

The noun *ola* 'diaper' is changed, for example, into a transitive verb *olakihn*, which means 'to use something as a diaper'. Look at the following sentences.

Sepe el *olakihn* pwepuh se.
'Sepe is using a paper as a diaper.'

Nga *taholkihn* ipin nuknuk se.
'I use a piece of cloth as a towel.'

Met, mwet Kosrae uh *mitmitkihn* ful uh.
'Before, the Kusaiean people used the shell as a knife.'

The noun *pahpah* 'father' is changed into a transitive verb *pahpahkihn*, which means 'to regard or treat somebody as a father'. Look at the following sentences.

Kuht *pahpahkihn* mwet sac.
'We treat (or regard) the man as a father.'

Eltahl *sengseikihn* kom.
'They treat (or regard) you as a teacher.'

Sohn el *ninackihn* muhtwacn sac.
'John is treating (or regarding) the woman as a mother.'

In the examples sentences below, the derived transitive verbs can be translated as simply 'to use'. Notice that the object nouns and

the nouns from which the transitive verbs are derived are the same.

Kuht *tepuhkihn* tepuh se.
'We use a table.'

Nga *pinsuhlkihn* pinsuhl soko.
'I am using a pencil.'

Sepe el *mitmitkihn* mitmit sac.
'Sepe is using the knife.'

Eltahl *retiokihn* retio sac.
'They are using the radio.'

Adjectives into Transitive Verbs

5.2.2 Adjectives can also be changed into transitive verbs with the suffix *-kihn*. The meaning of the derived transitive verbs from adjectives can be either of the following.

1. To be in a certain state because of, or
2. To regard something as

Adjectives that denote human emotions or feelings can be changed into transitive verbs. The adjective *pwacr* 'glad' is changed into a transitive verb *pwacrkihn*, which means 'to be glad of'.

Some additional examples are presented below.

Adjectives		*Transitive Verbs*	
ahsor	'sad'	ahsorkihn	'sad at'
tuhpwek	'shy'	tuhpwekkihn	'shy of'
sensen	'worried'	sensenkihn	'worried about'
toasr	'depressed'	toasrkihn	'depressed with'
engan	'glad'	engankihn	'glad of'
tuhfal	'nervous'	tuhfalkihn	'nervous about'

Look at the following sentences in which some of the derived transitive verbs are used.

Muhtwacn sac *ahsorkihn* misac luhn mukul tuhmwacl ah.
'The woman is sad because of her husband's death.'

Tuhlihk ah *pwacrkihn* wanihsr laltahl ah.
'The kids are happy with the parcels.'

'Sepe el arlac *tuhpwekkihn* suhtuh se lal ah.
'Sepe is very ashamed of her mistake.'

Ninac el *sensenkihn* some se lal Kuhn ah.
'Mother is worried about Kuhn's departure.'

When adjectives other than the emotional adjectives are changed into transitive verbs with the suffix *-kihn*, the derived transitive verbs can be translated as 'to consider or regard as'. The adjective *fuhng* 'handsome' can be changed into a transitive verb *fuhngkihn*, which means to 'to consider something handsome'.

Some additional examples are presented below.

Adjectives		*Transitive Verbs*	
wo	'good'	wokihn	'to consider good'
kahto	'pretty'	kahtokihn	'to consider pretty'
fihsracsr	'easy'	fishracsrkihn	'to consider easy'
fohkfohk	'dirty'	fohkfohkkihn	'to regard as dirty'
puhlakfohn	'stupid'	puhlakfohnkihn	'to consider stupid'
lahlmwetmwet	'wise'	lahlmwetmwetkihn	'to consider wise'

In the following sentences, some of the derived transitive verbs are used.

Sohn el *wokihn* was se nge liki ma se ngoh.
'John considers this watch better than that one.'

Kain was se *luhngkihnyuhk* sin mukul uh.
'This kind of watch is regarded as good by the men.'
'The men like this kind of watch.'

Nga *kahtokihn* lohm uh liki lohm sihk ah.
'I consider this house prettier than my own.'

Sepe el *fihsracsrkihn* taip uh liki sihm uh.
'Sepe considers typing easier than writing.'

In the following example sentences, the objects of the derived transitive verbs are sentences introduced by the conjunction *lah*. (See 10.3.1, for the use of the conjunction as a complementizer.) The italicized parts are the objects of the transitive verbs.

Kuht puhlakfohnkihn lah *eltahl tiyac ut lacsac*.
'We consider it very stupid that they did not enter from the left.'

Nga lahlmwetmwetkihn lah *el tiyac macruhtlac nuh sin muhtwacn sac.*
'I consider it very wise that he did not marry the girl.'

INTRANSITIVE VERBS INTO TRANSITIVE VERBS

5.2.3 In addition to nouns and adjectives, intransitive verbs can also be changed into transitive verbs with the addition of the suffix *-kihn*. The intransitive verb *ahtu* 'to jump' becomes a transitive verb *ahtukihn* 'to jump with'. Look at the following additional examples.

Intransitive Verbs		*Transitive Verbs*	
kaheng	'to run away'	kahengkihn	'to run away with'
yok	'to plant'	yokkihn	'to plant with'
som	'to go'	somkihn	'to go with'
sihm	'to write'	sihmkihn	'to write with'
sasuh	'to catch'	sasuhkihn	'to catch with'
otwot	'to weave'	otwotkihn	'to weave with'
orek ma	'to work'	orek makihn	'to work with' ' to use'
owo	'to wash'	owokihn	'to wash with'

The objects of the derived transitive verbs denote tools, instruments or materials. Look at the following sentence.

Nga *owokihn* { suhkan top ah. / sop ah. }

'I am washing with { the pounding stick.' / the soap.' }

The noun *suhkan top ah* 'the pounding stick' denotes a tool by which the action of washing is carried out, whereas the noun *sop ah* 'the soap' denotes a material with which the action is carried out. Some further examples are presented below.

Nga *yuhnkihn* ros ma sruhsrah uh.
'I am adorning (something) with flowers which are red.'

Kom kuh in *ikackkihn* kain ki se.
'You can open with this kind of key.'

Sohn el *kahkkihn* ah soko.
'John is tying (something) with a rope.'

DERIVATION OF TRANSITIVE VERBS: CAUSATIVIZATION

5.3 The causative prefix *ahk-*, together with the transitivizing suffix *-ye*, can change certain nouns, adjectives, and intransitive verbs into transitive verbs. The term **causativization** is used because the primary meaning of the transitive verbs derived from words of other parts of speech with the prefix *ahk-* and the suffix *-ye* conveys the idea of causing somebody to do something or causing something to be in a certain state. But the meaning 'to cause' is not the only meaning of the causative verbs. Besides 'to cause', the idea of 'to make', 'to force', or 'to give' is also conveyed by the causative transitive verbs.

In what follows the causative verbs derived from nouns, adjectives, and intransitive verbs will be examined separately in terms of meaning.

Nouns into Transitive Verbs

5.3.1 The general meaning of causative verbs that are derived from nouns is 'to give something to', 'to apply something to', or 'to add something to'. The noun *mongo* 'food', for instance, can be changed into a causative verb *ahkmongoye*, which means 'to give food to' or 'to fertilize'. Look at the following sentence in which *ahkmongoye* is used.

Pahpah el *ahkmongoye* usr ah.
'Father is giving food to the banana trees.'
'Father is fertilizing the banana trees.'

To take another example, the noun *lap* 'a paint' is changed into a causative verb *ahklapye* 'to apply paint to'. Look at the following sentence.

Sohn el *ahklapyelah* oak okoacl ah.
'John applied paint to his canoe.'
'John painted his canoe.'

However, the derived causative verbs from nouns is subject to another interpretation. In the sentence above, the one who paints the canoe is *John*. So John is the **doer** or the **performer** of the action. But *John* can be interpreted as a **causer**, and the sentence can be translated as 'John had somebody paint his canoe', or 'John had his canoe painted (by somebody)'.

Look at the following additional examples. Two translations are given for each example sentence.

Nga *ahkmilyeack* kohfi nimuhk uh.
'I added some milk to the coffee
'I had some milk added to my coffee.'

Eltahl *ahkusryelah* acn se noh fohn.
'They added banana trees to the land.' 'They planted some more banana trees in the land.'
'They had some more banana trees planted in the land.'

Eltahl *ahkmwetyeyuh*.
'They give a face to me.' 'They respect me.'
'They made me respected.'

Adjectives into Transitive Verbs

5.3.2 The usual meaning of causative verbs derived from adjectives is to cause something to be in a certain state. The adjective *rangrang* 'yellow' can be changed into a causative transitive verb *ahkrangrangye* 'to make yellow or yellower'. Look at the following sentence, in which the causative verb *ahkrangrangye* is used.

Ninac el *ahkrangrangyelah* nuknuk ah.
'Mother caused the clothes to be yellow.'

The causative verb *ahkrangrangye* can be ambiguous and it can be translated in two different ways. In one interpretation, the sentence means that mother caused the clothes to be yellow (by leaving them outside). The change took place accidentally. In another interpretation, the sentence means that mother caused the clothes to be yellow (by dyeing them, for example.) The change was brought about intentionally. Most of the causative transitive verbs derived from adjectives can have two interpretations: accidental and intentional.

Look at the following additional examples in which the causative transitive verbs derived from adjectives are used.

Muhtwacn wiyuhk ah *ahkfasrfasryelah* wes luhk ah.
'My sister caused my shirt to be white.'
'My sister made my shirt white.'

Tuhlihk srihsrihk ah *ahkfohkfohkyeack* lohm sihk ah.
'The children caused (or made) my house to become dirty.'

Sronot sac *ahknwacsnwacsyelah* infacl soko ah.
'The flood caused the river to be clear.'

Ros ah *ahkkahtoyeack* lohm se sel Linton ah.
'The flowers made Lindon's house pretty.'

INTRANSITIVE VERBS INTO TRANSITIVE VERBS

5.3.3 The meanings of causative verbs derived from intransitive verbs are varied. Besides the idea of causing, the idea of forcing somebody to do something is also conveyed by the causative verbs derived from intransitive verbs. For instance, the intransitive verb *osak* 'to limp' is changed into *ahkosakye* 'to cause to limp' or 'to force to limp'. Look at the following sentence in which the causative verb is used.

Sohn el *ahkosakye* tuhlihk se.
'John caused the girl to limp.'
'John forced the girl to limp.'

The sentence above can be interpreted in several different ways. One interpretation means that John caused the girl to limp by wounding the child's leg, for example. In another interpretation, it means that John forced the girl to limp by commanding her to do so. Look at the following additional examples.

Ninac el *ahkmutulyeack* tuhlihk sac na pa nga tuhkuh.
'Mother put the child to sleep and then I arrived.'

El pa *ahknihmnihmyeyuhyak* uh.
'He is the one that caused (or forced) me to drink.'

Nga pa *ahkmarasongyaclack* uh.
'I made (or caused or forced) him to run a marasong.'

DERIVATION OF PASSIVE FORMS

5.4 Transitive verbs can be changed into passive verbs, which are intransitive verbs with the addition of the suffix *-yuhk*. The transitive verb *srihngihl* 'to hit' or 'to slap' can be changed into the passive verb *srihngihlyuhk* 'to be hit' or 'to be slapped'. Some further examples of passive forms of the transitive verbs are presented below.

Transitive Verbs		*Passive Forms*	
ikol	'to stop'	ikolyuhk	'to be stopped'
akihlen	'to notice'	akihlenyuhk	'to be noticed'
otwe	'to weave'	otweyuhk	'to be woven'
uke	'to chase'	ukeyuhk	'to be chased'
uni	'to kill'	uniyuhk	'to be killed'
usruk	'to shake'	usrukyuhk	'to be shaken'

The passive forms of the transitive verbs make it possible to express the same idea in two slightly different ways. The two sentences below express basically the same idea, although the transitive verb is used in the first sentence and the passive form is used in the second sentence.

Tuhlihk sacn *tuhlakihn* pinsuhl nuhtihk ah.
'That child is snatching my pencils.'

Pinsuhl nuhtihk ah *tuhlakihnyuhk* sin tuhlihk sacn.
'My pencils are being snatched by that child.'

Comparing the two sentences above, we nōtice the following differences. First, the subject of the first sentence appears after the preposition *sin* in the second sentence. Second, the object of the transitive verb *tuhlakihn* 'to snatch' in the first sentence appears as the subject of the second sentence. Some further examples are presented below. Transitive verbs are used in the first sentences and the passive forms are used in the second sentences of the following pairs.

Nga *pahtuhreack* siifac se.
'I caught a ray fish.'

Siifac se *patreyuhkyak*.
'A ray fish was caught.'

Sohn el *ikolyac* tuhlihk ah.
'John stopped the children.'

Tuhlihk ah *ikolyuhki*.
'The children were stopped.'

Nga *akihlenyac* acn sac.
'I marked the place.'

Akihlenyuhki acn sac.
'The place was marked.'

Ninac el *otwelah* fohtoh see.
'Mother wove a basket.'

Otweyuhklac fohtoh se.
'A basket woven.'

In the preceding three sections (5.1–3) we observed that nouns, adjectives, and intransitive verbs can become transitive verbs with the addition of

1. the causative prefix *ahk-* and the suffix- *ye*, as in *ahkkahtoye* 'to make pretty' or *ahkkahlwemye* 'to make clear',

2. the instrumental suffix *-kihn* as in *owokihn* 'to wash with' or *ahsorkihn* 'to be sad at', and
3. the transitivizing suffix *-i* as in *laki* 'to lock' or *kuhpi* 'to put in a cup'.

The passive suffix *-yuhk* can be used with the derived transitive verbs in the same way as the regular transitive verbs.

The intransitive verb *mutul* 'to sleep' becomes a causative transitive verb *ahkmutulye* 'to make one sleep'. The derived transitive verb can be changed into a passive form *ahkmutulye-yuhk* 'to be put to sleep'. Some additional examples are presented below.

Derived Transitive Verbs	*Passive Forms*
ahkfototoye 'to make short'	ahkfototoyeyuhk 'to be made short'
ahksramsramye 'to force to talk'	ahksramsramyeyuhk 'to be forced to talk'
ahksroksrokye 'to make wet'	ahksroksrokyeyuhk 'to be made wet'
ahkaenye 'to force to iron'	ankaenyeyuhk 'to be forced to iron'

In the first sentences below derived transitive verbs are used; in the second sentences the passive forms of the derived verbs are used.

Sohn el *ahkofototoyelah* sahk soko.
'John made the stick short.'

Ahkfototoyeyuhklac sahk soko.
'The stick was made short.'

Nga *ahkaenye* tuhlihk sac.
'I forced the child to iron.'

Tuhlihk sac *ahkaenyeyuhk*.
'The child was forced to iron.'

The transitive verb *owokihn* 'to wash with' is derived from the intransitive verb *owo* 'to wash', with the addition of the suffix *-kihn*. The derived transitive verb *owokihn* can be changed into a passive form *owokihnyuhk* 'to be washed with'. Any derived transitive verb with the suffix *-kihn* can have a passive form. Some additional examples are provided below.

Derived Transitive Verbs	*Passive Forms*
kakuhkihn 'to scratch with'	kakuhkihnyuhk 'to be scratched with'

ahsorkihn 'to be sad at'	ahsorkihnyuhk 'to be a cause of sadness'
tatuhkihn 'to weave with'	tatuhkihnyuhk 'to be woven with'
otwotkihn 'to weave with'	otwotkihnyuhk 'to be woven with'
kahtokihn 'to consider pretty'	kahtokihnyuhk 'to be considered pretty'

Look at the following pairs of example sentences. In the first sentences, the transitive verbs are used. In the second sentences, the passive forms are used.

1. Mwet Kosrae uh *kahtokihn* kain lohm se liki kain lohm sacn.
   'The Kusaieans consider this kind of house prettier than that kind of house.'
2. *Kahtokihnyuhk* kain lohm se liki kain lohm sacn sin mwet Kosrae uh.
   'This kind of house is considered prettier than that kind of house by the Kusaieans.'

1. Eltahl otwotkuhnlah sroacnu ah.
   'They used up all the coconut leaves in weaving.'
2. Sroacnu ah otwotkihnyuhklac.
   'The coconut leaves were used up in weaving.'

The transitive verb *laimi* 'to apply lemon juice to' is derived from the noun *laim* 'lemon juice'. The derived transitive verb *laimi* can be changed into a passive form *laimiyuhk* 'to be applied with lemon juice'. Look at the following additional examples.

Derived Transitive Verbs	*Passive Forms*
tahtahi 'to saw'	tahtahiyuhk 'to be sawed'
laki 'to lock'	lakiyuhk 'to be locked'
sahfuhli 'to shovel'	sahfuhliyuhk 'to be shoveled'
ringi 'to ring'	ringiyuhk 'to be ringed'
tuhrami 'to put in a drum'	tuhramiyuhk 'to be put in a drum'

Two pairs of sentences are presented below. In the first sentence,

the derived transitive verb is used; in the second, the passive form is used.

1. Nga *lakiyac* sruhnguhl sac.
   'I locked the door.'
2. *Lakiyuhki* sruhnguhl sac.
   'The door is locked.'
1. Eltahl *tuhramiyac* ikoen pik ah.
   'They put the pork in a drum.'
2. *Tuhramiyuhki* ikoen pik ah.
   'The pork was put in a drum.'

DERIVATION OF ADJECTIVES

5.5

Transitive Verbs into Adjectives

5.5.1 The suffix *-twen* can change some transitive verbs into adjectives. The transitive verbs that can take the suffix *-twen* are very limited in number. The following transitive verbs take the suffix *-twen*.

Transitive Verbs		*Adjectives*	
ngusrok	'to smell'	ngusroktwen	'good at smelling'
sauk	'to catch'	sauktwen	'good at catching' 'smart'
lohng	'to hear'	lohngtwen	'good at hearing'
ahkos	'to obey'	ahkostwen	'obedient'
kona	'to discover'	konatwen	'good at finding'
esam	'to remember'	esamtwen	'good at remembering'
liye	'to see'	liyetwen	'good at seeing'
sruok	'to hold'	sruoktwen	'good at holding'
ema	'to taste'	ematwen	'good at tasting'
puhla	'to feel'	puhlatwen	'good at feeling'
etuh	'to know'	etatwen	'understanding'
nihkihn	'not to know'	nakantwen	'selfish'

The last vowel of the verb *etuh* 'to know' is changed into *a* when it is followed by the suffix *-twen*. The vowel *ih* in *nihkihn* 'not to know' is also changed into *a*.

The derived adjectives can be used both as predicates or as modifiers. In the first sentences below, derived adjectives are used as predicates, and in the second sentences they are used as modifiers.

1. Kosro uh arlac *ngusroktwen.*
   'The dogs are very good at smelling.'
2. Kosro *ngusroktwen* soko pa nahtuhl Kuhn ah.
   'Kuhn's dog is very good at smelling.'
1. Sohn el arlac *sauktwen.*
   'John is adept in catching (things).' or 'John is very smart.'
2. Tuhlihk na *sauktwen* se pa el.
   'He is a child adept in catching.' 'He is a very smart child.'
1. Sohn el arlac *lohngtwen.*
   'John is very good at hearing.'
2. Tuhlihk *lohngtwen* se pa Sah.
   'Sah is a very good child at hearing.'

Nouns into Adjectives

5.5.2 Nouns can become adjectives when they are reduplicated. This process of changing nouns into adjectives is discussed in 5.12.2.4 where reduplication is treated.

DERIVATION OF NOUNS

5.6 The suffix *-iyac* is used to change adjectives and transitive verbs into nouns. The term **nominalization** refers to the process of changing adjectives and transitive verbs into nouns. In what follows, we will discuss nouns derived from adjectives and transitive verbs in terms of meaning, form, and function.

Adjectives into Nouns

5.6.1 The adjective *upac* 'difficult' can be changed into a noun *upaciyac* 'hardness' or 'difficulty'. Since derived nouns can be used with the possessive pronoun suffixes like the inalienable nouns, the derived noun *upaciyac* can have the following suffixed forms.

upaciyac	'difficulty' (impersonal form)
upaciyuhk	'my difficulty'
upaciyom	'my difficulty'
upaciyacl	'his (or her) difficulty'
upaciyacsr	'our difficulty'
upaciyen	'difficulty of'

Notice that the final vowel *ac* in *upaciyac* changes to *uh* before the first person suffix, *o* before the second person suffix, and *e* before the construct suffix.

Observe the following additional examples of derived nouns from adjectives. The impersonal forms will be used for nouns.

Adjectives		*Nouns*	
emwem	'sweet'	emwemiyac	'sweetness'
ahsor	'sad'	ahsoriyac	'sadness'
paho	'dry'	pahoiyac	'dryness'
puhlaik	'brave'	puhlaikiyac	'bravery'
tuhfal	'nervous'	tuhfaliyac	'nervousness'
kweng	'fragrant'	kwengiyac	'fragrance'
fihsracsr	'easy'	fihsracsriyac	'ease'

The nouns derived from adjectives make it possible to change a whole sentence into a noun phrase. (See 6.1 for the definition of noun phrase and the different types of noun phrases.) In the following examples, what is expressed by the first sentence is essentially expressed by the (italicized) subject noun phrase of the second sentence.

1. Orekma sac upac.
   'The work is difficult.'
2. *Upaciyen orekma sac* ahkulyeyuh.
   'The difficulty of the work made me tired.'

What is expressed by the first sentence below is essentially expressed by the (italicized) subject noun phrase of the second sentence.

1. Muhtwacn sacn kasrkuhsrak sihk.
   'That woman got angry because of me.'
2. *Kasrkuhsrakiyen muhtwacn sacn sihk* oruh el puokyuhwi.
   'That woman's madness at me made her hit me.'

In some cases, nouns derived from adjectives seem to remain adjectives in meaning although their forms are nouns. The following examples can be translated in two different ways.

Mahn lohm sac
'The oldness of the house' or 'the old house'

Kahtoiyen tuhlihk muhtwacn sac
'The beauty of the girl' or 'the pretty girl'

Toasriyen enuh soko ah
'The heaviness of the pole' or 'the heavy pole'

Derived Adjectives into Nouns

5.6.2 There are two processes of deriving adjectives from nouns and transitive verbs. The noun *mah* 'grass' becomes an adjective when it is reduplicated, as in *mahmah* 'grassy'. (See 5.12.2.4, for further examples.) The transitive verb *liye* 'to see' becomes an adjective with the addition of the adjectivizer *-twen*, as in *liyetwen* 'good at seeing'. (See 5.5.1, for further examples.) The derived adjectives can also be changed into nouns *mahmahiyac* 'grassiness' and *liyetweniyac* 'goodness at seeing', respectively. As the two examples suggest, any derived adjective can be changed into nouns with the suffix *-iyac*. Some examples are presented below.

Adjectives Derived from Nouns		*Derived Nouns*	
fohkfohk	'dirty'	fohkfohkiyac	'dirtiness'
emwem	'sweet'	emwemiyac	'sweetness'
puhkpuhk	'sandy'	puhkpuhkiyac	'sandiness'
fasrfasr	'white'	fasrfasriyac	'whiteness'
koakoa	'stringy'	koakoaiyac	'stringiness'
lahlah	'branchy'	lahlahiyac	'branchiness'
ngusroktwen	'good at smelling'	ngusroktweniyac	'adeptness in smelling'
sauktwen		sauktweniyac	

Adjectives Derived from Transitive Verbs	*Derived Nouns*
'good at actching'	'adeptness in catching'
lohngtwen 'good at hearing'	lohngtweniyac 'adeptness in hearing'
esamtwen 'good at remembering'	esamtweniyac 'adeptness in remembering'
konatwen 'good at discovering'	konatweniyac 'adeptness in discovering'

In the following sentences, the derived nouns are used.

Emwemiyen suka uh emwem liki *emwemiyen* muhlasrihsr uh.
'The sweetness of sugar is sweeter than that of molasses.'

Fohkfohkiyen fahluhk se lom an, nga tiyac luhngse.
'The dirtiness of your shoes I do not like.'

Nga fahk *ngusroktweniyen* kosro uh.
'I am talking about the dog's sensitiveness in smelling.'

Sauktweniyen tuhlihk uh pa kuht sruhmuhn uh.
'The child's smartness is what we are talking about.'

Lohngtweniyen tuhlihk uh arlac wo.
'The child's sensitiveness in hearing is very good.'

Transitive Verbs into Nouns

5.6.3 The suffix *-iyac* can also change transitive verbs into nouns. The transitive verb *pahtok* 'to push', for example, can be changed into a noun *pahtokiyac* 'pushing'. The derived noun *pahtokiyac* can be used with the possessive suffixes. The suffixed forms are presented below.

pahtokiyac	'pushing' (impersonal form)
pahtokiyuhk	'pushing of me'
pahtokiyom	'pushing of you'
pahtokiyacl	'pushing of him'
pahtokiyacsr	'pushing of us'
pahtokiyen	'pushing of'

Some additional examples of nouns derived from transitive verbs are presented below, together with the transitive verbs.

Transitive Verbs		*Derived Nouns*	
kahl	'to touch'	kahliyac	'touching'
tol	'to throw'	toliyac	'throwing'
topuk	'to answer'	topukiyac	'answering'
twem	'to sharpen'	twemiyac	'sharpening'
tihngihl	'to constrict'	tihngihliyac	'tightening'
poheli	'to boil'	poheliyac	'boiling'

Changing transitive verbs into nouns makes it possible to express the idea which a sentence can express in a noun phrase. Let us look at the following set of sentences. Basically what is expressed in the first sentence is expressed in the (italicized) subject noun phrase of the second sentence.

Sah el yukiyac acn sac ke mos ah.
'Sah planted the field with the breadfruit trees.'

Yukiyen acn sac ke mos ah sel Sah ah arlac wo.
'Sah's planting of the field with the breadfruit trees is very good.'

Comparing the first sentence above with the subject noun phrase of the second sentence, we note the following differences. *Sah*, which is the subject of the first sentence, appears after the preposition *sel* 'by'. The object of the verb *yuki* 'to plant' of the first sentence appears after the construct suffix *-n*.

Some additional pairs of example sentences are presented below. Compare the first sentences with the italicized parts of the second sentences.

1. Kuhn el ituhng pahsruhk sacn.
'Kuhn is pressing that taro.'

2. *Ituhngiyen pahsruhk sacn sel Kuhn* arlac kuluk.
'Kuhn's pressing of that taro is very bad.'

1. Sah inihm oak soko ah ke tin se.
'Sah is bailing the canoe with a can.'

2. *Inihmiyen oak soko ah sel Sah ke tin se* eslah pacl.
'Sah's bailing of the canoe with a can took time.'

1. Sah el kuhretyac lwacta se.
'Sah wrote a letter.'

2. Nga sruhnga *kuhretiyen lwacta sac sel Sah.*
'I do not like Sah's writing of a letter.'

Derived Transitive Verbs into Nouns

5.6.4 There are three types of derived transitive verbs which are derived from words of other parts of speech such as nouns, adjectives, or intransitive verbs. (See 5.1–3, for details.) The derived transitive verbs can also be changed into derived nouns like the regular transitive verbs.

The transitive verb *twetwekihn* 'to sharpen with' is derived from the intransitive verb *twetwe* 'to sharpen'. The derived transitive verb can become a noun *twetwekihniyac* 'sharpening with'. Any transitive verbs which are derived with the addition of the suffix *-kihn* can be changed into nouns. Some additional examples are presented below.

Transitive Verbs Derived with kihn	*Derived Nouns*
owokihn	owokihniyac
'to wash with'	'washing with'

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Transitive Verbs Derived with kihn	*Derived Nouns*
kakuhkihn 'to scratch with'	kakuhkihniyac 'scratching with'
falfalkihn 'to split with'	falfalkihniyac 'splitting with'
patpuhtkihn 'to hammer with'	patpuhtkihniyac 'hammering with'

In the following sentences, the derived nouns above are used in sentences.

Twetwekihniyen yot uh enenuh kof.
'Sharpening with the stone requires water.'

Falfalkihniyen mitmit uh arlac upac.
'Splitting with a knife is very difficult.'

Fulohfohlkihniyen puhkuhn ne uh wo liki srwe ne uh.
'Squeezing with the hibiscus bark is better than squeezing with the coconut leaf.'

Owokihniyen sop uh, fin yohklac, arlac kuluk.
'Washing with the soap, if the soap is used too much, will be very bad.'

The transitive verb *yacti* 'to measure by the yard' is derived from the noun *yact* 'yard'. The derived transitive verb *yacti* can be changed into a derived noun *yactiyac* 'measuring by the yard'. Any transitive verbs which are derived from nouns with the addition of the suffix *i* can be changed into nouns. Look at the following additional examples.

Transitive Verbs Derived with i	*Derived Nouns*
laki 'to lock with'	lakiyac 'locking'
puhki 'to spread sand on'	puhkiyac 'spreading sand on'
pakihti 'to put a pocket on'	pakihtiyac 'putting a pocket on'
sahfuhli 'to shovel'	sahfuhliyac 'shoveling'
sohli 'to salt'	sohliyac 'salting'

In the following sentences, the derived nouns are used.

Lakiyen sruhnguhl sac kuluk orweiyac.
'The way of locking the door is not good.'

Puhkiyen inum uh mihnini.
'Spreading of the sand over the kitchen floor is too thin.'

Pakihtiyen turasis se lom an tiyac fihsracsr.
'Putting a pocket on your trousers is not easy.'

Nga sruhnga *sahfuhliyen* fohk uh.
'I do not like the shoveling of the dirt.'

Sohliyen kain ik se enenuh in sihpsihpi.
'Salting this kind of fish requires (the fish) to be sliced.'

The transitive verb *ahkkahtoye* 'to make pretty' is derived from the adjective *kahto* 'pretty'. The derived transitive verb *ahkkahtoye* can be changed into *ahkkahtoyeiyac* 'making pretty'. The derived noun *ahkkahtoyeiyac* has some variant forms. The suffix *ye* can be deleted before the nominalizing suffix *-iyac*, as in *ahkkahtoiyac*, or the first vowel *i* of *iyac* can be deleted after the suffix *-ye*, as in *ahkkahtoyeyac*. The suffix *-ye* and the first vowel *i* of the suffix *-iyac* can be deleted, as in *ahkkahtoyen*. Any transitive verbs derived with the prefix *ahk-* and the suffix *-ye* can be changed into nouns. Some examples are presented below.

Transitive Verbs Derived with ahk	*Derived Nouns*
ahkfolotye 'to make dense'	ahkofolotyeiyen 'making dense'
ahkfototoye 'to make short'	ahkfototoyeiyen 'making short'
ahkfulfulye 'to make sticky'	ahkfulfulyeiyen 'making sticky'
ahkkihrisye 'to make greasy'	ahkkihrisyeiyen 'making greasy'
ahkalkenye 'to make diligent'	ahkalkenyeiyen 'making diligent'

The derived nouns above have variant forms like the noun *ahkfolotyeiyen*, which has the following variant forms.

ahkfolotyeiyen	ahkfolotyeyen
ahkfolotyen	ahkfolotiyen

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The subjects of the following sentences are derived nouns.

Ahkkahtoiyen lohm uh sonna sahflah.
'Decorating the house has not been finished yet.'

Ahkfolotyeiyen sup sacn arlac pahtlac.
'Thickening of that soup takes time.'

Ahkfototoiyen ah soko an efuh pahtlac?
'Why is the shortening of the rope taking so much time?'

RECIPROCALIZATION

5.7

With Intransitive Verbs

5.7.1 The reciprocal prefix *a-* is used to change certain words into a type of intransitive verb called **reciprocal intransitive verbs**. When the reciprocal prefix *a-* is used, the suffix *-i* is also commonly used, although its function is not understood clearly. The term **reciprocalization** is used because, basically, reciprocal verbs express a reciprocal or mutual action or relation. The intransitive verb *puopo* 'to hit' is changed, for instance, into a reciprocal verb *apuopoi* 'to hit each other'. When a reciprocal intransitive verb is used in a sentence, the subject must be plural. A reciprocal action or relation can take place between two or more than two objects or persons.

Although the term **reciprocal** is used, the meaning of reciprocal verbs is not confined to the idea of reciprocal action or relation. They can have some extended meanings such as taking turns in doing something, sharing an action, doing something together, or competing in doing certain things. In what follows, some example sentences will be presented to illustrate the different meanings of the reciprocal verbs.

In the following example sentences, the reciprocal verbs denote reciprocal actions of give and take.

Macrike ac Sacpacinis *amweuni* ke 1942.
'America and Japan fought against each other in 1942.'

Tuhlihk luo ah *apahyuhki* pacl inge.
'The two kids are married to each other now.'

Mwet kihristin uh *apahkotweni* sie sin sie.
'The Christians are kind to one another.'

Eltahl wac na *amuhtwactai*.
'They are always visiting each other.'

Sohn ac Sepe eltahl *afohlkahsi* sie sin sie.
'John and Sepe are talking back to each other.'

Sah Nwenah *afutfuti* sie sin sie.
'Sah and Nwenah are kicking each other.'

Kuht muhta na *anguhsri* sie sin sie.
'We keep on borrowing from each other.'

Eltahl *ainsroaclilac* tari.
'They washed each other.'

Kuht *akahskahsi* ke retio ah.
'We are talking to each other about the radio.'

In the following sentences, the reciprocal verbs express the idea of taking turns in doing certain things.

Eltahl *apahpahi*.
'They take turns in fanning.'
'They fanned taking turns.'

Kuht *amanman iki* ke mwe manman se.
'We take turns cooking fish on the stove.'
'We cooked fish on the stove, taking turns.'

Eltahl *ariti*.
'They take turns in reading.'
'They read taking turns.'

Kuht *anihmnihmi* ke kuhp se.
'We take turns in drinking from the cup.'
'We drank from the cup taking turns.'

Tuhlihk ah eltahl toeni *apattai* ke patta soko.
'They are batting with one bat taking turns.'
'They take turns in batting with one bat.'

In the following sentences, the reciprocal verbs express the idea of sharing an action or doing something together.

Kuht *apingpongi*.
'We are playing Pingpong together.'

Eltahl *apolongilac* ke pik soko ah som.
'They carried the pig on a pole (together.)'

Eltahl *apwacpai* na nga fahsruh.
'They were discussing together and left.'

Eltahl *apahspahs* ke nga fahk nuh seltahl pweng wo sac.
'They clapped together when I told about the good news.'

In the following sentences, the reciprocal verbs denote the idea of competition. Notice that the reciprocal verbs are derived from

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intransitive verbs whose meaning is related to playing such games as Pingpong, baseball, and volley ball.

Kuht *ayakkyui.*
'We are playing baseball against each other.'
'We are competing each other with in baseball.'

Kuht *apingpoingi.*
'We are playing Pingpong against each other.'
'We are competing with each other in Pingpong.'

Eltahl *faluhpohli.*
'They are playing volley ball against each other.'
'They are competing with each other in volley ball.'

With Transitive Verbs

5.7.2 The reciprocal prefix *a-* and its accompanying suffix *-i* are usually used with intransitive verbs. But some transitive verbs such as those listed below can be used with this set of affixes.

Transitive Verbs		*Reciprocal Verbs*	
liye	'to see'	aliyei	'to see each other'
etuh	'to know'	aetuhi	'to know each other'
lohng	'to hear'	alohngi	'to listen to each other'
esam	'to remember'	aesami	'to remember each other'
luhngse	'to love'	aluhngsei	'to love each other'
kihsruhng	'to collide'	akihsruhngi	'to collide with each other'

However, the transitive verbs above lose their transitive character and function like intransitive verbs. The verbs *liye* 'to see' is transitive and an object must be used as we can see in the sentence below. The italicized part is the object.

Sohn el liye *muhtwacn sac.*
'John saw the woman.'

The corresponding reciprocal verb is an intransitive verb and it can not take any object. Observe the following sentence. No object is used.

Sohn ac muhtwacn sac *aliyei.*
'John and the woman are looking at each other.'

Look at the following additional examples.

Kuht *aetuhi.*
'We know each other.'

Eltahl *aluhngsei.*
'They love each other.'

Kuht *aesami.*
'We remember each other.'

WITH ADJECTIVES

5.7.3 Adjectives can also undergo reciprocalization. When emotional adjectives undergo reciprocalization, the idea of sharing an emotion or an experience is predominant. Look at the following examples.

Kuht *apwacri.*
'We are all happy.'

Eltahl *aengani.*
'They are all glad.'

Kuht *aahsori.*
'We are all sad.'

DERIVATION OF NEGATIVE WORDS

5.8 The prefix *se-* can be used with adjectives, intransitive verbs, and with a few transitive verbs to change the meaning into a negative one. But the prefix does not change the parts of speech.

ADJECTIVES INTO NEGATIVE ADJECTIVES

5.8.1 The adjective *engan* 'happy' can be used the prefix *se-* as in *seengan* 'unhappy'. Most adjectives can be used with the prefix. Here are some additional examples.

Adjectives		*Negative Adjectives*	
sensen	'worried'	sesensen	'not worried'
pihsrpihsr	'quick'	sepihsrpihsr	'not quick'
fuhng	'handsome'	sefuhng	'not handsome'
yuh	'delicious'	seyuh	'not delicious'
fuhlwact	'high'	sefuhlwact	'not high'
suwohs	'straight'	sesuwohs	'not straight'
sranom	'juicy'	sesranom	'not juicy'

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Adjectives		*Negative Adjectives*	
los	'pretty'	selos	'not pretty'
emwem	'sweet'	seemwem	'not sweet'
kweng	'fragrant'	sekweng	'not fragrant'
kahlwem	'clear'	sekahlwen	'not clear'
fas	'enough'	sefas	'not enough'
lahlkuhng	'smart'	selahlkuhng	'not bright'
loal	'deep'	seloal	'not deep'
oaru	'faithful'	seoaru	'not faithful'

The negative prefix *se-* has the following variant forms: *suh-*, *so-*, *soh-*, and *si-*. When the first vowel of an adjective is either *ah* or *a*, the form *suh-* can be used. Look at the following pairs.

sekahlwem	or	*suh*kahlwem	'not bright'
sekahto	or	*suh*kahto	'not pretty'
sefas	or	*suh*fas	'not enough'
sefal	or	*suh*fal	'not suitable'

When the first vowel of an adjective is *o*, the form *so* can be used. Look at the following pairs.

seloal	or	s*o*loal	'not deep'
seoaru	or	s*oo*aru	'not faithful'
selos	or	s*o*los	'not pretty'

When the first vowel of an adjective is *oh*, the form *soh-* can be used. The adjective *lohsr* 'dark' has the vowel *oh*, so the negative form can be either *selohsr* or *sohlohsr* 'not dark'.

When the first vowel of an adjective is either *e*, *i* or *ih*, the form *si-* can be used. The negative form of *sensen* 'worried' can be either *sisensen* or *sesensen* 'not worried'. The negative form of *pihsrpihsr* 'quick' can be either *sepihsrpihsr* or *sipihsrpihsr* 'not quick'.

Intransitive Verbs into Negative Intransitive Verbs

5.8.2 The intransitive verb *akuhkuhin* 'to quarrel' can take the negative prefix *se-* as in *seakuhkuhin*, which means 'not apt, tending or disposed to quarrel'. When intransitive verbs are used with the prefix *se-*, they describe a negative inherent nature. Some additional examples of negative intransitive verbs are presented below.

Intransitive Verbs	*Negative Intransitive Verbs*
ahluhlluhl 'to sing'	seahluhlluhl 'not apt to sing'
kihsen siyuhk 'to ask (questions)	sekihsen siyuhk 'not disposed to ask'
pahtuhr 'to fish'	sepahtuhr 'not apt to fish'
nguhsrnguhsr 'to borrow'	senguhsrnguhsr 'not apt to borrow'
ayaol 'to change'	seayaol 'not disposed to change'
fohl kahs 'to talk back'	sefohlkahs 'not apt to talk back'
ahksruhksruhk 'to joke'	seahksruhksruhk 'not disposed to joke'

TRANSITIVE VERBS INTO NEGATIVE TRANSITIVE VERBS

5.8.3 The transitive verbs listed below are found to take the negative prefix *se-*.

Transitive Verbs	*Negative Transitive Verbs*
akihlen 'to notice'	seakihlen 'tend not to notice'
ngihsre 'to beg'	sengihsre 'tend not to beg'
ahkos 'to obey'	seahkos 'tend not to obey'
karongo 'to listen to'	sekarongo 'tend not to listen to'
luhlahlfongi 'to believe'	seluhlahlfongi 'tend not to believe'

In the following sentences, the negative transitive verbs are used.

Kuht *seakihlen* mwet forfor ngoh.
'We did not recognize those men over there.'

Kuht *sekarongo* ma el sruhmuhn ah pa oruh kuht kuf.
'We did not heed what he said, which made us lose.'

El kain mwet se ma *sengihsre* mwet ah.
'He is the kind of man that seldom borrow from people.'

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DERIVATION OF LOCATIVE NOUNS

5.9 The prefix *in-* adds a concept of location to the noun to which it is attached. The resulting noun can thus be called a **locative noun**. (See 4.1.2.3, for the definition and use of the locative nouns.) Nouns that belong to the following sets can usually take the prefix *in-*.

1. Nouns referring to plants
2. Nouns referring to body parts
3. Nouns referring to geographical features

The meaning of a locative noun that is formed by the prefix *in-* varies, depending upon the particular noun. Some of the different meanings that result will be examined.

PLANT NAMES

5.9.1 When the prefix *in-* is used with nouns referring to plants, the resulting locative nouns mean 'the inside of . . .' or '. . . patch, grove or field'. The noun *es* 'papaya' can be changed into a locative noun *ines* which means 'the inside of the papaya' or 'papaya grove'. Some additional examples are presented below.

Nouns		*Locative Nouns*	
usr	'banana'	inusr	'the inside of a banana' 'banana plantation'
macngko	'mango'	inmacngko	'the inside of a mango' 'mango grove'
kuhtak	'taro'	inkuhtak	'the inside of a taro' 'taro patch'
muh	'orange'	inmuh	'the inside of an orange' 'orange field'
muhtah	'yam'	inmuhtah	'the inside of a yam' 'yam field'
tacnsurin	'tangerine'	intacnsurin	'the inside of a tangerine' 'tangerine field'

Look at the following sentences in which the derived locative nouns are used.

Oasr puhkantwen ma orahkrahk *ines* sac.
'There are many insects in the inside of the papaya.'
'There are many insects in the papaya grove.'

Inusr se sel Sah ah arlac na mahmahuh.
'Sah's banana field has become very grassy.'

Wacngihn fihtac *inusr* uh.
'There are no seeds inside the banana.'

Inkuhtak se sel Kuhn ah arlac na fuhrahrrahr.
'Kuhn's taro patch is very muddy.'

Yot se an *inkuhtak* sac.
'There is a stone in the inside of the taro.'

NAMES OF BODY PARTS

5.9.2 When the prefix *in-* is used with nouns that name parts body, the meaning of the prefix is not always clear. The *sifac* 'head' can be changed to *insifac* 'head'. But the two do not seem to have different meanings. Observe the foll examples.

Insifacl / Sifacl } Tuhlpe kutkutyak.
'Tuhlpe's head became dusty.'

Some additional examples are presented below.

Nouns		*Locative Nouns*	
siyac	'belly'	insiyac	'belly'
fwac	'nose'	infwac	'nose'
srwac	'ear'	insrwac	'ear'
kwacwac	'neck'	inkwacwac	'neck'
esyac	'liver'	inesyac	'liver'

In some cases, when the prefix *in-* is used with nouns that body parts, the preposition *ke* can also be used to ind location.

Oasr kutkut *insifacl*.
'There is dust on his head.'

Oasr kutkut *ke insifacl*.
'There is dust on his head.'

One characteristic of the locative nouns is that they can de location without the presence of the preposition *ke*. The fact the preposition *ke* is used in the sentence above suggests tha prefix *in-* seems to have lost the locational meaning.

In some other cases, the prefix *in-* is so closely bound t following nouns that they can not be separated. The n

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innyuwac 'eye-brow' and *intwe* 'knee' seem to be made up of two morphemes: *in-nyuwac* and *in-twe*. But the prefix cannot be separated from the words; that is, there are no words such as *nyuwac* or *twe*, meaning 'eye-brow' and 'knee', respectively.

Names of Topographical Features and Place Names

5.9.3 In many cases place names are derived from nouns with the prefix *in-* or *fin-*. Nouns which are descriptive of form or appearance, and nouns which indicate the materials that are characteristic of certain places are often used with the prefix *in-* or *fin-* to become place names. The noun *foko* 'knot' or 'protuberance' is changed into *infoko* and *finfoko*. *Infoko* means a bay and *finfoko* means a land area around a bay.

Generally speaking, the prefix *in-* is used when an area is surrounded by another object or when the surface of an area is lower than that of the neighboring area. The word *ohl*, whose meaning is not clear, means 'mountain' when it is used with the prefix *fin-*. But when it is used with the prefix *in-*, as in *inohl*, the derived word means 'an area surrounded by mountains'. Look at the following additional examples.

Place Names with fin

Nouns		*Place Names*	
kap	'sea-weeds'	finkap	'an area in the sea where sea-weeds grow'
nwenwe	'pile of sand and dirt washed in by waves	finnwenwe	'an area where such a pile is'
titi	'breast'	fintiti	'a mountain in Utwac whose shape resembles the woman's breast'
kwacmel	'camel'	finkwacmel	'an area which look like the camel's back

Place Names with in

Nouns		*Place Names*	
kalkal	'fence'	inkalkal	'fenced-in area'
fohk	'dirt'	infohk	'ground'
sacruh	'ruins'	insacruh	'inside a ruin'
fok		infok	'lagoon' 'pond'

The following designations of typographical features and pla seem to be made up of two morphemes. But neither *in-* nor can be separated although they look like prefixes.

inkacnek	'road'
innek	'path'
inlohk	'a place name'
insiyacf	'a place name'
inkwacyac	'a place name'
finaunpes	'a place name'
finpihuh	'a place name'
finohlohf	'a place name'
finsrilacng	'a place name'

DERIVATION OF PREDICATE WORDS

5.10 The suffixes *-yang* (or *-acng*), *-yak* (or *-ack*), and *-lah* (or *-lac*) ca change nouns into predicate words. The term **predicate wo** is used rather than adjective or intransitive verb for the followin reasons. First, the words which are derived from nouns with th addition of the suffixes do not belong to adjectives or intransitiv verbs. Second, the derived words are used as predicates in sen tences. (See 6.2, for the definition of *predicate*.) In what follows we will examine nouns with their suffixes, and the meanings of th resulting predicate words.

SUFFIX *-yang* (OR *-acng*)

5.10.1 Nouns which refer to clothes, shoes, or anything that human beings can wear either for protection or for decoration can b used with the suffix *-yang*. The resulting word means 'to hav on . . .' The noun *wes* 'shirt' can be changed into a predicate word *wesyang* 'to have on a shirt'. Observe the following additiona examples.

Nouns		*Predicate Words*	
susu	'hat'	susuyang	'to have on a hat'
fahluhk	'shoes'	fahluhkyang	'to have on shoes'
tuhrasis	'trousers'	tuhrasisyang	'to have on trousers'
was	'watch'	wasyang	'to wear a watch'
ring	'ring'	ringyang	'to wear a ring'
yacrihng	'ear-ring'	yacrihngyang	'to wear an ear-ring'
sori	'slippers'	soriyang	'to have on slippers'

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Nouns		*Predicate Words*	
kawa	'leather shoes'	kawayang	'to have on leather shoes'

In the following sentences, some of the derived predicate words are used in sentences.

Sepe el *susuyang*
'Sepe has a hat on.'

Eltahl *fahluhkyang*.
'They have shoes on.'

Nga ac tiyac *wesyang*.
'I will not wear a shirt.'

Tuhlihk uh luhngse *tuhrasisyang*.
'The children like to wear trousers.'

SUFFIX *-yak* (OR *-ack*)

5.10.2 Nouns which refer to insects can be used to derive predicate words. The resulting words mean 'to become infested with'. The noun *kut* 'louse' becomes a predicate word *kutyak* 'to become infested with lice'. Look at the following additional examples.

Nouns		*Predicate Words*	
emsyac	'mosquito'	emsyacyak	'to become infested with mosquitos'
waten	'cockroach'	watenyak	'to become infested with cockroaches'
ulac	'maggot'	ulacyak	'to become infested with maggots'
mahk	'ant'	mahkyak	'to become infested with ants'
kasrlahp	'an ant'	kasrlahpyak	'to become infested with ants'

In the following sentences, some of the derived predicate words are used.

Inum ah *watenyak*.
'The kitchen is infested with cockroaches.'

Sifacl Sepe *kutyak*.
'Sepe's head is infested with lice.'

Ik soko ah *ulacyak*.
'The fish is infested with maggots.'

Acn sac *mahkyak*.
'The place is infested with ants.'

Besides nouns referring to insects, nouns which refer to disease o illness can also be used with the suffix. The resulting derived word mean 'to be affected with', or 'to contract'. The noun *kit* 'ringworm' is changed into a predicate word *kitoyak*, whic means 'to be affected with ringworm'. Look at the followin additional examples.

Nouns		*Predicate Words*
amalkasr	'rash'	amalkasryak
fohk sohrohr	'diarrhea'	fohksohrohryak
fohk srah	'a disease'	fohk srahyak
fwac fohn	'stuffed nose'	fwac fohnyak
fuhl ngasr	'a disease'	fuhlngasryak
fuhsrfuhsr	'a disease'	fuhsrfuhsryak
ir	'a disease'	iryak
kowepi	'a disease'	kowepiyak
kohfkohf	'cough'	kohfkhofyak

Look at the following example sentences in which some of th predicate words listed above are used.

Fintohkohl Sepe *amalkasryak*.
'Sepe's back became itchy.'

Sohn el *fohk sohrohryak*.
'John got diarrhea.'

Sah el *fuhsrfuhsryak*.
'Sah got a sore on the lips.'

Sohn el *kuhrwacngyak*.
'John has diabetes.'

SUFFIX *-lah* (OR *-lac*)

5.10.3 The suffix *-lah* can be used with almost any noun. The resultin word means 'to have become' or 'to have turned into'. The wor *pahpah* 'father' can be changed into a predicate word *pahpahlah* which means' 'to have become a father'. Some additiona examples are listed below.

Nouns		*Predicate Words*	
ninac	'mother'	ninaclac	'to have become a mother'
aes	'ice'	aeslac	'to have become ice'

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pwepuh	'paper'	pwepuhlac	'to have become paper'
sengsei	'teacher'	sengseilac	'to have become a teacher'

Sohn el *pahpahlah*.
'John has become a father.'

Sepe el *ninaclac*.
'Sepe has become a mother.'

Kof sac *aeslac*.
'The water has turned into ice.'

In the preceding section, we observed that when nouns referring to insects are used with *-yak*, the resulting words mean 'to become infested with'. Those nouns can also be used with the suffix *-lah*. The noun *emsyac* 'mosquito' becomes a predicate word *emsyac-yak*, which means 'to become infested with'. The same noun *emsyac* can also be used with the suffix *-lah*, as in *emsyaclah*, which denotes that some place or something is completely covered with or is swarming with mosquitoes. To take another example, *ulac* 'maggot' can be changed into two predicate words, *ulacyak* 'to become infested with maggots' and *ulaclac* 'to be covered with maggots' or 'to be swarming with maggots'.

Nouns which refer to disease or sickness can take the suffix *-lah*. When the suffix *-yak* is used with the nouns, the resulting predicate words denote that something or someone is in the initial stage of the sickness or disease. When the suffix *-lah* is used with the nouns, the resulting words denote that the disease or sickness has developed to the fullest extent. The word *amalkasr* 'a skin disease', for example can be changed into the predicate words *amalkasryak* 'to contract amalkasr' and *amalkasrlah* '(the skin disease) has developed to the fullest extent'.

DERIVATION OF COMPOUND NOUNS

5.11 Compound nouns can be formed by using the particle *in* to link a noun with a following noun or intransitive verb. This process can be expressed by a simple formula, as follows.

$$\text{Noun} + in + \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Noun} \\ \text{Intransitive Verb} \end{array} \right\}$$

NOUN + *in* + NOUN

5.11.1 Some examples of compound nouns that are formed with the particle *in* are listed below. Notice the different types of relation-

ship between two nouns linked by *in*. The compound nouns are italicized.

Nga konacack *acing in pot* se.
'I found a wall crab.'

Puhlahl in fong uh arlac upac.
'Night thunder is very frightening.'

Sohn el use *ono in kohf* se nuh sihk.
'John brought me a cough medicine (medicine for coughing).'

El wanlah *kahp in tuh* se.
'He carried away a bundle of sugarcane.'

Ahluh in ik se puhtatlac liki tepuh sac.
'A bowl of fish fell off the table.'
'A bowl for fish fell off the table.'

Sah el sruokyac *epal in pa* soko.
'Sah caught an *epal* for bait.'

NOUN + *in* + INTRANSITIVE VERB

5.11.2 Some examples of compound nouns, noun + *in* + intransitive verb, are presented below. Notice also the relationships of the nouns to the intransitive verbs such as performer, instrument, place and time.

Mwet in pahtuhr sac masack fong.
'The man (who is) to fish is sick.'

Oac in ikwik sac kaptwaclihk.
'The oar (which is to be used) to steer is broken.'

Sipun in yuhyuh sup sac tuhlah
'The spoon to scoop out the soup is lost.'

Acn in yok usr se lal Kuhn lucng ah el kihtelah.
'Kuhn's upper part of the land in which he was to plant bananas, he has sold.'

Lwen in muhtwacta se luhn mwet Utwac ah arlac af.
'The day (when) the Utwac people (were) to have a picnic was very rainy.'

Mahlwem in orek ma luhn mwet Leluh ah ke inkacnek ah pa inge.
'This is the month when the Leluh people (are) to repair (or build) the road.'

REDUPLICATION

5.12 In terms of form, there are two basic types of reduplication. One

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is **complete reduplication** in which an entire word is repeated. For example, the reduplicated form of the word *fa* 'fern' is *fafa* 'covered with ferns'. The other type of reduplication is **partial reduplication**, in which only part of the word is repeated. For example, the partially reduplicated form of the word *ipihs* 'to roll' is *ipipihs*. Monosyllabic words undergo complete reduplication, while poly-syllabic words undergo partial reduplication. There are two types of partial reduplication: in one type the first syllable is reduplicated, and in the other type the last syllable is reduplicated. There are two types of first syllable reduplication, depending upon the vowel length of the first syllable.

The following is a list of the different types of reduplication:

1. Complete Reduplication
2. Partial Reduplication
   - A. First Syllable Reduplication
     - a. Short First Vowel
     - b. Long First Vowel
   - B. Last Syllable Reduplication

In terms of function, there are two types of reduplication. One changes word-classes. For example, the word *fa* 'fern' becomes an adjective '*fafa*' having many 'ferns' when it is reduplicated. The other type of reduplication does not change word-classes but slightly modifies the meaning of the simple unreduplicated form. The verb *ipihs* 'to roll', for example, can be reduplicated as in *ipipihs* 'to roll little by little'. The reduplicated form is still a verb. However, as the translation indicates, there is a slight difference in meaning in the two forms.

In sections 5.12.1–2, the different types of reduplication listed above will be examined, and in section 5.12.3, the modified meanings of the reduplicated forms will be examined.

Types of Reduplication

5.12.1

Complete Reduplication

5.12.1.1 Monosyllabic words undergo complete reduplication. When monosyllabic nouns undergo reduplication, they become adjectives. Words of other parts of speech such as adjectives, transitive verbs, and intransitive verbs do not change parts of speech when they are reduplicated. Monosyllabic words are of

the following shapes: (The capital letter C stands for any c
sonant, G for any glide, V for any vowel and V: for a long vow

CV: C	kang	'to eat'
CV:	kih	'bent'
V: C	il	'to rub'
V:	e	'fire'

Examples of complete reduplication are presented below. Th
are grouped according to the syllable shapes of the mon
syllabic words. A hyphen is used to indicate the morpher
boundary.

1. *Complete Reduplication of CV:C*

fact	'fat'	fact-fact	'rather fat'
fan	'to climb'	fan-fan	'to climb again and again'
kohf	'to cough'	kohf-kohf	'to cough again and again'
lahs	'coral'	lahs-lahs	'lots of coral'
puhk	'sand'	puhk-puhk	'sandy'
yot	'stone'	yot-yot	'lots of stones'

2. *Complete Reduplication of CV:*

fa	'fern'	fa-fa	'covered with ferns'
koa	'fiber'	koa-koa	'fiberous'
nu	'coconut'	nu-nu	'lots of coconuts'
sra	'leaf'	sra-sra	'lots of leaves'
wo	'good'	wo-wo	'rather good'
sa	'to shout'	sa-sa	'to shout and shout'

3. *Complete Reduplication of V:C*. When monosyllabic words o
the *V:C* shape undergo complete reduplication, the glide y
appears before the second syllable in some words. The reduplicat-
ed form of *af* 'rain' is *af-yaf* 'rainy'. However, the reduplicated
form of *an* 'to lie down' is *an-an* 'to sit uncomfortably'. Although
both *af* and *an* begin with the vowel *a*, in one case the glide y
appears while in the other it does not. Look at the following
additional examples.

Simple Form		*Reduplicated Form*	
ef	'to fade'	ef-yef	'faded'
eng	'wind'	eng-yeng	'windy'
ek	'to change'	ek-yek	'to keep on changing'
ek	'to rub'	ek-ek	'to rub repeatedly'
ip	'piece'	ip-ip	'in pieces'

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Simple Form		*Reduplicated Form*	
ol	'hole'	ol-ol	'lots of holes'
on	'to sing'	on-on	'to keep on singing'
ul	'to pull'	ul-ul	'to pull little by little'
ohk	'mist'	ohk-ohk	'misty'

There appears to be no way to predict which reduplicated forms take the intrusive *y* and which do not.

Partial Reduplication

5.12.1.2 There are two types of partial reduplication: initial syllable and final syllable reduplication. The initial syllable reduplication will be examined first.

1. *Initial Syllable Reduplications.* When a monosyllabic word undergoes partial reduplication, the first consonant and the vowel are repeated. The partial reduplicated form of *fosr* 'smoke' is *fo-fosr* 'to emit smoke'. The first consonant *f* and the vowel *o* are repeated. When monosyllabic nouns undergo initial syllable reduplication, intransitive verbs are derived. For example, the word *mong* 'breath' is a noun and its reduplicated form *mo-mong* is a verb meaning 'to breathe'. With words of other parts of speech, a continuative or frequentative meaning is added. Look at the following examples of initial syllable reduplication.

Simple Form		*Reduplicated Form*	
sok	'jealous'	so-sok	'to get jealous'
ngosr	'to smell'	ngo-ngosr	'to sniff'
twem	'to sharpen'	twe-twem	'to sharpen again and again'
twen	'to wash'	twe-twen	'to keep on washing'
mahs	'to march'	mah-mahs	'to keep on marching'
long	'to step'	lo-long	'to step repeatedly'
rit	'to read'	ri-rit	'to read again and again'
kahl	'to touch'	kah-kahl	'to touch repeatedly'

The initial syllable reduplication of mono-syllabic words can be summarized in the following way: (C_1 stands for the first consonant and C_2 for the second consonant.)

Simple Form	*Reduplicated Form*
$C_1V:C_2$	$C_1V:\text{-}C_1V:C_2$

In the following paragraphs we will examine the initial syllable reduplication of poly-syllabic words. The initial syllable reduplication of poly-syllabic words can be generalized in the following way: (The period stands for the syllable boundary. The parentheses indicate that the elements in them are optional.)

Simple Form	*Reduplicated Form*
$(C_1)V_1 \cdot C_2V:_2C_3\cdots$	$(C_1)V:_1C_2 \cdot (C_1)V_1 \cdot C_2V:_2C_3\cdots$

Note: V_1 in the simple form can be either long or short. In the process of initial syllable reduplication, the following changes take place. The first syllable of the simple form, which is open, becomes closed with the first consonant C_2 of the second syllable of the simple form. When the first vowel of the simple form is short, the first vowel becomes long. The newly created closed syllable $(C_1)V:_1C_2$ is attached to the simple form and an initial syllable reduplicated form is derived.

To illustrate, the word *fule* 'to wring' is made up of two syllables: *fu* and *le*. The partial reduplicated form of *fu.le* is *ful.fu.le* 'to twist little by little' and is derived in the following way: the first open syllable of *fu.le* becomes closed with the first consonant of the second syllable *l*, as in *ful*. The short vowel *u* becomes long as in [fu:l]. The newly created closed syllable with a long vowel is attached to the simple form *fu.le* as in *ful.fu.le*. For example, the word *ngalis* 'to bite', has a partial reduplicated form of *ngal.nga.lis*. When we compare the two forms of *nga.lis* and *ngal. nga. lis*, we can notice the following changes. The first open syllable of the simple form *nga* is closed with the first consonant of the second syllable *l* of the simple form. As the first vowel of *ngalis* is already long, there is no further change. The newly created closed syllable *ngal* is attached to *nga.lis*, as in *ngal. nga. lis*. Finally, the word *e.ma* 'to taste' does not have an initial consonant, but undergoes partial reduplication just like *fu.le*. Using the first vowel *e* and the first consonant of the second syllable *m*, a closed syllable with a long vowel *em* [e:m] is created, and the newly created syllable *em* is attached to *ema* as in *em.e.ma*.

In the preceding two paragraphs, we observed the pattern of initial syllable reduplication. There is a variant pattern of initial syllable reduplication which is represented in the following formula:

Simple Form	*Reduplicated Form*
$(C_1)V_1 \cdot C_2V:_2C_3$	$(C_1)V_1 \cdot (C_1)V_1 \cdot C_2V:_2C_3$

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According to the reduplication pattern presented above, the first syllable of the simple form is repeated. In this variant pattern the first open syllable is not closed, nor is the short vowel of the first syllable lengthened. According to this pattern, the partial reduplicated forms of *fu.le* 'to twist', *nga.lis* 'to bit' and *e.ma* 'to taste' are *fu.fu.le*, *nga.nga.lis* and *e.e.ma* respectively. The pattern we observed first is very general and most Kusaiean speakers use it. The variant pattern is accepted by some speakers but is not widely used.

In what follows, examples of initial syllable reduplication will be presented. For each simple form, two reduplicated forms will be presented. The first vowels of the following simple forms are short. Syllable boundaries are indicated by a period.

Simple Form		*Reduplicated Form*	
ku·lus	'to peel'	kul·ku·lus ku·ku·lus	'to peel bit by bit'
kih·pat	'to fall'	kihp·kih·pat kih·kih·pat	'to fall gradually'
tih·puhl	'to pick'	tihp·tih·puhl tih·tih·puhl	'to pick again and again'
pih·srihk	'to flick'	pihsr·pih·srihk pih·pih·srihk	'to flick repeatedly'

The first vowels of the following simple forms are long.

Simple Form		*Reduplicated Form*	
fa·lihs	'to mend'	fal·fa·lihs fa·fa·lihs	'to mend again and again'
pa·tihk	'to hammer'	pat·pa·tihk pa·pa·tihk	'to keep on hammering'
tah·fong	'to mistake'	tahf·tah·fong tah·tah·fong	'to make lots of mistakes'
sah·rom	'to sparkle'	sahr· sah·rom sah·sah·rom	'to keep on sparkling'
la·kihn	'to spread'	lak·la·kihn la·la·kihn	'to spread'

The following simple forms do not have initial consonants.

Simple Form		*Reduplicated Form*	
e·wuh	'to lift'	ew·e·wuh e·e·wuh	'to lift little by little'
i·pihs	'to roll'	ip·i·pihs i·i·pihs	'to roll bit by bit'
o·lang	'to open'	ol·o·lang o·o·lang	'to open again and again'

Simple Form		*Reduplicated Form*	
u·sri	'to sprinkle'	usr·u·sri u·u·sri	'to sprinkle off and on'

In the preceding paragraphs, we observed initial syllable redu lication of monosyllabic and disyllabic words. However, we ha not examined the initial syllable reduplication of two-syllab words such *fo.ul* [fo:.u:l] 'smell' or *fu.on* [fu:.o:n] 'shy' who second syllables do not begin with initial consonants. The wo *fo.ul* 'smell' has a partially reduplicated form of *fo.fo.ul* [fo.fo:u 'to emit smell'. When we compare the simple and the reduplicat forms *fo.ul* and *fo.fo.ul*, we notice that the first consonant *f* ar the first vowel *o* is repeated. The following formula represents t initial syllable reduplication of two-syllable words whose secon syllable does not begin with a consonant.

Simple Form	*Reduplicated Form*
$C_1V:_1 . V:_2C_2$	$C_1V_1 \cdot C_1V:_1 \cdot V:_2C_2$

The following additional examples illustrate the initial syllab reduplication pattern represented above.

Simple Form		*Reduplicated Form*	
koh·u	'grouchy'	koh·koh·u	'rather grouchy'
mo·ul	'alive'	mo·mo·ul	'not completely dead'

Final Syllable Reduplication

5.12.1.3 The reduplication of final syllables is much simpler than initia syllable reduplication. In initial syllable reduplication there ar several different subtypes; in final syllable reduplication, there i only one type. The last syllable is simply repeated. The word *fih.rihr* 'flame' is a two-syllable word. The partial reduplicated form is *fih.rihr.rihr* 'red.' The last syllable *rihr* of the simple form *fih.rihr* is repeated. Look at the following additional examples

Simple Form		*Reduplicated Form*	
sah·rom	'sparkle'	sah·rom·rom	'sparkling'
kih·ris	'grease'	kih·ris·ris	'greasy'
fuh·luh	'canyon'	fuh·luh·luh	'lost of canyons'
fi·yoh	'sweat'	fi·yoh·yoh	'sweaty'
sra·nom	'juice'	sra·nom·nom	'juicy'
tih·srihl	'fracture'	tih·srihl·srihl	'fractured' 'sprained'

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Simple Form		*Reduplicated Form*	
puh·srahk	'slop'	puh·srahk·srahk	'sloppy'
mih·sihk	'to click'	mih·sihk·sihk	'to make clicks'
mu·tul	'to blink'	mu·tul·tul	'to blink'
fi·yac	'grey hair'	fi·yac·yac	'grey-haired'

Words That Allow Both Initial and Final Syllable Reduplication

5.12.1.4 In the preceding section (5.12.1.2) we observed two types of partial reduplication: initial syllable reduplication and final syllable reduplication. There are a large number of two-syllable words that can have both initial and final syllable reduplications In general, initial syllable reduplication expresses process, while final syllable reduplication expresses result. The word *fiyoh* 'to sweat' or 'sweat' has the following two reduplicated forms: *fi.fiyoh* 'sweating' and *fiyoh.yoh* 'sweaty' or 'covered with sweat'. To take another example, the word *sah. rom* 'to sparkle' or 'sparkle' has two reduplicated forms: *sah.sah.rom* 'to set off sparkles' and *sah.rom.rom.* 'sparkling' or 'dazzling'. Both *fiyoh* and *sahrom* can be used as intransitive verb and noun. Initial syllable reduplication seems to be associated with intransitive verbs and final syllable reduplication with nouns.

Look at the following additional examples that have initial and final syllable reduplication.

Simple Form		*Reduplicated Form*	
koh·rohr	'to growl'	kohr·koh·rohr	'to make growls'
	'growl'	koh·rohr·rohr	'growling'
mih·sac	'to be frayed'	mihs·mih·sac	'being frayed'
	'fray'	mih·sac·sac	'frayed'
kih·pat	'to break'	kihp·kih·pat	'breaking'
	'break'	kih·pat·pat	'broken'
puh·srahk	'to slop'	puhsr·puh·srahk	'slopping'
	'slop'	puh·srahk·srahk	'sloppy'
puhtwact	'to patter'	puht·puhtwact	'to make a series of sounds'
	'patter'	puh·twact·twact	'pattering'
fuh·luhk	'to lose teeth'	fuhl·fuh·luhk	'to lose many teeth'
	'dent'	fuh·luhk·luhk	'dented'
fih·rihr	'to flame'	fihr·fih·rihr	'flaming'
	'flame'	fih·rihr·rihr	'red'

Simple Form		*Reduplicated Form*	
fiyac	'to turn grey'	fi·fi·yac	'to turn grey'
	'grey hair'	fi·yac·yac	'covered with grey hair'

MEANINGS AND FUNCTIONS OF REDUPLICATION

5.12.2 In the preceding section we observed different types of reduplication. In this section we will examine how reduplication modifies the meaning. The meanings of the reduplicated forms will be examined according to the different parts of speech.

Reduplicated Adjectives

5.12.2.1 When an adjective is reduplicated, the meaning becomes somewhat weakened. The adjective *kun* means 'blind'. The reduplicated form *kunkun* means 'partially blind'. In most cases, the reduplicated adjectives can be translated with the words 'slightly', 'somewhat', 'rather', or 'partially'. Look at the following additional examples.

Simple Form		*Reduplicated Form*	
fact	'fat'	factfact	'rather fat'
fohs	'confusing'	fohsfohs	'somewhat confusing'
lohsr	'dark'	lohsrlohsr	'somewhat dark'
wohl	'drenched'	wohlwohl	'wet'
ngweng	'burning well'	ngwengngweng	'burning rather well'
mihs	'calm'	mihsmihs	'rather calm'

Reduplicated Intransitive Verbs

5.12.2.2 Intransitive verbs whose meanings are related to sound or movement usually undergo reduplication. The simple (unreduplicated) form usually denotes a single act. The reduplicated form usually denotes a series of similar acts. The word *kihm* means 'to make a thumping sound', while the reduplicated form *kihmkihm* means 'to make a series of thumping sounds'. The word *wor* means 'to wiggle' and its reduplicated form *worwor* means 'to make a series of wiggles' or 'to keep on wiggling'.

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The words listed below are intransitive verbs whose meanings are related to sounds. Compare the meanings of the simple and the reduplicated forms:

Simple Form		*Reduplicated Form*	
kahs	'to make a chirp'	kahskahs	'to make a series of chirping sounds'
poht	'to make a popping sound'	pohtpoht	'to make a series of popping sounds'
puhtwact	'to make a splashing sound'	puhtwactwact	'to make a series of splashing sounds.'

The words listed below are intransitive verbs whose meanings are related to motions. Compare the meanings of the simple and the reduplicated forms.

tipihr	'to pulse'	tihpihrpihr	'to make a series of pulsations'
tuhlak	'to jerk'	tuhltuhlak	'to make a series of jerks'
sro	'to jump'	srosro	'to jump several times'
srihm	'to bow'	srihmsrihm	'to bow several times'
			'to nid-nod'
rihpihk	'to flutter'	rihpihkpihk	'to make a series of flutterings'
pahs	'to clap'	pahspahs	'to clap several times'

Some reduplicated forms of intransitive verbs can be translated with the phrases 'here and there', 'off and on', or 'intermittently'. Observe the following sentences.

Pahpah el yokyok pahsruhk.
'Father is planting taro here and there.'
'Father is planting intermittently.'

Sohn el pahpahtuhr.
'John is fishing here and there.'

Eltahl opop infacl soko ah
'They are spraying poison here and there in the river.'

Tuhlihk sac momongo.
'The child is eating intermittently.'

Muhtwacn se nge muhlmuhlal.
'This woman faints from time to time.'

Sohn el kahsruhsrsruhsr nuh lohm sel ah.
'John is going home, sometimes running and sometimes walk

Some reduplicated intransitive verbs can be translated as '
on ... ing'.

Kof ah sohrohrrohr nwe ingena.
'The water is flowing until now.'
'The water keeps flowing until now.'

Reduplicated Transitive Verbs

5.12.2.3 With the intransitive verbs, reduplication adds the meanin
repetition or intermittent continued action. With the tran
verbs, reduplication adds similar meanings. We will note
reduplicated transitive verbs in terms of meanings.

Some reduplicated transitive verbs describe a gra
development of a certain action, and they can be translated a
—ing little by little, by degrees or gradually'. Look at the fo
ing examples.

Sohn el furfurok nuht se.
'John is turning the nut little by little.'

Eltahl pahtpahtok pohk luhlahp se.
'They are moving the large box little by little.'

Sah el taftafle sahk soko ah.
'Sah is carving out the tree bit by bit.'

Some reduplicated transitive verbs describe repeated actions
can be translated as 'be —ing repeatedly'. Observe the follo
examples.

Sah el fakfakihs pahko soko.
'Sah is spearing the shark repeatedly.'

Sepe el tuhptuhpal ah soko ah.
'Sepe is jumping over the line this way and that.'

Kuht kuhtkuhtang oakan Utwac soko.
'We are beating the Utwac team again and gain.'

Some reduplicated transitive verbs have the meaning of
heartedness. The following are examples.

Nga lohlohng retio sac.
'I am listening to the radio (without paying much attention to

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El ririti puk se nge.
'He is reading this book (without paying much attention to it).'

Ninac el liliye puk in petsac se nge.
'Mother is looking at the picture book (without paying much attention to it).'

Some reduplicated transitive verbs add the meaning of randomness. Look at the following examples:

Sepe el ururok retio ah.
'Sepe is turning the radio up and down.'

Sah ikikihl tepuh sac.
'Sah is rocking the table back and forth.'

Reduplicated Nouns

5.12.2.4 When nouns are reduplicated, they are changed into adjectives. The noun *koa* 'fiber' becomes an adjective *koakoa* 'fibrous' or 'stringy' when it is reduplicated. The derived adjective *koakoa* can be used both as a modifier of a noun and as a predicate. In the first sentence below *koakoa* is used as a modifier of a noun, and in the second sentence below it is used as a predicate adjective.

Sohn el use macngko na *koakoa* se.
'John brought me a very fibrous mango.'

Macngko se nge arlac *koakoa*.
'The mango here is very fibrous.'

Listed below are some nouns which can be changed into adjectives through the process of reduplication.

Nouns		*Adjectives*	
fohk	'dirt'	fohkfohk	'dirty'
ol	'hole'	olol	'lots of holes'
yot	'stone'	yotyot	'stony'
puhk	'sand'	puhkpuhk	'sandy'
tuhn	'color'	tuhntuhn	'vari-colored'
mah	'grass'	mahmah	'grassy'
fasr	'coral lime'	fasrfasr	'white'
noa	'wave'	noanoa	'wavy'
lah	'branch'	lahlah	'branchy'
lahs	'coral'	lahslahs	'losts of or covered with coral'
fiyoh	'sweat'	fiyohyoh	'sweaty'

Nouns		*Adjectives*	
fiyac	'grey hair'	fiyacyac	'covered with grey hair'
sri	'bone'	srisri	'bony'
fahr	'cavity'	fahrfahr	'full of cavities'
loa	'reed'	loaloa	'reedy'
loang	'fly'	loangloang	'full of flies'
lop	'dent'	loplop	'dented' 'full of dents'
pweng	'news'	pwengpweng	'famous'
sil	'silk'	silsil	'silky'

Reduplication and Derivation of Intransitive Verbs

5.12.2.5 The process of reduplication is also used in the derivation of derived intransitive verbs from transitive verbs. The transitive verb *nihm* 'to drink' is changed into a derived intransitive verb *nihmnihm* 'to drink' through complete reduplication. Readers are referred to 6.2.7.1, where different types of derivations of derived intransitive verbs from transitive verbs are presented.

CONVERSIONS

5.13 In the preceding sections of this chapter we observed that a word of one part of speech can be changed in to a word of another part of speech by the addition of a suffix or a prefix. It is not uncommon that a word can be used as more than one part of speech without any change in form. The purpose of the following sections is to examine some words that can be used as different parts of speech without any change in form.

NOUNS AS ADJECTIVES

5.13.1 Nouns which denote materials can be used as adjectives. The noun *sahk* 'tree' or 'stick' is used primarily as a noun. But it can be used as an adjective with the meaning of 'wood' or 'wooden'. In the first sentence below, it is used as a noun; in the second it is used as an adjective.

Sah el pakiyac *sahk* soko.
'Sah chopped down a tree.'

Sah el orwaclah lohm *sahk* se.
'Sah made a wooden house.'

Observe the following additional examples. In the first sentences the italicized words are used as nouns, and in the second, as adjectives denoting materials.

1. Sohn el sisma *yot* se.
   'John threw a stone to me.'
2. Kalkal *yot* se lal Kuhn ah muhsahllah.
   'The stone fence of Kuhn has fallen down.'

1. Sepe el molelah pack in *simacn* se.
   'Sepe bought a bag of cement.'
2. Eltahl luhngse falfuhl *simacn* se.
   'They like this cement floor.'

1. *Pwepuh* se lal Sohn ah tuhlac.
   'John's paper is lost.'
2. Fihrihrlac pohk *pwepuh* sac.
   'The paper box has been burned up.'

Nouns can be used as attributive adjectives, but not as predicate adjectives. (See 4.3.2 for the difference between predicate and attributive adjectives.)

Nouns which refer to places can also be used as attributive adjectives. The word *Kosrae* 'Kusaie' is a place name. In the first sentence below it is used as a noun, but in the second sentence, as an attributive adjective.

1. El muhta *Kosrae*.
   'He is staying in Kusaie.'
2. Kuhn el mwet *Kosrae* se.
   'Kuhn is a Kusaiean.'

Look at the following additional examples. The italicized words in the first sentences are used as nouns, and those in the second sentences are used as attributive adjectives.

1. Sohn el tuhkuh *Macrike* me.
   'John came from America.'
2. Sohn el etuh kahs *Macrike*.
   'John knows the American language.'

1. Eltahl orek ma *Ponpe*.
   'They are working on Ponape.'
2. Acn *Ponpe* arlac na kahto.
   'Ponape island is very pretty.'

Nouns as Intransitive Verbs

5.13.2 Most nouns can be used as intransitive verbs. The word *ahng* 'nest' is used as a noun in the first sentence below and as an intransitive verb in the second sentence.

1. Nga konacack *ahng* in won se ulun sahk soko ngoh.
   'I found a bird's nest on the top of that three.'
2. Won uh *ahng* ulun sahk soko.
   'The birds built a nest on the top of a tree.'

To take another example, the word *ahtro* 'egg' is used below as a noun in the first sentence and as an intransitive verb in the second:

1. El kanglah *ahtro* luo olutu.
   'He ate two eggs this morning.'
2. Won muhtwacn uh *ahtro*.
   'The hens lay eggs.'

Look at the following additional examples. The italicized word in the first sentence of each set is used as a noun, while in the second it is used as an intransitive verb.

1. Sohn el kuh in us *sitosah* uh.
   'John can drive the car.'
2. Sohn el *sitosah* som nuh Utwac.
   'John rode in a car and went to Utwac.'

1. Sah el molelah *sikutuhr* sasuh se.
   'Sah bought a new scooter.'
2. Sah el kuh in *sikutuhr*.
   'Sah can drive a scooter.'

Adjectives as Nouns

5.13.3 Any adjective can be used as an abstract noun when it is used with the determiner *uh*. The word *wo* 'good' is an adjective, but it can be used as a noun denoting an abstract quality. In the first sentence below, *wo* is used as an adjective, while in the second it is used as an abstract noun.

Sohn el mwet *wo* se.
'John is a good man.'

Mwet nuh kwewa luhngse *wo* uh.
'Every man likes the good.'

Observe the following additional examples. The italicized words in the first sentences are used as adjectives, but in the second sentences they are used as abstract nouns.

1. Mongo nwacl Sepe ah arlac *kuluk*.
   'Sepe's food is very bad.'
2. Mwet nuh kwewa sruhnga *kuluk* uh.
   'Every man does not like the bad (or badness).'
1. Lwen se inge arlac *fol*.
   'Today is very hot.'
2. *Fol* uh wo liki ohyohu uh.
   'Hotness is better than coldness.'

Adjectives as Adverbs

5.13.4 Adjectives that denote quality or one's state of mind can be used as adverbs. The word *wo* in the first sentence below is used as an adjective and modifies the preceding noun *muhtwacn* 'woman'. On the other hand, *wo* in the second sentence below is used as an adverb modifying the preceding verb *lohng* 'to listen'.

1. Sohn el macruhtlac nuh sin muhtwacn na *wo* se.
   'John is married to a very good woman.
2. Lohng *wo* lah el ac tuhkuh kuh tiyac.
   'Listen well to see if he is coming or not.'

The italicized words below in the first sentences are used as adjectives, and in the second sentences are used as adverbs.

1. Sramsram se lal ah arlac *kahlwem*.
   'His talk was very clear.'
2. Sohn el kahskahs Kosrae arlac *kahlwem*.
   'John speaks Kusaiean very clearly.'
1. Pweng sac *pwacye*.
   'The news is true.'
2. Srue el enganack na *pwacye*.
   'Srue is truly happy.'
1. Sepe el *rahrah* in som.
   'Sepe is anxious to go.'
2. Sepe el siyuhk sihk *rahrah* lah meah muhsahllah.
   'Sepe anxiously asked what has been broken.'
1. Mas sac arlac *sakihrihk*.
   'That sickness is very strange.'

2. Sohn el luhmah *sakihrihk*.
'John behaves very strangely.'

INTRANSITIVE VERBS AS NOUNS

5.13.5 Intransitive verbs can be used as nouns. The word *puhtat* 'to fall' in the first sentence below is used as an intransitive verb, but in the second sentence, it is used as a noun.

1. Sepe el *puhtati*.
'Sepe fell down.'

2. *Puhtat* se lal Sepe ah arlac upac.
'Sepe's fall was very hard.'

To take another example, *som* 'to go' is used as an intransitive verb in the first sentence below, but as a noun in the second.

1. Sepe el ac *som* nuh Utwac lutu.
'Sepe will go to Utwac tomorrow.'

2. Sepe el engankihn *som* se lal ah.
'Sepe is proud of her going.'

The words *puhtat* and *som* in the second sentences above are modified by the numeral *se* 'one' and the classifier *lal* like regular nouns. The classifier *lal* in the second sentences above denotes the doer of the action or the one who is affected by the action. *Lal* in *Puhtat se lal Sepe ah* indicates that Sepe is the one who is affected by the falling. *Lal* in *som se lal ah* indicates that 'he' is the one who is to go.

When the intransitive verbs are used as nouns, they can be translated as 'an act or an instance of —ing', or 'a result of —'.

Look at the following additional examples. The italicized words in the first sentences are used as intransitive verbs and those in the second are used as nouns.

1. Ninac el *owo* nuknuk.
'Mother is washing clothes.'

2. Ninac el oruh *owo* se tuh arlac nwacsnwacs.
'Mother did the washing and (the clothes are) very white.'

1. Tuhlwen el *turohng*.
'Tuhlwen is spear-fishing.'

2. Tuhlwen el oruh turohng se tuh wacngihn ik el us tuhkuh ah.
'Tuhlwen did spear-fishing but he brough no fish.'

1. Kuhn el *patpuht*.
'Kuhn is hammering.'

2. *Patpuht* se lal Kuhn ah arlac wo.
'Kuhn's hammering is very good.'

Intransitive Verbs as Adjectives

5.13.6 Intransitive verbs can modify a head noun in a noun phrase just like attributive adjectives. (See 6.1 for the definition of *noun phrase*.) The word *owo* in the first sentence below is used as an intransitive verb but as an adjective in the second.

1. Ninac el *owo*.
'Mother is washing.'

2. Sepe el mwet *owo* se.
'Sepe is a washer-woman.'

To take another example, the word *pahtuhr* 'to fish' is used as an intransitive verb in the first sentence below, but it is used as an adjective in the second sentence.

1. Pahpah el *pahtuhr* lwen nuh kwewa.
'Father fishes every day.'

2. Pahpah el mwet *pahtuhr* se.
'Father is a fisher-man.'

When an intransitive verb is used as an adjective, such as *pahtuhr* and *owo* of the second sentences above, they are used to describe the occupation of a person. Look at the following additional examples. The italicized words in the first sentences are used as intransitive verbs, and those in the second sentences are used as adjectives.

1. Sohn el *yuhn lohm*.
'John decorates houses.'

2. Sohn el mwet *yuhn lohm* se.
'John is a house-decorator.'

1. Kuhn el *fakfuhk*.
'Kuhn is spearing.'

2. Kuhn el mwet *fakfuhk* se.
'Kuhn is a spear-man.'

The word *mwe* 'thing' in Kusaiean is always used with intransitive verbs which are used as adjectives. The intransitive verb *fakfuhk*

'to spear', for example, can be used with *mwe* 'thing' as in *mwe fakfuhk*. It means an object that one spears with, or a spearing thing. It is a very convenient device to refer to an object in terms of its purpose when one does not know its name. Look at the following.

mwe enyen	'thing with which one bails out water' 'bailer'
mwe owo	'thing with which one washes' 'washer'
mwe koackoac	'thing with which one husks' 'husker'
mwe twetwe	'thing with which one sharpens' 'sharpener'
mwe otwot	'thing with which one weaves' 'loom'
mwe an	'thing on which one sits or lies' 'chair' or 'bed'

6 Structure of Sentences

In the preceding chapter, we discussed different word-classes and their major functions. Our emphasis was on the general characteristics of the different word-classes. In this chapter we will observe how the words are combined together to form sentences.

As a first step, let us look one basic sentence and consider some of the rules that apply to sentences in general. The sentence below is made up of six words.

Mwet ah tuh ahscak ik ah.
'The men caught the fish.'

The six words of the sentence are arranged in a systematic way, not randomly. The determiner *ah* is placed after the nouns *mwet* 'man' and *ik* 'fish'. The tense marker *tuh* appears before the verb *ahsack* 'to hook' or 'to catch'. If the six words are arranged randomly as they are presented below, we could recognize the individual words but would fail to understand the meaning.

Ahsack ik tuh ah mwet ah
hook fish the man the

From this example it is obvious that a sentence is not a mere assemblage of words. Each word in a sentence must fall into its proper place. In this chapter we will try to give some rules which describe the way a speaker of Kusaiean puts words together to form sentences.

The six words in the sentence *Mwet ah tuh ahsack ik ah* above not only appear in a systematic way but also fall into thought groups. Observe the sentence below. *Tuhlihk luo ah* 'the two children' forms one thought group; *nuhnuh twem* 'to have been sharpening' forms another thought group, and *mitmit sacn* 'that knife' another.

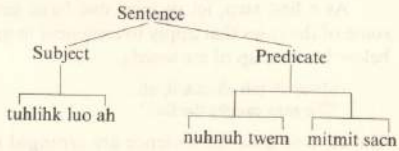
Tuhlihk luo ah nuhnuh twem mitmit sacn.
'The two children have been sharpening the knife.'

The relationship can be represented in the following way:

Tuhlihk luo ah nuhnuh twem mitmit sacn.

The relationship among the words above is somewhat similar to the way words are formed. Morphemes combine in a certain way to form a word. The two morphemes *ahk*(ordinalizer) and *luo* 'two' make a word *ahkluo* 'second'. The three morphemes *twetwe* 'to sharpen', *-kihn* 'with' and *-yuhk* (passive morpheme) make a word *twetwe-kihn-yuhk* 'to be sharpened with'. Likewise, words combine in certain ways to form a thought unit.

Returning to the example sentence above, we see that it is made up of three thought units, which form still larger units. The sentence can be divided into the two major units of **subject** and **predicate**.



The **subject** is a thing or a person that is being talked about and the **predicate** is the part that expresses what is said of the subject. Basically, all sentences are made up of these two parts. There are, of course, sentences whose subjects are not expressed, and there are sentences whose subjects appear after some other elements. In this chapter we will focus our attention on sentences that have subjects that precede all other elements of the sentence.

In the following additional examples the words to the left of the vertical line are subjects and those to the right are predicates.

Subject	*Predicate*
Nga 'I	fihliyac puk nahtuhl ah. left his books.'
Tuhlihk ah 'The children	acnwuhkyak. began to fight.'
Muhtwacn sac 'The woman	ahkmolyelah mos ah. cooked the breadfruit.'

Subject	*Predicate*
Puk nuhtum an	arlac wo.
'Your books	are very good.'

To summarize: a sentence is made up of words that not only appear in a systematic way but also fall into thought groups. Ultimately, a sentence is made up of two essential parts: the subject and the predicate. In section 6.1., we will discuss different types of subjects, and in section 6.2., different types of predicates.

BJECT AND STRUCTURE OF NOUN PHRASES

It was observed (see 4.1.1) that one of the basic functions of a noun is as subject or object of a verb or object of a preposition. In addition, we see that not only nouns but groups of words can be used as subjects or objects. The term **noun phrase** will be used to refer to a word or a group of related words that can function as a subject or object. In what follows different types of noun phrases which are used as subjects will be examined.

GLE WORDS AS SUBJECTS

1 In this section we will look at subjects which are made up of single words. Personal pronouns, numerals, proper personal nouns, and inalienable nouns can be used as subjects. Observe the following examples.

Personal Pronouns as Subjects

Nga (or *kuht*) tuhkuh ekweyah.
'I (or we) came yesterday.'

Kom (or *komtacl*) enenuh in orekma lutu.
'You (or you plural) need to work tomorrow.'

El (or *eltahl*) masack.
'He (or they) got sick.'

Numerals as Subjects

Sie rangrang ac *luo* folfol nwem.
'One is yellow and two are ocean blue.'

Soko mwesr tuh *soko* mahgsrasr.
'One is ripe but one is green.'

Proper Personal Names as Subjects

Sepe el arlac kahto.
'Sepe is very pretty.'

Sah el orekma ingena.
'Sah is working now.'

Kuhn el som nuh Ponpe.
'Kuhn went to Ponape.'

Inalienable Nouns as Subjects

Niyuhk ngalyak.
'My legs hurt.'

Pahol kihneta.
'He had cuts in his hands.'

Sifacl arlac sirengreng.
'His (or her) hair is very curly.'

So far we have observed some subjects which are made up of single words. As we shall see, it is possible to have subjects that contain more than a single word. These will be called **complex subjects**.

COMPLEX SUBJECTS

6.1.2 The subject of the sentence below is made up of three words: *lohm* 'house', *rangrang* 'yellow' and *ah* 'the'.

Lohm rangrang ah muhsahllah.
'The yellow houses are broken.'

The noun *lohm* of the noun phrase *lohm rangrang ah* 'the yellow houses' is the **head** of the noun phrase. In other words, it is a central part of the noun phrase. The other two words *rangrang* and *ah* modify the head noun *lohm*. The term **modifier** will be used to refer to words such as *rangrang* or *ah* whose function is to modify a head noun.

Words that belong to the following word classes can be modifiers of a head noun. (Abbreviations are given in parentheses.)

Adjectives (Adj)
Numerals (Num)
Classifiers (Cl)
Determiners (Det)
Place Names (PN)
Time Words (TW)

In the following sentences the subjects are made up of a noun and modifiers. (The subjects are italicized).

Uleoa se sohkack.
'A dove flew up.'

Uleoa ah sohkack.
'The doves flew up.'

Uleoa kahto ah kahskahs.
'The Pretty doves are cooing.'

Uleoa kahto nahtuhl Sepe ah misac.
'Sepe's pretty doves died.'

Uleoa Kosrae uh srihk liki ma Ponpe uh.
'The Kusaican doves are smaller than the Ponapean ones.'

Uleoa ingena uh srihk liki ma met ah.
'The present doves are smaller than the old ones.'

Sequence of Modifiers

6.1.3 When a single head noun of a noun phrase is modified by different modifiers, the latter must occur in a fixed order. The relative position of the modifiers when they modify a noun is the following: Noun Adj Num Cl PN Det.
The examples below illustrate the relative order of modifiers of a noun phrase.

Lohm luhlahp luo sihk Awai met ah kuhkakihnyuhklac.
noun Adj Num Cl PN TW Det
'The two big houses of mine in Hawaii were sold sometime ago.'

Mitmit kohsroh se nuhtihk Macrike mihsenge uh arlac wo.
noun Adj Num Cl PN TW Det
'The present American-made knife of mine is very good.'

The two noun phrases presented above are very complex but can be further expanded. Adjectives, for example, have five subclasses. (See 4.3.2) Adjectives that belong to the different subclasses can modify a single head noun. Look at the subject noun phrase below, where the head noun is modified by five adjectives.

Lohm *sahk luhlahp rangrang wo maspang* se muhsahllah.
'One yellow square big good wooden house is broken.'

The head noun above is modified only by adjectives. If other modifiers such as a numeral, classifier and determiner were

added, the noun phrase would be very long and complicated.

Numerals, for another example, may be either cardinal or ordinal. Both of them can be used to modify a single head noun. A cardinal number is used in the example above and an ordinal number can be added, as shown below.

Lohm sahk luhlahp rangrang wo maspang *se ahkluo* ah
'The second one yellow square big good wooden house.'

The relative order of adjectives belonging to different subclasses is not fixed. The noun phrases below differ from one another in that the adjectives occur in a different order. All of them are grammatical.

Lohm *luhlahp rangrang wo maspang* se ahkluo ah
house large yellow good square one second the

Lohm *rangrang luhlahp sahk wo maspang* se ahkluo ah
yellow large wooden good square

Lohm *wo rangrang luhlahp sahk maspang* se ahkluo ah
good yellow large wooden square

Lohm *maspang wo rangrang luhlahp sahk* se ahkluo ah
square good yellow large wooden

MODIFICATION OF INALIENABLE NOUNS

An inalienable noun can have the following forms: free form, construct form, impersonal form, first, second and third person singular and plural forms. The inalienable noun referring to 'leg', for example, has the following forms:

Person	*Singular*	*Plural*
free form	ne	
Impersonal	niyac	
1st Prs	niyuhk	niyuhktacl
2nd Prs	niyom	niyomtacl
3rd Prs	niyacl	niyacltahl
Contruct	niyen	

When an inalienable noun is modified by an adjective or by a numeral, only the free form or the impersonal form can be used. In the following sentence, the head noun of the subject noun phrase (which is italicized) is an inalienable noun.

Niyacl Sepe kihneta.
'Sepe's leg is hurt.'

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The possessor of 'leg' is expressed via the possessive pronoun suffix *-l*. The head noun *niyacl*, which is neither a free form nor an impersonal form, cannot be modified by any modifiers.

In the following sentence, the head noun of the subject noun phrase is modified by the adjective *unacnac* 'hairy'. Notice that the inalienable noun appears in the impersonal form and the possessor is expressed via the preposition *kacl* 'of him'.

Niyac unacnac kacl Sepe ah kihneta.
'Sepe's hairy leg is hurt.'

The free forms of inalienable nouns cannot be used alone in a noun phrase. They must be used with the word *lwac*, which means 'one member of a pair, one side, one part or one limb', as we can see in the sentence below.

Lwac *ne* unacnac kacl ah kihneta.
'His hairy leg is hurt.'

Two additional sets of example sentences illustrating the modification of inalienable nouns are presented below. In the first sentences, the suffixed forms are used and the head nouns cannot be modified. In the second and third sentences, the impersonal forms and free forms, respectively, are used.

1. *Sifacl* Sohn fiyacyac.
   'John is grey-haired.'
2. *Sifac* na luhlahp kacl Sohn arlac fiyacyac.
   'John's big head is very grey-haired.'
3. Lwac *sucf* lacyot kacl Sohn fiyacyac.
   'The right side of John's head is grey-haired.'

1. *Pahol* Kuhn arlac fokoko
   'Kuhn's hand is very strong.'
2. *Paho* lacyot kacl Kuhn arlac fokoko.
   'Kuhn's right hand is very strong.'
3. Lwac *po* lacsac kacl Kuhn arlac muhnahs.
   'Kuhn's left hand is very weak.'

USES OF lwac *AND* la

In the preceding paragraphs we observed the use of the word *lwac*, which seems to be an impersonal form of an inalienable noun. Its free form is *la*, but there is no other suffixed form such as the first, second, or third person form. The word *lwac* is used

with the free forms of inalienable nouns. The word *la* is used with the impersonal forms and other suffixed forms. In the first sentence below, using the free form of an inalienable noun, only *lwac* can be used. In the second sentence, using the impersonal form and other suffixed forms, only *la* can be used.

Nga liye *lwac* (but not *la*) po se.
'I saw a hand.'

Nga sruokyac *la* (but not *lwac*) { pahol Sohn. / poun kosro soko ah. / paho se. }

'I caught { John's one hand. / one of the forelegs of the dog. / one of its hands. }'

However, with alienable nouns, both *lwac* and *la* can be used, as in the following sentences.

La (or *lwac*) sori lal ah tuhlac.
'One of his slippers is lost.'

La (or *lwac*) kuhlahs lal ah muhsahllah.
'One of his lenses is broken.'

La (or *lwac*) kuropu lal Kuhn ah mihselihk.
'One of Kuhn's gloves is torn.'

Agreement Between Numerals and Classifiers

6.1.4 In the preceding section we saw that a single head noun can be modified by a numeral and a classifier. In this case, the numeral and the classifier must be in agreement. This concept of agreement can best be illustrated by the four examples below.

1. Mos *soko suhnuhk* ah pakpuhki.
   'My breadfruit tree is chopped down.'
2. Mos *se nak* ah kuluklac.
   'My breadfruit turned bad.'
3. Mos *soko nak* ah kuluklac.
4. Mos *se suhnuhk* ah pakpuhki.

Sentences 1 and 2 sound perfectly normal; sentences 3 and 4 are very strange and would probably be considered unacceptable because the numeral and the classifier are not in agreement. In the third sentence, the numeral *soko* indicates that the noun *mos* refers to a coconut tree, whereas the classifier *nak* indicates that

the same noun refers to a fruit. This contradiction makes the noun phrase strange. The fourth sentence is also strange because the numeral *se* indicates that the noun *mos* refers to a fruit, whereas the classifier *suhnuhk* indicates that the same noun refers to a breadfruit tree. This lack of agreement between the numeral and classifier makes the noun phrase strange.

Observe the following additional examples. When the numerals in parentheses are used, the noun phrases sound strange.

Mos *soko* (*se*) *suhnuk* ah ikori.
'My breadfruit trees fell down.'

Usr *se* (*soko*) *nak* uh arlac emwem.
'My banana is very delicious.'

Muh *lukoac* (*luo*) *suhnwacl* Sepe ah fuhsyuhklac.
'Sepe's two orange trees are rooted out.'

Innek *se* (*soko*) *lal* Sah ah arlac kuluk.
'Sah's ways (behavior) is very bad.'

Definite Noun Phrases

6.1.5 The term **definite noun phrase** will be applied to a noun phrase which is modified by one of the determiners *ah*, *uh*, *an*, and *oh*, or by one of the locative determiners *inge*, *ingacn* and *ingoh*. A head noun of a noun phrase can be modified by adjectives, numerals, or classifiers. But unless the head noun is modified by a determiner, the noun phrase is not a definite noun phrase.

The subject noun phrases below are all definite noun phrases.

Mwet kuh luo wiyen muhtwacn *sac* 'The woman's two strong brothers		
Mwet kuh luo 'Those two strong men	*an*	
Mwet kuh 'Those strong men	*oh*	tuhkuh ekweyah. came yesterday
Mwet luo 'The two men	*ah*	
Mwet 'The men	*ah*	

Besides the definite noun phrases which are modified by one of the determiners, personal pronouns and proper personal nouns

are also considered definite noun phrases. The subjects of the following sentences are definite noun phrases.

El tuhkuh ekweyah.
'He came yesterday.'

Sepe ac *Sah* masack olutu.
'Sepe and Sah became sick this morning.'

Sru el som nuh Ponpe.
'Sru went to Ponape.'

NOUN PHRASES WITHIN NOUN PHRASES

6.1.6 Different types of noun phrases have been presented in the preceding sections of this chapter. In this section we will see that a noun phrase can occur within another noun phrase. For example, look at the subject of the following sentence:

Oak soko okoen *mwet sacn* ah oai ekweyah.
'That man's ship arrived yesterday.'

The subject noun phrase starts with *oak* 'canoe' and ends with *ah* 'the'. However, there is another noun phrase *mwet sacn* within the larger noun phrase. It is by italics. Since *mwet sacn* itself is a noun phrase, the head noun *mwet* can be modified by some other modifiers such as adjectives, as in the following sentence.

Oak soko okoen *mwet kuh saen* ah oai ekweyah.
'The strong man's canoe arrived yesterday.'

Observe the following additional examples in which one noun phrase is included in another noun phrase. The included noun phrases are italicized, and the including noun phrases are underlined.

Mukul se tuhmwen *muhtwacn sac* ah srwack na moul.
'The woman's husband is still alive.'

Lahm nuk se luhn *tuhlihk srihsrihk sac* ah puhtatlac.
'The child's lantern fell down.'

Pahl se nuhtin *mwet srohwohsr sac* ah mihselihk.
'The greedy man's fan has been broken.'

We have seen noun phrases in which other noun phrases are included. It is also possible that more than one noun phrase can be included in another noun phrase. The following subject noun

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phrase includes two other noun phrases in it. The two included noun phrases are italicized.

Paip se nuhtin *mwet se* wiyacl *ninac* ah fihrihryak.
'Mother's brother's pack of cigarettes burned up.'

Another noun phrase can be included in the subject noun phrase of the sentence above, as in the following sentence:

Paip se nuhtin *mwet se* wiyen *ninac se* kiyen *tuhlihk sac ah* fihrirryak.
The child's mother's brother's cigarettes have been burned up.'

The subject noun phrase above can be expanded further and further by including noun phrase after noun phrase. So, theoretically, there can be no longest noun phrase. This is one of the interesting properties of a noun phrase. This property is often referred to as the **recursiveness** of a noun phrase.

The inclusion of noun phrases within another noun phrase is made possible through the use of classifiers such as *wiyen*, *nuhtin*, or *luhn*. Below, we will show that noun phrases can be included within another noun phrase through the use of **nominalized transitive verbs**, **nominalized intransitive verbs**, and **nominalized adjectives**. (See 5.6 for the definition of nominalized transitive verbs, intransitive verbs, and adjectives.)

The subject of the sentence below (which is underlined,) stretches from *ukoeyien* 'chasing' through *ah* 'the'. In the entire subject noun phrase, three other noun phrases (italicized) are included.

Ukoeyen *kaho soko* sin *mwet sac* nuh *inluhluh in kof se* ah arulac upac.
'The chasing of the cow into the pool by the man was very difficult.'

The head nouns of the subject noun phrases below are nominalized transitive verbs, and each subject noun phrase contains three noun phrases.

Ituliyen *for uh* sel *muhtwacn sac* ke *ah soko ah* ah arulac pahtlac.
'The woman's stringing plumerias on the string is very slow.'

Awiyen *kiyacs soko* nuh ke *oak soko ah* ke *fuh se* ah tiyac arulac kuh.
'Tying an outrigger boom with a coconut-fiber string is not very strong.'

The head nouns of the subject noun phrases below are intransitive verbs which are used as nouns. The head nouns are followed by prepositional phrases. The term **prepositional phrase** refers to a construction which is made up of a preposition and a noun phrase. The entire subject noun phrases are underlined and noun phrases included in the subject noun phrases are italicized.

Sihpsihp ke *mos sac* ke *tin sac* arlac siruhpruhp.
'Cutting the breadfruit with a piece of tin made it very messy.'

Srihngsrihng ke *tuhlihk sac* oruh el mas.
'Hitting the child made him sick.'

Kahsruhsr luhn *tuhlihk sac* nuh ke *oak sako ah* ah arlac pihsrpihsr.
'The child's running to the canoe is very fast.'

Kuhnanuh ke *tepuh luhk ah* lal *Sohn* ah oruh el sisilac lutlut ah.
'The child's breaking of my table caused him to be kicked out of school.'

The head nouns of the subject noun phrases below are nominalized adjectives which can also introduce noun phrases within another noun phrase. In the following examples the included noun phrases are italicized.

Enganiyen *muhtwacn sac* sin *tuhlihk nahtuhl* ah tiyac srihk.
'The woman's gladness at the boy was very great.'

Kulukiyen *mwet sac* ke *sramsram uh* arlac na mohtohtlah.
'The man's badness with his talk is well known.'

Compound Noun Phrases

6.1.7 Noun phrases can be connected by the conjunctions *ac* 'and' and *na* 'only — and —'. The conjunction *na* can connect two noun phrases only. The conjunction *ac* can connect more than two noun phrases. The term **compound noun phrase** will refer to a noun phrase which is made up of two or more noun phrases connected by the conjunctions.

Some examples of compound noun phrases are presented below. Those underlined are whole compound noun phrases, and the noun phrases that are included are italicized.

Nga ac *el* ac som orekma mihsenge.
'I and he will go to work today.'

Nga na *el* ac som orekma mihsenge.
'Only I and he will go to work today.'

Sohn, Tom ac *Macri* tuhkuh olutu.
'John, Tom and Mary came this morning.'

Sohn na *Tom* tuhkuh olutu.
'Only John and Tom came this morning.'

Muhtwacn sac ac *mukul sac* macruhtlac ekweyah.
'The woman and the man were married yesterday.'

Niyuhk ac *pouk* ngalyak.
'My legs and hands ache.'

Mos lukoac suhnwacl Sepe ac *mos tolkoe suhnwacl Sah* ah ikori.
'Sepe's two breadfruit trees and Sa's three breadfruit trees fell down.'

Mukul tuhmwacl Sepe ac *muhtwacn sac* fohlohkoh.
'Sepe's and the woman's husbands returned.'

In some cases, a single head noun can be modified by two or more different sets of modifiers. In the example sentence below the head noun *sifen* 'head of' is modified by two different sets of modifiers (italicized).

Sifen *tuhlihk fuhlwact sac* ac *tuhlihk fact sac* arlac yohklac.
'The tall child's and the fat child's heads are very big.'

Compare the sentence above with the sentence below, in which the word *sifen* appears twice.

Sifen tuhlihk fuhlwact sac ac *sifen* tuhlihk fact sac arlac yohklac.
'The tall child's head and the fat child's head are very big.'

The subject noun phrase above is a compound noun phrase. The head nouns of the two noun phrases of the compound noun phrases are the same word, *sifen*. In order to avoid repetition, the second repeated head noun may be omitted.

Observe the following examples. The words in parentheses may be omitted.

Poun wes folfol sac ac (*poun*) wes sroalsroal sac arulac mihsacsac.
'The sleeves of the blue shirt and (those of) the black shirt are frayed.'

Ngoasron suhfah soko inge ac (*ngoasron*) suhfah soko ingacn tiyac oacna sie.
'The mouth of this bottle here is not identical to that of that bottle over there.'

The subject of the following sentence is also a compound noun phrase. The italicized parts of the two noun phrases of the compound noun phrases are the same:

Mos lukoac *suhnwacl Sohn ah* ac koacnu tolkoe *suhnwacl Sohn ah* puhtatlac.
'John's two breadfruit trees and John's three coconut trees fell down.'

The first italicized part can be deleted. Notice that the italicized part is not a head noun of a noun phrase but the modifiers of a head noun. The blank in the following sentence indicates the part which is deleted.

Mos lukoac ——— ac koacnu tolkoe suhnwacl Sohn ah puhtatlac.
'John's two breadfruit trees and three coconut trees fell down.'

Look at the following additional examples. The elements in parentheses can be omitted.

Sikutuhr soko (*nuhtin tuhlihk sac*) ac oak soko *nuhtin tuhlihk sac* muhsahllah.
'The child's (toy) scooter and (toy) canoe are broken.'

Puk se (*nahtuhl Sepe ah*) ac pinsuhl soko *nahtuhl Sepe ah* tuhlac.

Subject Marker *el*

6.1.8 It was pointed out that *el* is used both as a subject marker and as a subject pronoun. (See 4.4.1.1) In the first sentence below *el* is used as a subject marker, and in the second it is used as a pronoun.

Sohn *el* som fan mos.
'John went to pick breadfruit.'

El som orekma ekweyah.
'He went to work yesterday.'

The subject marker *el* is used when the subject noun phrase is a singular proper personal noun. When the subject consists of a compound noun phrase, as in the following sentence, *el* is not used.

Sepe ac *Sohn* tuhngyak.
'Sepe and John began to cry.'

When *el* is used as in the sentence below, whose subject is a compound noun phrase, *el* is not then a subject marker but a pronoun. Note the translation. The person who utters the sentence below has three persons in mind rather than just two persons.

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Sepe, Sohn ac *el* som orekma.
'Sepe, John and he went to work.'

Words such as *kosro* 'dog', *ahwowo* 'baby', *ninac* 'mother' or *pahpah* 'father' can sometimes be used as proper personal nouns. Look at the following examples.

Ninac
Pahpah
Kosro
Ahwowo
} *el* yihyih nwe inge.
'Mother (father, dog, baby) is still bathing (until now).'

To summarize, in this section we have talked about different types of noun phrases which are used as subjects. Some noun phrases are made up of single words and some others are made up of head nouns and modifiers. A noun phrase can be expanded indefinitely by including noun phrases within another noun phrase. This property has been referred to as the recursiveness of the noun phrase.

However, it must be emphasized that the noun phrase can function not only as a subject but also as an object of a verb or a preposition. Noun phrases functioning as objects of verbs or prepositions will be discussed in 6.2.

Subjectless Sentences

6.1.9 A sentence usually consists of a subject and a predicate. There are sentences that do not have subjects. In the following sentence, for example, there is no subject.

Af olutu Maclwem.
'(It) rained this morning in Maclwem.'

There are two nouns in the above sentence: *olutu* 'this morning' and *Maclwem* (a place name). But neither of them is the subject of the sentence. The term **subjectless sentence** obviously refers to sentences that do not have subjects.

When the predicate of a sentence is an intransitive verb or adjective whose meaning is related to weather or temperature, no subject is generally used. Look at the following additional examples.

Arlac ohu fong.
'(It was) very cold last night.'

Engyeng na pwacye mihsenge.
'(It is) very windy today.'

Fol na fol ekweyah.
'(It was) hot and hot yesterday.'

PREDICATES

6.2 We have stated that the subject and the predicate are the two major elements that constitute a sentence. In the preceding section, we analyzed the various types of constructions that can function as subjects of sentences. The purpose of this section is to analyze the types of constructions that can function as predicates of sentences. Words that belong to the two word-classes of verbs and adjectives usually function as predicates. It will also be shown that even a noun phrase can be a predicate of a sentence.

Transitive Verb Phrases

6.2.1 There are basically two classes of verbs: transitive and intransitive. One important difference between them is that the transitive verbs must have objects to make a sentence complete. For example, if someone said the following sentence, a listener might feel that it is not complete, and he would ask, "*Meac* 'what' or *Suc* 'who'."

Tuhlihk muhtwacn sac luhngse
'The girl likes . . .

The above sentence is considered incomplete because the object of the verb *luhngse* 'to like' or 'to love' is not expressed. The **object** of a verb is a thing or a person which is generally affected by the action of the verb. The term **transitive verb phrase** will be applied to a structure which is made up of a transitive verb and its object. The underlined parts of the sentences below are transitive verb phrases. The italicized parts indicate the objects.

Sepe el ono *nwek se.*
'Sepe is patching the net.'

Sah el fakihs *pahko soko.*
'Sah is trying to spear a shark.'

Sru el ahkos *lahm ah.*
'Sru is lighting the lamps.'

Nga soane *mwet sac.*
'I am waiting for the man.'

Objects

6.2.1.1 As we pointed out in 6.1, noun phrases function as subjects of sentences. We will now see that they can also serve as objects of transitive verbs. All the different types of noun phrases that function as subjects can also function as objects of transitive verbs. In the following sentences the italicized parts are objects.

Single Words as Objects

Sah el longyac *niyuhk*.
'Sah stepped on my foot.'

Nga srwack na esam *inel*.
'I still remember his name.'

Nga ac sun *kom* lutu.
'I will see you tomorrow.'

El kanglah lukoac.
'He ate two.'

Head nouns with modifiers as Objects

Salihk el oruh *lohm luo sin mwet sacn ah*.
'Salihk is making the two houses of that man.'

Ninac el orwaclah *fahfah na yuh se nwacl Sohn*.
'Mother made a very delicious fahfah for John.'

Eltahl ahsack *ik lukoac*.
'They caught two fish.'

Nominalized Verbs as Objects

Sru el luhngse *ituliyen ros ah*.
'Sru likes stringing flowers.'

Sru el luhngse *itut ros se lal Sepe*.
'Sru likes Sepe's flower-stringing.'

Sru el lungse *itut ke ros ah sel Sepe*.
'Sru likes the stringing of the flowers by Sepe.'

Sru el koase *fohkfohkiyen muhtahl Sohn ah*.
'Sru does not like the dirtiness of John's face.'

Object Marker *uhl*

6.2.1.2 The third person object pronoun suffix *uhl* is used both as an object marker and as an object pronoun. *Uhl* of the first sentence below is an object marker, and *uhl* of the second sentence below

is a pronoun. (See 4.2.3.1 for some other forms of the third person object pronoun suffix.)

Sru el esam*uhl* Sohn.
'Sru remembers John.'

Sru el esam*uhl*.
'Sru remembers him.'

Uhl as an object marker is used only when the object of a verb is a singular proper personal noun. This means that when the object is a compound noun phrase, as in the following sentence, the object marker is not used.

Sru el esam Sohn ac Sepe.
'Sru remembers John and Sepe.'

Intransitive Verb Phrases

6.2.2 Intransitive verb phrases are very similar to transitive verb phrases except that intransitive verb phrases do not have objects. Basic intransitive verb phrases are made up of single intransitive verbs, as the following examples show.

Won sac *kahskahs*.
'The bird is chirping.'

Tuhlihk sac srwack na *yihyih*.
'The child is still bathing.'

El *tuhngyak*.
'He began to cry.'

The intransitive verb phrases can be expanded with time and place phrases and with some prepositional phrases. Some examples of expanded intransitive verb phrases are presented below. (See 6.2.6 for details.)

Won sac kahskahs *lwen nuhkwewa*.
'The bird chirps every day.'

Tuhlihk sac srwack na yihyih *infacl ah*.
'The child is still bathing in the river.'

Eltahl wo *nuh sihk*.
'They shouted to me.'

El kahsruhsr *nuh ke oak soko ah*.
'He ran to the canoe.'

IVE PHRASES

Adjectives can also be predicates. The term **adjective phrase** will be applied to predicates whose main elements are adjectives. In the following examples, the predicates are adjectives.

Kosro soko ah *wellac*.
'The dog is mad.'

Sohn el arulac *puhlaik*.
'John is very brave.'

Mwet mahtuh sac arulac *lahlmwetmwet*.
'The old man is very wise.'

Adjective phrases can also be expanded with time and place phrases and with prepositional phrases. Some expanded adjective phrases are presented below.

Tuhlihk muhtwacn sac arulac mwekihn *lohm sihk ah*.
'The girl was very bashful at my house.'

Meoa ah pohlkuhlakyak *ekweyah*.
'The sea became rough yesterday.'

Sepe el arlac pwacr *sin mwet sac*.
'Sepe is very happy because of the man.'

Sah el toasr *sihk*.
'Sah is down-hearted because of me.'

Orekma sacn arlac fihsracsr *nuh sel Sohn*.
'That word is very easy for him.'

Susu sac yohk *nuh ke sifacl Salis*.
'The hat is big for Salis's head.'

Adjective phrases are very similar to intransitive verb phrases. However, adjectives and intransitive verbs are different from each other in terms of nominalization. (See 4.2.2 for details.) This difference is one of the reasons intransitive verb phrases and adjectives phrases are distinguished here. Another important difference is that adjective phrases are seldom modified by manner adverbs.

To summarize, we have discussed three different types of predicates: the transitive verb phrase, the intransitive verb phrase, and the adjective phrase. There is still another type of predicate, the **nominal predicate**, which refers to a noun phrase which is used as a predicate.

NOUN PHRASES AS PREDICATES

6.2.4 The functions of noun phrases in sentences are as subject, object of a transitive verb or a preposition, and in time or place adverbial phrases. Besides these functions, noun phrases can also be predicates of sentences. When a noun phrase is a predicate, a sentence can be made up of two noun phrases, as in the sentences presented below.

Subject	*Predicate*
Nga 'I am a student.'	tuhlihk lutlut se.
Sohn ac Sah 'John and Sah are fishermen.'	mwet pahtuhr.
Mwet sacn 'That person is a woman.'	muhtwacn se.
Tuhlihk kuh sac 'That healthy child is a brother of John's.'	ma wiyacl Sohn.
Ma sacn 'That thing is a banana plant.'	usr soko.

EQUATIONAL SENTENCES

The term **equational sentence** will be used to refer to a sentence whose predicate is a noun phrase. The sentences presented above are equational sentences. Equational sentences can be divided into two types on the basis of the definiteness of two noun phrases. Returning to the equational sentences presented above, we notice that the subject noun phrases are definite and the predicate noun phrases are not definite. (See 6.1.5 for the definition of the definite noun phrases.)

On the basis of the above analysis, one type of equational sentence can be generalized in the following diagram.

Equational Sentence (Predication)

Subject	**Predicate**
definite noun phrase	non-definite noun phrase

The type of equational sentence presented above is used to express the idea that the thing or person referred to by the

subject noun phrase has the property of a thing referred to by the predicate noun phrase.

The other type of equational sentence can be generalized in the following diagram.

Equational Sentence (Identification)

Subject	*pa*	**Predicate**
definite or non-definite noun phrase		definite noun phrase

The second type of equational sentence differs from the first in the following respects. First, there is a word *pa* which links the subject and the predicate. Second, the subject noun phrase can be definite or non-definite, but the predicate noun phrase must be definite. The second type of equational sentence is used to identify a certain thing on the basis of a thing that is already identified.

Some equational sentences of the second type are presented below:

Subject definite NP	*Predicate definite NP*
Kom pa 'You are Sah.'	Sah.
Kuhn pa 'Kuhn is he.'	el.
Mwet luti sac pa 'The teacher is that man.'	mwet sacn.
Mwet sac pa 'The man is the thief.'	mwet pihsrapasr sac.
Subject non-definite NP	*Predicate definite NP*
Ma lal pa 'His things are the clothes.'	nuknuk ah.
Oak soko pa 'A canoe is the thing of of Sah's.'	ma okoacl Sah ah.

The equational sentences that use *pa* as a linker will be dealt with again in 11 where cleft sentences are discussed.

Predicate Words

6.2.5 In 5.10 we examined the derivation of predicate words, which are derived from nouns with the addition of the suffix *-lah*, *-ack* or *-acng*. The word *sruhnack* 'to sprout up', for example, is made up of the noun *sruhn* 'shoot' or 'sprout' and the directional suffix *-ack* 'up'. The derived word *sruhnack* is not a verb, adjective, or noun, but is used solely as a predicate. Look at the following sentences in which predicate words function as predicate.

Sepe el *susuyang*.	'Sepe had a hat on.'
Inum ah *loangyak*.	'The kitchen began to be swarming with flies.'
Sohn el *mwet pahtuhrlac*.	'John became a fisherman.'

Expansion of Predicates

6.2.6 In 6.1.3, we observed that the central part of a noun phrase is the head noun. A noun phrase can be expanded with the addition of modifiers such as adjectives, numerals, and classifiers to the head noun. Likewise, a predicate can be expanded with the addition of words or phrases denoting time, place, and manner. The term **adverbial** will be used to refer to words or phrases that modify the basic predicates.

Time Adverbials: Point and Duration

6.2.6.1 Verb phrases can be expanded with the addition of noun phrases or prepositional phrases that denote the time of an action or an event. To the verb phrase of the first sentence below, a noun phrase or a prepositional phrase that denotes time can be added.

El orwaclah lohm sac.
'He built the house.'

El orwaclah lohm sac *lwenyoh*.
'He built the house the day before yesterday.'

El orwaclah lohm sac *ke wik met ah*.
'He built the house last week.'

Time adverbials can denote either a duration or a point of time Time adverbials that denote duration can be subclassified into two groups.

1. Those that denote only a duration of time, as the following time adverbials.

Sepe el oul nuknuk ah *ao luo*.
'Sepe has been washing the clothes for two hours.'

Eltahl muhsahi lohm sacnri ah *mahlwem tolu*.
'They have been building the church for three months.'

Nga riti puk sac *lwen luo*.
'I have been reading the book for two days.'

2. those that denote not only a duration of time but also a change of state or accomplishment of goal, as the time adverbials in the following sentences.

Sepe el ollah nuknuk ah *ke ao ahkosr*.
'Sepe washed the clothes in four hours.'

Sah el retelah puk sac *ke wik luo*.
'Sah read the book in two weeks.'

Lohm sac muhsahiyuhklac *ke mahlwem limekohsr*.
'The house was built in five months.'

Notice that the preposition *ke* is used with time adverbials that denote a duration of time and an accomplishment of a goal, but not with time adverbials that denote only a duration of time.

Time adverbials that denote a point of time can be further subclassified into two groups.

1. those that denote a point of time without any reference to the starting or ending point, as the time adverbials in the following sentences.

1. Sepe el misac { *fong.* / *ekweyah.* / *olutu.* / *mihsenge.* } 'Sepe died { last night. / yesterday. / this morning. / today. }

2. Sah el tuhkuh { *ke wik met ah.* / *ke mahlwem met ah.* / *ke yac met ah.* }
'Sah came { last week. / last month. / last year. }'

The preposition *ke* is used in the second sentence above but not in the first. The presence of the preposition is determined by the words that are used as time adverbials. Words that are listed below do not require the preposition *ke*. (See 4.9.2.3 for a detailed list.)

fong	'last night'	yohfong	'the night before last night'
ekweyah	'yesterday'	lutu	'tomorrow'
mihsenge	'today'	olutu	'this morning'

However, the preposition *ke* must be used with the words listed below.

minit	'minute'	ao	'hour'
lwen	'day'	wik	'week'
mahlwem	'month'	yac	'year'

2. those that denote either the starting or the ending point. In the following sentences the time adverbials which appear in italics denote the starting points and those in small capitals denote the ending points.

Sohn el orek ma *lwenyoh* nwe MIHSENGE.
'John worked from the day before yesterday until today.'

Sepe el ac muhta inge *mihsenge* nwe LUTU.
'Sepe will stay here from today until tomorrow.'

The ending points are expressed by the preposition *nwe* (or *nuh*). The preposition *ke* is not used in the sentences above because the words used as time adverbials are those that do not require the preposition. However, in the following time adverbials the preposition *ke* is used.

Sepe el orek ma *ke Mahs 15* NUH KE MAHS 25.
'Sepe worked from March 15 until March 25.'

Sah el kauli *ke Sacnwuhri* NUH KE SULAHE.
'Sah was in hospital from January to July.'

Tuhlwen el *ac* muhta Awai NUH KE WIK FAHSR UH.
'Tuhlwen will stay in Hawaii until next week.'

In expressing continuation of time from a certain point of time, the directional suffixes *-me* 'to the speaker' and *-lah* 'away' are used. The suffix *-me* is used when the starting point is past, as in *ekweyah me* 'from yesterday on'. On the other hand, *-lac* is used when the starting point is present, as in *mihsenge lac* 'from today on'. Look at the following example sentences.

Sepe el nuh nuh otwot fohtoh *ke wik met ah me*.
'Sepe has been weaving baskets since last week.'

Sohn el ac tiyac sismohk *mihsenge lac*.
'John will not smoke from today on.'

Place Adverbials: Position and Direction

6.2.6.2 A predicate can be expanded with place expressions such as *inge* 'here', *Kosrae* 'in Kusaie' or *ke acn sacn* 'at that place'. The term **place adverbials** will be used to refer to a place expression in a predicate. Place adverbials are of two kind: **location adverbials** such as *Kosrae* 'in Kusaie' or *inge* 'here' that denote location, and **direction adverbials** such as *liki acn sac* 'from that place' or *Ponpe me* 'from Ponape' or *nuh Ponpe* 'to Ponape' which denote starting points or goals. In what follows, we will observe the location adverbials first and then the directional adverbials.

LOCATION ADVERBIALS

There are two kinds of location adverbials. One type uses the preposition *ke* 'at', 'in' or 'on', and the other does not. In the example sentences below, the italicized parts are location adverbials. In the first sentence, the preposition *ke* is not used, but in the second it is.

1. Kuhn el sonol Sepe { *Ponpe.* / *lihkihn um ah.* / *ingacn.* }
   'Kuhn met Sepe in Ponape/outside the house/there.'

2. Kuhn el sonol Sepe { *ke acn sac.* / *ke stohr ah.* }
   'Kuhn met Sepe at the place/at the store.'

The use of the preposition *ke* depends upon the words that function as place adverbials. Words that belong to the following sets do not use the preposition *ke* when they are used as location adverbials.

1. *Proper Place Names* (See 4.1.2.3)

Muhkihl	'Mokil'	Kosrae	'Kusaie'
Ponpe	'Ponape'	Pihnglacp	'Pinglap'
Ruk	'Truk'	Utwac	'Utwac'

2. *Relational Nouns* (See 4.1.2.3)

lihkihn	'outside of'	lun	'inside of'
kapihn	'end of'	muhtuhn	'front of'
sisken	'side of'	fin	'top of'

3. *Locative Nouns* (See 4.1.2.3)

insack	'forest'	inkof	'ocean'
inlohm	'in the house'	inloa	'reedy area'

4. *Locative Determiners* (See 4.7.2.5)

inge	'here'	ingacn	'there'
ingoh	'over there'	ingi	'way out there'

When words belonging to the sets listed above are used as place adverbials, no preposition is required. Observe the following example sentences in which the place adverbials are drawn from the sets above.

Sepe el muhta { *Muhkihl.* / *lihkihn puhk ah.* / *inge.* } 'Sepe is staying { in Mokil.' / at the beach.' / here.' }

Kuhn el sruokyac pik soko ah { *Utwac.* / *lun insack ah.* / *engi.* }

'Kuhn caught the pig { in Utwac.' / inside the forest.' / way over there.' }

When words such *tepuh* 'table' or *tuhp* 'a container' which do not belong to the sets above are used as locational adverbials, the preposition *ke* must be used.

Kosro soko ah oan ke { *tepuh* sac. / *tuhp* sac. / *siyac* sac. }

'The dog is lying near { the table.' / the container.' / the chair.' }

DIRECTION ADVERBIALS

Direction adverbials can be subdivided into **source adverbials** and **goal adverbials**. Source adverbials denote starting points and goal adverbials denote goals to which certain actions are directed.

When proper place names, relational nouns, and locative determiners are used as source adverbials, no preposition is

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required. But when words other than proper place names, relational nouns, and locative determiners are used as source adverbials, the preposition *liki* 'from' must be used. In expressing source adverbials, the directional suffixes are used after the words that indicate the sources. Look at the following example sentences. In the first sentence below, the source adverbial, (italicized) is expressed without the preposition *liki*. But in the second sentence, the source adverbial is expressed with the preposition *liki*. Note the presence of the directional suffixes.

1. Sepe el tuhkuh { *Ponpe* / *tukun lohm sac* ... *me.* / *ingoh* }

'Sepe came from { Ponape.' / behind the house.' / there.' }

2. Sepe el som liki { *acn sac* / *stohr* ... *lac.* / *wohf ah* }

'Sepe went from { the place.' / the store.' / the wharf.' }

In expressing goal adverbials the prepositions *nuh* 'to' and *nuh ke* 'to' are used. When words that are used as goal adverbials are proper place names, relational nouns, or locative determiners, the preposition *nuh* is used. In other cases the preposition *nuh ke* is used. In the first set of example sentences below, the preposition *nuh* is used because the words denoting goals are a proper place name, *Kosrae* 'Kusaie', a relational noun *muhtuhn* 'front of', and a locative determiner *ingoh* 'there'. In the second set of sentences below, the preposition *nuh ke* is used because the words denoting the goals are not proper place names, relational nouns, nor locative determiners.

Sah el som *nuh Kosrae*.
'Sah went to Kusaie.'

Sah el yuhlac *nuh muhtuhn lohm sacnri ah*.
'Sah ran to the front of the church.'

Sah el kofkof nuh *ingoh*.
'Sah swam to there.'

Sepe el kahsruhsr *nuh ke lohm lutlut ah.*
'Sepe ran to the school.'

Sepe el kofkof *nuh ke oak soko ah.*
'Sepe swam to the canoe.'

Sepe el lihseni won ah *nuh ke acn sacn.*
'Sepe chased the chickens to that place.'

Within a predicate, both a source adverbial and a goal adverbial can occur together. Look at the following sentences, in which both of the adverbials occur together.

Ninac el pahtoklah pohk sac *liki infakihl sac nuh inum ah.*
'Mother pushed the box from the room to the kitchen.'

El kalkal *Utwac me nuh Leluh.*
'He sailed from Utwac to Leluh.'

Sohn kahsruhsr *Maclwem lac nuh Tacfuhnsahk.*
'John ran from Maclwem to Tahfuhnsahk.'

Manner Adverbials

6.2.6.3 As we have noted, there are different kinds of adverbs (See 4.9). The term **manner adverbs** will be applied to adverbs that denote the way or the manner in which an action or an event takes place. The adverb *pihsrpihsr* 'fast' or 'quick' in the sentence below modifies the preceding verb *orekma* 'to work' in terms of manner.

Kuhn el orekma arulac *pihsrpihsr.*
'Kuhn works very fast.'

Some further examples of manner adverbs (in italics) are presented below.

Tom el kahskahs Kosrae *wo.*
'Tom speaks Kusaiean well.'

Sepe el kahskahs Inglis *kahlwem.*
'Sepe speaks English very clearly.'

Nga liye *kahlwem* oak soko ah.
'I saw the canoe very clearly.'

El riti puk sac *upac.*
'He is reading the book very diligently.'

sitional Phrases

4 Predicates can be further expanded with prepositional phrases. The number and kinds of prepositional phrases that can potentially occur in a predicate depend mainly upon the individual verbs or adjectives. The meanings of the prepositional phrases in predicates also depend upon the individual verbs or adjectives. (See 4.8 for the different meanings of prepositions.) Below are some examples (italicized) of prepositional phrases. Prepositional phrases that denote time and place are presented in 6.2.6.2–3.

Nga kuhkakuhnlah pik soko ah *nuh sin muhtwacn sac.*
'I sold the pig to the woman.'

Eltahl oruh mongo ah *nuh ke macruht sac.*
'They are making the food for the marriage.'

Ninac el arlac ahsor *ke misac luhn tuhlihk se nahtuhl ah.*
'Mother is very sad because of her child's death.'

Kuhn el arlac ahsor *sin muhtwacn na kahto sac.*
'Kuhn is very sad because of the pretty woman.'

Sepe el oul nuknuk ah *ke sop pauta.*
'Sepe is washing the clothes with soap powder.'

Sohn el fakfuhk ik *ke pahmpu soko.*
'John is spearing fish with a bamboo stick.'

Pahpah el molelah acn sacn *ke tala siofok.*
'Father bought the land for ten dollars.'

More than one prepositional phrase can be used in a predicate. In the following sentences, more than one prepositional phrases are used.

Eltahl oruh mongo ah *ke muhtah nuh ke macruht sac.*
'They are making the food with yams for the marriage.'

Nga molelah oak soko ah *sin mwet sac ke tala siofok.*
'I bought the canoe from the man for one hundred dollars.'

El pahtoklah pohk sac *liki imum ah nuh ke acn sacn.*
'He pushed the box from the kitchen to that place.'

assifiers as Parts of Predicates

2.6.5 One main function of the classifiers is to modify a head noun in a noun phrase. Specifically the classifiers make the meaning of alienable nouns more specific by helping to express the possessors. Besides this main function in a noun phrase, the classifiers have

another important function, to indicate benefactors, in a verb phrase. The term **benefactor** refers to a person who is favorably affected by, or who benefits from, an action or an event.

Observe the positions of the classifier *lal* in the following two sentences. In the first sentence *lal* appears before the determiner *ah*, but in the second sentence, it appears after *ah*.

Nga molelah rais *lal* Sohn ah.
'I have bought John's rice.'

Nga molelah rais ah *lal* Sohn.
'I have bought the rice for John.'

As the position of the classifier *lal* in the two sentences above is different, so is the meaning of the two sentences. In the first sentence, the classifier *lal* is a part of the object noun phrase. By means of the classifier, the possessor of the rice is expressed. But *lal* of the second sentence above is not a part of the object noun phrase. *Lal* indicates a new possessor. That is, it means that I have bought the rice for him. Consequently, the meanings of the two sentences above are quite different from each other. In the case of the first sentence *lal* is used to indicate an original possessor of the rice. In the case of the second sentence it indicates a new possessor of the rice.

In the example sentence below, there are two classifiers. The first *lal* is a part of the object noun phrase while the second *lal* is not, but is a part of the whole verb phrase.

Sohn el molelah ik *lal* Sepe ah *lal* Sru.
'John has bought Sepe's fish for Sru.'

The second classifier *lal* of the sentence above indicates the benefactor.

Other classifiers such as *nahtuhl*, *nwacl*, *suhnwacl*, or *nihmacl* can also be used to denote a benefactor in a verb phrase. Observe the following examples in which the classifiers are used to denote benefactors.

Nga orwaclah oak sohk soko ah *nahtuhl Kuhn*.
'I made the (toy) canoe for Kuhn.'

Nga sang mos ah *nwacl Kuhn*.
'I took the breadfruit for Kuhn.'

Nga yukwiyac mos soko ah *suhnwacl Sepe*.
'I planted the breadfruit tree for Sepe.'

Nga sang kuhp in kof se *nihmacl Sepe*.
'I took a cup of water for Sepe.'

ne classifiers indicating benefactors in a verb phrase can be used th derived intransitive verbs only when they are used with their cluded objects. (See 6.2.7.2 for the definition of included jects.) Without them, the classifiers cannot be used. Some amples are presented below. The included objects are italicized.

Nga twetwe *mitmit* nahtuhl Sepe.
'I am knife-sharpening for Sepe.'

Nga sihpsihp *tuh* niyacl ahwowo.
'I am cutting sugar cane for the baby.'

El yok *mos* suhnwacl pahpah.
'I am breadfruit planting for father.'

El orek *fahfah* nwacl Kuhn.
'He is poi-making for Kuhn.'

lthough the classifiers indicating benefactors in a verb phrase o not belong to the object noun phrase, they must agree with he head nouns of the object noun phrase or with included bjects. In the following sentence, a blank is left for a classifier.

Pahpah el molelah oak soko ah ——— Sohn.
'Father bought the canoe for John.'

When the canoe is a toy, the classifier *nahtuhl* must be used. When he canoe is a real canoe, the classifier *okoacl* must be used. In the ollowing example sentence, a blank for a classifier is left.

Sohn el uslah mos ah ——— Sepe.
'John bought the breadfruit for Sepe.'

When the noun phrase *mos ah* refers to trees, *suhnwacl* (classifier for plants) must be used. When it refers to food, *nwacl* (classifier for food) must be used. (See 4.5 for the uses of the classifiers.)

Verbs and Their Derived Intransitive Verbs

As we have said earlier, there are basically two classes of verbs in Kusaiean: **transitive** and **intransitive**. Transitive verbs require an object while intransitive verbs do not. In addition to these two basic classes, there is a third type called **derived intransitive verbs**. They are so called because each of them is derived from (or comes from) a transitive verb. Consequently, the transitive

verb and its derived intransitive verb are closely related both in form and meaning.

For example, the transitive verb *twem* 'to sharpen' has a related intransitive verb *twetwe* which also means 'to sharpen'. The form *twem* is used in a sentence like the following where a definite direct object is specified.

Sepe el *twem* mitmit sac.
'Sepe is sharpening the knife.'

The derived intransitive form *twetwe* is used in the following sentences where the object is indefinite, or where there is no direct object at all.

Sepe el *twetwe* mitmit.
'Sepe is knife-sharpening.'

Sepe el *twetwe*.
'Sepe is sharpening.'

*Twetwe*lac mitmit sac.
'The knife is sharpened.'

Most transitive verbs have a related derived intransitive form which is used when the object is not expressed or when the object is indefinite. (Verbs which are basically intransitive such as *kahsruhsr* 'to run', do not have corresponding transitive forms.) We will now look at the ways in which derived intransitive verbs are formed from transitive verbs, and will note some examples to illustrate the differences between transitive verbs and their derived forms.

Transitive and Derived Intransitive Verb Forms

6.2.7.1 In this section we will discuss how an intransitive verb can be related to its corresponding transitive verb in terms of form. There are ten types, each of which will be discussed separately. In the following discussion, it will be assumed that the transitive verb forms are basic and that the intransitive verb forms are derived from them.

1. When a transitive verb is a closed monosyllable, the last consonant is deleted and the remaining form undergoes reduplication when it is converted to the intransitive form. The transitive verb *til* 'to collect' has the intransitive form *titi*. Between the transitive verb *til* and its intransitive verb *titi*, the following changes are involved: First, the final consonant *l* in *til*

is deleted and *ti* remains. Second, the remaining form *ti* undergoes reduplication to become *titi*.

Look at the following additional examples. The first word in each pair is a transitive verb form and the second is a derived intransitive verb form.

Transitive Verb	*Intransitive Verb*	*Gloss*
kahl	kahkah	'to touch'
sral	srasra	'to extend'
tul	tutu	'to copulate'

The transitive verb *lihs* has the intransitive verb form *lihllihl*. In the case of this verb, the final *s* of the transitive verb form is replaced by the initial *l* as in *lihl*. The newly created syllable *lihl* undergoes reduplication to become *lihllihl*.

2. The transitive verbs *pwi* 'to bind' and *fwi* 'to spray' have the intransitive verb forms *pihp* and *fihf* respectively. Both of the transitive verbs are open monosyllables, which are closed with the initial consonants to become intransitive verb forms.

3. Transitive verbs of *CweC* have their corresponding intransitive verbs of *CwacCa*. The transitive verb *twen* 'to wash' has the intransitive verb *twacta*. Look at the following additional examples:

Transitive Verb	*Intransitive Verb*	*Gloss*
pwen	pwacpa	'to lead'
nwek	nwacna	'to fill'
twem	twacta	'to sharpen'
ngwes	ngwacnga	'to aim'

So far we have seen monosyllabic transitive verbs and their derived intransitive forms. In the following pages, we will look at disyllabic transitive verbs and their derived intransitive forms. The vowel in the first syllable of a two-syllable word can be short or long. First let us observe transitive verbs of two-syllable words which have short first vowels.

4. When both vowels of two-syllable transitive verbs are high, the first short vowels become long and the last vowels and consonants are omitted. The remaining forms undergo reduplication. The intransitive verb form *kulkul* 'to peel' of the transitive verb *kulus* 'to peel' is derived in the following way. First, the last vowel *u* and the last consonant *s* are deleted. Second, the first short vowel *u* becomes long. Third, the remaining form undergoes

reduplication. The changes noted above are represented in the following way:

kulus	
kul	After *u* and *s* are deleted.
ku:l	After *u* are lengthened.
ku:l-ku:l	After reduplication.

Observe the following additional pairs.

Transitive Verb	*Intransitive Verb*	*Gloss*
futung	futfut	'to kick'
nukum	nuknuk	'to cover'
lihpihk	lihplihp	'to split'
lihsrihng	lihsrlihsr	'to curtain'
siki	siksik	'to pull'

5. The transitive verb *kuhruh* 'to mix' has an intransitive verb form *karkar*. Between the two forms, the following changes seem to take place. First, the last vowel *uh* of *kuhruh* is deleted. Second, the first *uh* in *kuhruh* becomes *a*. Third, the remaining form *kar* undergoes reduplication. The changes above are represented in the following way:

kuhruh	
kuhr	After the last *uh* is deleted.
kar	After the first *uh* is changed to *a*.
karkar	After the reduplication.

The last syllable of *kuhruh* is an open syllable. When the last syllable is a closed one, as in *fuhluhng* 'to split' the last consonant is deleted and *fuhluhng* becomes *falfal*.

Here are some additional pairs.

Transitive Verb	*Intransitive Verb*	*Gloss*
sruhmuhn	sramsram	'to talk'
suhpuh	sapsap	'to send'
kuhluhs	kalkal	'to fence'
puhtuh	patpat	'to bore'

6. Two-syllable transitive verbs whose first vowels are high and short and whose second vowels are mid and long can be classified into three subclasses in terms of their intransitive verb forms. Each of the three classes will be examined below.

A. The intransitive verb form of *ngusrok* 'to sniff at' is *ngosr*. Between the two verb forms, we can note two differences. First, the first short high vowel *u* of *ngusrok* becomes mid and long. Second, the last vowel *o* and the last consonant *k* of *ngusrok* are deleted. The above changes are represented in the following way:

ngusrok	
ngosrok	After *u* is lowered and lengthened.
ngosr	After *o* and *k* are deleted.

The verb listed below have the same changes between the transitive and intransitive verbs.

Transitive Verb	*Intransitive Verb*	*Gloss*
kihne	kuhn	'to concoct'
wihte	woht	'to vomit'
urok	wor	'to turn'
tuong	to	'to baby-sit'
fure	for	'to twist'

B. The intransitive verb form of *kihte* 'to give' is *kihtakat*. The transitive verb has a first short and high vowel and a second long mid vowel. Its corresponding intransitive verb has the *CihCaCaC* shape. Look at the following additional examples:

Transitive Verb	*Intransitive Verb*	*Gloss*
srihke	srihkasrak	'to measure'
pihsre	pihsrapasr	'to steal'
sriluhng	srilasral	'to alternate'

When the first vowel is *u* as in *fure*, the intransitive verb has the *CuCohCohC* form.

Look at the following additional examples.

Transitive Verb	*Intransitive Verb*	*Gloss*
fule	fulohfohl	'to squeeze'
sule	sulohsohl	'to choose'
luwos	luwohlohm	'to swallow'

C. The intransitive verb form of *ituhng* 'to press' is *itact*. Between the two forms we note the following differences. The last consonant *ng* of *ituhng* is first deleted and the second syllable becomes open, but the open syllable is closed again with *t*,

which is the initial consonant of the second syllable. The second vowel *uh* of *ituhng* not only undergoes a change in height but also becomes a front vowel. The fronting occurs because both *t*'s are plain consonants. The changes noted above are represented in the following way:

ituhng	
ituh	After *ng* is deleted.
ituht	After the second syllable is closed.
itact	After *uh* is lowered and fronted.

The intransitive verb of *une* 'to pluck' is *unohn*. The second vowel in *une* is front, but becomes the back round vowel *oh*. The rounding takes place because the surrounding consonants *n*'s are round. Observe the following additional examples.

Transitive Verb	*Intransitive Verb*	*Gloss*
ise	isacs	'to squeeze'
uke	ukohk	'to chase'
ikuhs	ikack	'to open'
isong	isacs	'to push'

In the preceding section we observed two-syllable transitive verbs whose first vowels are short. In the sections to follow we will observe transitive verbs whose first vowels are long.

D. The first vowel of *fakihs* 'to spear' is *a* which is long and low. The second vowel *ih* which is high and long. The corresponding intransitive verb is *fakfuhk*. Between the two forms we note the following differences. The last consonant *s* and the last vowel *ih* of *fakihs* are deleted. The remaining form *fak* undergoes a complete reduplication. The second *a* of *fakfak* is raised to *uh*. The changes are represent below.

fakihs	
fak	After *ih* and *s* are deleted.
fakfak	After reduplication.
fakfuhk	After the second *a* is raised to *uh*.

Any transitive verb whose first vowel is *a* and whose second vowel is a long high vowel *i*, *ih*, or *u* has the intransitive verb form *CaCCuhC*. Look at the following additional examples.

Transitive Verb	*Intransitive Verb*	*Gloss*
falihs	falfuhl	'to mend'

Transitive Verb	*Intransitive Verb*	*Gloss*
lafihs	lafluhf	'to scoop'
patihk	patpuht	'to hammar'
taun	tatuh	'to bury'
sauk	sasuh	'to catch'

The transitive verbs below do not have final consonants, but the form of their intransitive verbs is the same as that of *fakihs*, in that the first vowel is *a* and the second vowel is *uh*.

Transitive Verb	*Intransitive Verb*	*Gloss*
srawi	srasruh	'to cover'
kawi	kakuh	'to scratch'
tawi	tatuh	'to weave'

The following transitive verbs do not have initial consonants. The *y* glide appears as an initial consonant of the second syllable of the reduplicated intransitive verb form.

Transitive Verb	*Intransitive Verb*	*Gloss*
apihs	apyuhp	'to sting'
afihn	afyuhf	'to cover'
awi	ayuh	'to tie'

8. The intransitive verb of *tahpuhk* 'to lift' is *taptap*. Between the two forms, the following changes are noticeable. First, the last consonant *k* and the last vowel *uh* of *tahpuhk* are deleted. After the deletion, *p* becomes the final consonant of the syllable *tahp*. After the syllable is restructured, the vowel *ah* of *tahp* is changed into *a*, possibly due to the velarized quality of the stop *p*. *Tap* is reduplicated to become *taptap*. The above changes are represented below.

tahpuhk	
tahp	After *uh* and *k* are deleted.
tap	After *ah* is changed to *a*.
taptap	After the reduplication.

Observe the following additional examples.

Transitive Verb	*Intransitive Verb*	*Gloss*
tahkuhs	taktak	'to take meat out'
tahluhk	taltal	'to pull out'

9. The intransitive verb form of *fahros* 'to embrace' is
We notice the following changes between the two forms.
consonant *s* and the last vowel *o* of *fahros* are deleted
remaining form *fahr* undergoes reduplication. Observe
lowing additional examples.

Transitive Verb	*Intransitive Verb*	*Gloss*
pahngon	pahngpahng	'to call'
pahtok	pahtpaht	'to push'

10. The causative verbs are derived from nouns, adjec
intransitive verbs with the addition of the causative pre
and the suffix *-ye*. The causative verb *ahkkulukye* 'to mal
for example, is derived from the adjective *kuluk* 'bad'. (
The causative transitive verbs have their corresponding
intransitive verbs. Derived intransitive verbs of the ca
transitive verbs are derived when the suffix *-ye* is taken
Ahkkulukye, for instance, is a causative transitive verb. W
suffix *-ye* is taken away from *ahkkulukye*, a derived intra
verb *ahkkuluk* is derived.

Some additional examples are provided below.

Causative Transitive Verb	*Derived Intransitive Verb*	*Gloss*
ahkahsorye	ahkahsor	'to make sad'
ahkpwacrye	ahkpwacr	'to make glad'
ahkmwekihnye	ahkmwekihn	'to make ashamed'
ahkfototoye	ahkfototo	'to make short'

Distinctions Between Transitive Verbs and Derived Intransitive Verb

6.2.7.2 In the preceding section, we observed how the derived intran
verbs are derived from their related transitive verbs. The pu
of this section is to present the differences in uses betwee
transitive verbs and the derived intransitive verbs. Using the
of verbs *twem* 'to sharpen' (transitive) and *twetwe* 'to shar
(intransitive), we will see the differences between them. T
differences will be applicable to any pair consisting of a trans
verb and its derived intransitive verb.

Since *twem* is a transitive verb, it must be used with its ob
But *twetwe* can be followed by a noun which looks like an ob
Let us first observe the following pair of sentences.

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Nga *twem* mitmit sahfiht sac.
'I am sharpening the dull knife.'

Nga *twetwe* mitmit.
'I am knife-sharpening.'

In the second sentence above, the derived intransitive verb *twe* is followed by the noun *mitmit* 'knife'. This noun looks like object but is not. *Mitmit* after *twetwe* cannot take any modi of a numeral or a determiner. If *mitmit* is used with so modifiers, such as determiners or numerals, the sentence becor ungrammatical.

Nga twetwe mitmit sac. (ungrammatical) or
Nga twetwe mitmit sahfiht sac. (ungrammatical)

Twetwe plus *mitmit* forms a compound intransitive verb, a *mitmit* cannot be modified by a determiner or by a numeral. T fact that they form a compound intransitive verb will be sho in the following paragraphs.

The directional suffixes such as *-lah* and *-oht* are attach right after the transitive verb but they are suffixed after unmodified noun. Observe the following sentences. In the fi sentence, the verb is transitive and the suffix *-lah* is attached the verb. In the second sentence, the suffix is attached to *mitm*

El twem*lah* mitmit sahfiht sac.
'He has sharpened the dull knife.'

El twetwe mitmit*lac*.
'He has knife-sharpened.'

The position of the suffix *-lah* shows that *twetwe* and *mitmit* for a verb stem to which *-lah* is attached. In the first addition example sentences, the verbs are transitive verbs and in t second sentences, the verbs are derived intransitive verbs. Noti the position of the suffix *-lah*.

1. Sepe el ol*lah* nuknuk fohkfohk ah.
   'Sepe washed the dirty clothes.'
2. Sepe el owo nuknuk*lac* tari.
   'Sepe washed clothes.'
1. Sah el etol*lah* ros ah.
   'Sah has strung the flowers.'
2. Sah el itut ros*lac*.
   'Sah has flower-strung.'

The object-like noun which is used with the derived intransi verb forms a compound intransitive verb. The term **inclu object** or **incorporated object** is often used to refer to the obj like nouns such a *mitmit*, *nuknuk*, and *ros* as in *twetwe mitmit* sharpen knives', *owo nuknuk* 'to clothes-wash' and *itut ros* flower-string', respectively. In this grammar the term **inclu object** will be adopted.

When an inalienable noun functions as an included obj either the free form or the impersonal form can be used. inalienable noun referring to 'hand' has the following forms:

	Singular	*Plural*
Free Form	po	
Impersonal Form	paho	
First Person Form	pouk	pouktacl
Second Person Form	poum	poumtacl
Third Person Form	pahol	paholtahl

Only the two forms *po* and *paho* can be used as included obje

Look at the following sentence in which the intransitive fo *srasra* of the transitive verb *sral* 'to raise' is used.

Mwet Sacpacnis ah srasra *po* (or *paho*) ke mweun ahkluo ah.
'The Japanese raised hands (surrendered) in the second World War.'

Some additional examples are provided below.

El owo *po* (or *paho*).
'He is washing hands.'

El acac *ne* (or *niyac*).
'He is massaging legs.'

Another difference between transitive and intransitive verbs that manner adverbs and the question word *fuhkah* 'how' appear either before or after the object of a transitive verb. neither manner adverbs nor *fuhkah* can occur between the deri intransitive verb and its included object. This seems to show ag that a derived intransitive verb and its included object form tightly bound unit. Observe the positions of *upac* 'hard' 'diligently' and *fuhkah* 'how' in the following sentences.

1. Sah el twem *upac* mitmit sac. or
2. Sah el twem mitmit sac *upac*.
'Sah is sharpening the knife diligently.'

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3. Sah el twetwe mitmit *upac*.
'Sah is diligently knife-sharpening.'

1. Kom ac twem *fuhkah* mitmit sac? or

2. Kom ac twem mitmit sac *fuhkah*?
'How will you sharpen the knife?'

3. Kom ac twetwe mitmit *fuhkah*?
'How will you knife-sharpen?'

So far, we have observed that the derived intransitive verb and its included object form a compound intransitive verb. In the following paragraphs, evidence will be presented to show that *twem* is a transitive verb and *twetwe* is an intransitive verb.

The suffix *-yuhk* (passive) is used with transitive verbs to form the passive of transitive verbs. Since *twem* is a transitive verb, *-yuhk* can be used with it, but not with *twetwe*.

twem	'to sharpen'	twem-yuhk	'to be sharpened'
twetwe	'to sharpen'	no passive form	

Observe the following additional examples. The first verb of each pair is a transitive verb and the second one is a derived intransitive verb.

kihte	'to give'	kihteyuhk	'to be given'
kihtakat		no passive form	
ituhng	'to press'	ituhngyuhk	'to be pressed'
itact		no passive form	
isihk	'to burn'	isihkyuhk	'to be burned'
isis		no passive form	

The suffix *-kihn* (instrumental) changes an intransitive verb into a transitive verb. It can therefore be used with *twetwe* but not with *twem*, which is a transitive verb. The first word of each pair of the following examples is a transitive verb and the second one is an intransitive verb.

usruk	'to shake'	none	
usrusr		usrusrkihn	'to shake with'
tahpuhk	'to take out'	none	
taptap		taptapkihn	'to take out with'
fure	'to turn'	none	
for		forkihn	'to twist with'

In the examples given above, the suffix *-kihn* is attached to the derived intransitive verbs alone. But it is also possible for *-kihn* to be attached to compound verbs of derived intransitive verbs with their included objects. Observe the following set of examples.

usrusr tin kihn	'to shake cans with'
taptap kaki kihn	'to take out coconut meat with'
sihpsihp sahk kihn	'to chop trees with'

Derived intransitive verbs can be used with or without their included objects, as in the following sentences.

Kuhn el twetwe mitmit nwe ingena.
'Kuhn is knife-sharpening up to now.'

Kuhn el twetwe nwe inge.
'Kuhn is sharpening up to now.'

Sah el otwot fohtoh nwe ekweyah.
'Sah was basket-weaving until yesterday.'

Sah el otwot nwe ekweyah.
'Sah was weaving until yesterday.'

When the derived intransitive verbs are used with the directional suffixes, the meaning can be ambiguous, especially when the subject is a noun phrase which refers to a human being. The following sentence may illustrate the point.

El owolac.
'He washed.' or 'He was washed.'

In one sense the sentence means that he washed something. In another sense, it means that somebody washed him.

In the examples below, the subjects do not refer to a human being and the meanings of the derived intransitive verbs are passive.

Mitmit sacn twetwelac.
'That knife is sharpened.'

Nuknuk sac owolac.
'The clothes are washed.'

Fohtoh sac otwotlac.
'The basket is woven.'

With reference to nominalizations, transitive verbs and their derived intransitive verbs show clear differences. Transitive verbs become nouns with the addition of the suffix *-iyac* (nominalizer).

But derived intransitive verbs can be used as nouns without any nominalizing suffix. The nominalization of transitive verbs will be examined first, followed by consideration of the derived intransitive.

In order to see how the transitive verb *twem* is nominalized, let us first compare the following two sentences. In the first sentence *twem* is a verb, but in the second sentence it is changed into a noun with the suffix *-iyac*. (The final vowel *ac* in *-iyac* is raised to *e* before the construct suffix *-n*.) The nominalized verb is the head noun of the subject noun phrase.

Sah el *twem* mitmit sac ke yot se.
'Sah is sharpening the knife with a stone.'

Twemiyen mitmit sac ke yot se sel Sah ah arlac pahtlac.
'Sah's sharpening of the knife with a stone took a long time.'

The italicized parts above indicate the subject noun phrase. What has been expressed in the first sentence is also expressed in the subject noun phrase of the second sentence. But we note a few differences. The subject of the first sentence is *Sah*, and the object of the verb *twem* is *mitmit sac*. When *twem* is nominalized, the object appears after the construct suffix and the subject appears after the preposition *sel*.

The nominalization of the derived intransitive verbs is quite different from that of the transitive verbs. First of all, no nominalizing suffix is used with the derived intransitive verbs. In the first sentence below *twetwe* is used as a verb, but in the second one it is used as a noun and functions as the head noun of the subject noun phrase (italicized).

Kuhn el *twetwe* tuhla.
'Kuhn sharpens axes.'

Twetwe tuhla lal Kuhn ah arlac wo.
'Kuhn's ax-sharpening is very good.'

As was the case with the nominalization of the transitive verbs, what is expressed in the first sentence above is essentially expressed in the subject noun phrase of the second sentence. But we can notice a change. The subject of the first sentence is *Kuhn*. When *twetwe* is used as a noun, *Kuhn* appears after the general classifier *lal*. In the example above, the derived intransitive verb is used together with an included object. But the included object is not an obligatory element, as we see in the following.

Twetwe lal Kuhn ah arulac wo.
'Kuhn's sharpening is very good.'

There is another method of nominalizing the derived intransitive verbs. When the derived intransitive verbs are nominalized, some specific objects can be expressed with the preposition *ke*, as in the following.

Twetwe *ke mitmit sac sel Sohn* eslah pacl.
'John's sharpening of the knife took time.'

The performer of the action or the subject is expressed with the preposition *sel*.

Below, a few additional sets of examples are presented. The first sentence of each set shows the nominalization of the transitive verb and the last two sentences show the nominalization of the derived intransitive verbs.

1. *Fakihsiyen* pahko uh arulac sensen.
'Spearing the shark is very dangerous.'
2. *Fakfuhk* pahko uh arulac sensen.
'Shark-spearing is very dangerous.'
3. *Fahkfuhk* ke pahko soko ah sel Kuhn oruh el pwengpweng.
'Kuhn's spearing the shark made him famous.'

1. *Srawiyen* um sacn sel Sah ah arulac kuluk.
'Sah's covering that earth-oven with leaves was very bad.'
2. *Srasruh* um lal Sah ah arulac kuluk.
'Sah's earth-oven covering is very bad.'
3. *Srasruh* ke um sac sel Sah ah arulac kuluk.
'Sah's covering of the earth-oven is very bad.'

The transitive verb *twem* can be used in question sentences such as the ones presented below, but the derived intransitive verbs (in parentheses) cannot.

Meah kom twem (twetwe) an?
'What are you sharpening?'

Meah kom lihm (lihmlihm) ah?
'What did you fold?'

Meah kom ipihs (ipip) an?
'What are you rolling?'

Meah kom kihnis (kihnkihn) ah?
'What are you pinching?'

The final distinction between the transitive verb with its object and the derived intransitive verb with its included object must be drawn in terms of meaning. An exact characterization of the distinction remains a problem to be solved. The only tentative distinction that has been made at this moment is that the included object restricts the range of a potential reference of a verb. The derived intransitive verb *twetwe*, for example, can be used to refer to all sorts of sharpening. It can be used with regard to sharpening a knife, a pencil, an ax or anything that can be sharpened. But *twetwe* with an included object can only be used to describe a specific sharpening. *Twetwe mitmit* is used to describe a sharpening of knives, but not axes or pencils.

To summarize: a special class of derived intransitive verbs has been presented in this section. The derived intransitive verbs have their corresponding transitive verbs. The term **included object** was introduced and some differences between transitive verbs and their corresponding intransitive verbs have been examined.

OME SPECIAL VERBS

2.8 Each of the following verbs can be used in two distinct ways.

muhta	'to stay'
orek	'to make' (Intransitive verb of *oruh*)
oruh	'to make'
pwen	'to lead to'
wi	'to accompany'
oasr	'to exist'

MUHTA

The verb *muhta* in its ordinary use means 'to stay', as we can see in the following example sentences.

El muhta Utwac ekweyah.
'He stayed in Utwac yesterday.'

Eltahl ac muhta Awai ke yac se.
'They will stay in Hawaii for one year.'

In its special use, *muhta* is followed by an adjective or a verb of incomplete aspect. In such a case, *muhta* means 'to keep on . . .' or 'to remain'. Look at the following sentences.

Kuhn el muhta ullac.
'Kuhn remains tired.'

Ninac el muhta oul nuknuk ah.
'Mother kept on washing the clothes.'

Sah el muhta kahskahs.
'Sah kept on talking.'

OREK

The verb *orek* is the derived intransitive verb of the transitive verb *oruh* 'to make'. In its ordinary use it means 'to make', as we see in the following sentences.

Mongo sac oreklac ke fuhlao.
'The food is made of flour.'

Pahpah el orek fahfah.
'Father makes poi.' 'Father is a poi-maker.'

In its special use, *orek* is followed by an adjective and means 'to pretend' or 'to make oneself to appear . . .' Compare the following pair of sentences. The first sentence means that Sepe is good, but the second one indicates that Sepe is not really good but that she is trying to make herself appear good.

Sepe el *wo*.
'Sepe is good.'

Sepe el *orek wo*.
'Sepe is trying to make herself appear good.' 'She pretends to be good.'

Look at the following additional examples.

Kuhn el *fuhng*.
'Kuhn is handsome.'

Kuhn el *orek fuhng*.
'Kuhn pretends to be handsome.'

Sah el *kuhlwacng*.
'Sah is kind.'

Sah el *orek kuhlwacng*.
'Sah is trying to make himself appear kind.'

ORUH

The verb *oruh* in its ordinary sense means 'to make', as in the following.

Ninac el oruh nwek se.
'Mother is making a net.'

El oruh osra soko.
'He is making a spear.'

In its special sense *oruh* means 'to make someone (or something) to' or 'to cause someone (or something) to'. Look at the following sentences.

Sah el oruh kuht som.
'Sah made us go.'

Eltahl oruh el kasrkuhsrak.
'They made him angry.'

El oruh lohm sac fohkfohkack.
'He made the house messy.'

NACNG

The verb *pwenacng* is made up of two morphemes: *pwen* 'to lead' and *acng* (a directional suffix meaning 'to'). In its ordinary sense *pwenacng* means 'to lead to', as in the following sentence.

Mwet luti sac pwenacng tuhlihk ah nuh lihkihn puhk ah.
'The teacher led the children to the beach.'

In its special use *pwenacng* means 'to cause someone (or something) to', as in the following sentence.

Af upac olutu pwenacng kuht koflah som.
'This morning's heavy rain made us unable to go.'

The status of *pwenacng* in the above sentence is rather difficult to define. It can be regarded either as a verb or as a conjunction. In terms of meaning, *pwenacng* is close to *oruh* 'to cause or force'. But the fact that what precedes *pwenacng* must be a sentence makes it possible to regard *pwenacng* as a conjunction. In the following sentence *pwenacng* appears between two sentences, as a coordinate conjunction would.

Sohn el pahtlac in tuhkuh *pwengacng* kuht koflah welah oak soko ah.
'John was late in coming which made us unable to catch the boat.'

The verb *wi* has two uses. In its ordinary use the verb means 'to accompany', 'to go (or come) with' or 'to go (or come) aboard', as it is used in the following sentences.

Sepe el weluhllah Sohn.
'Sepe went away with John.'

Sepe el welah oak soko ah.
'Sepe went away aboard the ship.'

In its special use, *wi* means 'to contract (a disease)' and it is followed by names of diseases. Look at the following sentences in which the special use of the verb *wi* is exemplified.

Kuhn el weack kohfkohf.
'Kuhn caught a cold.'

Kuhn el weack fwacfohn.
'Kuhn has a stuffed nose.'

Kuhn el weack insengal.
'Kuhn got a stomach ache.'

OASR, WACNGIHN

The verb *oasr* can be used either as an existential or locative verb. *Oasr* as an existential verb is used to express a fact that there exists a certain type of thing. *Oasr* as a locative verb is used to express the fact that a certain thing is located at a specific place. (The verb *oasr* has the following variant forms: *asr, ohsr.*)

In the following sentence, the verb *oasr* is used as an existential verb.

Oasr ik.
'There are fish.'

What the sentence above expresses is the fact there exist things called fish. Notice that the noun *ik* 'fish' is not modified by a numeral or a determiner. A place adverbial can be added to the sentence above as in the following sentence.

Oasr ik *inkof ah.*
'There are fish in the ocean.'

Look at the following additional existential sentences.

Oasr oak sohk.
'There are airplanes.'

Oasr taeka Afreka.
'There are tigers in Africa.'

In the following sentence, the verb *oasr* is used as a locative verb.

Ik soko ah *oasr* lun fohtoh sac.
'The fish is inside the basket.'

The sentence above is used to point out that a specific object is located at a specific location or place. When the verb *oasr* is used as a locative verb, the subject must be a definite noun phrase. (See 6.1.5 for the definition of the definite noun phrase.) A sentence such as the one below in which the subject is not definite is therefore ungrammatical.

Ik soko oasr lun fohtoh sac. (Ungrammatical)

A place adverbial is obligatory when the locative verb *oasr* is used. The sentence below is ungrammatical because none is used.

Ik soko ah oasr. (ungrammatical)
'The fish is.'

Some additional sentences in which the verb *oasr* is used as a locative verb are presented below.

Puk sac *oasr* fin tepuh sacn.
'The book is on the table.'

Pohk sac *oasr* lohm sel Salis ah.
'The box is in Salis' house.'

Paip nuhtum an *oasr* lun kuhpwes sac.
'Your cigarettes are in the handbag.'

The negative counterpart of the verb *oasr* is *wacngihn* 'not to exist'. It also has two uses. Some example sentences which illustrate the two uses are presented below.

Wacngihn as an Existential Verb

Wacngihn taeka Kosrae.
'There are no tigers in Kusaie.'

Wacngihn ik fin finohl ah.
'There are no fish on the mountain.'

Wacngihn fahko inusr uh.
'There are no seeds inside the banana.'

Wacngihn as an Locative Verb.

Puk sac *wacngihn* fin tepuh sac.
'The book is not on the table.'

Ik soko ah *wacngihn* lun aespohk sac.
'The fish is not inside the ice-box.'

Sohn el *wacngihn* inge.
'John is not here.'

To summarize: the verbs *oasr* 'to exist' and *wacngihn* 'not to exist' have two uses each, as diagrammed below.

Oasr / Wacngihn	as Existential Verb	as Locative Verb
Subject	1. must not be definite 2. follows the verb	1. must be definite 2. precedes the verb
Place Adverbial	Optional	Obligatory

ASPECT

6.3 At the moment of speaking a speaker may view an action or a state as beginning, as being in progress, or as being finished. Compare the following sentences.

1. Eltahl *oruh* oak soko.
   'They are making a canoe.'
2. Eltahl *orwaclah* oak soko.
   'They have made a canoe.'

The only difference in form between the two sentences is that in the second one the verb *oruh* 'to make' is suffixed by the directional suffix *-lah* 'away'. The directional suffix *-lah* signals that the action of making a canoe is finished, whereas the absence of the suffix *-lah* signals that the action is not finished but is in progress.

Let us look at the following pair of sentences. The first sentence merely states that Sepe is sick, whereas the second states that Sepe is becoming sick. The difference in meaning between the two is signaled by the directional suffix *-ack* 'up'.

1. Sepe el *mas*.
   'Sepe is sick.'
2. Sepe el *masack*.
   'Sepe is becoming sick.'

The term **aspect** is used to refer to the different stages of an action or a state. There are two main aspects in Kusaiean: **incomplete** and **completed**. Incomplete aspect denotes that an action or a state is not finished but is still in progress. Completed aspect denotes that an action or a state has reached its goal, or has been completed.

Completed aspect is usually expressed by some of the directional suffixes. In the following section we will examine their aspectual function.

SPECTUAL FUNCTION OF DIRECTIONAL SUFFIXES

.3.1 What we are calling directional suffixes seem to have the dual function of denoting aspect as well as direction. With verbs that denote motion, the directional meaning of the suffixes is primary; with verbs that do not denote motion, the aspectual meaning of the suffixes seems to be primary.

In the first sentences below, the suffix *-lah* is used with verbs of motion. In the second sentences below, the same suffix is used with verbs that do not denote motion.

1. Nga *fotonglah* pohl sac.
'I kicked the ball away.'

2. Nga *etwaclah* puropuhrwacm sac.
'I figured out the problem.'

1. Sohn el *ipihsyac* yot sac.
'John rolled down the stone.'

2. Sohn el *sruokyac* won se.
'John caught a bird.'

1. Nga *kihpackuhnack* puk sac.
'I threw the book up.'

2. Nga *ahkosack* insin soko ah.
'I started up the motorboat.'

In the second sentences above, the suffixes *-lah*, *-yac*, and *-ack* primarily denote that the actions have come to an end. In addition, they also denote different states that resulted from the actions. For example, the suffix *-ack* in *ahkosack* signals that as a result of an engine's being started, it is in operation. In the following section, we will examine different types of results that each suffix can represent.

USES OF DIRECTIONAL SUFFIXES

6.3.2

-Lah

6.3.2.1 The suffix *-lah* means 'away', 'off' or 'out' when it is used with

verbs that denote motion. This use of the suffix is illustrated in the following sentences which contain motion verbs.

Eltahl *pahtoklah* pohk sac liki inum ah.
'They pushed the box away from the kitchen.'

Sohn el *uslah* sitosah soko ah.
'John drove away the car.'

Tuhlwen el *tuhlakuhnlah* mitmit sac.
'Tuhlwen snatched away the knife.'

The verbs listed below denote motion, and with these verbs the meaning of the suffix *-lah* is primarily directional.

oruh	'to bend'	us	'to carry'
pwen	'to lead'	suhpuh	'to send'
ipihs	'to roll'	tol	'to throw'
wuhn	'to transport'	tahfuh	'to extend'
futung	'to kick'	orahkrahk	'to crawl'
mukwikwi	'to move'	worwor	'to wiggle'
paht	'to drift'	yuh	'to rush'
sahs	'to dart'	sohk	'to fly'

When the suffix *-lah* is used with verbs which do not denote motion, it can represent a number of resulting states. These states that can be represented by *-lah* seem to be different from each other, but as we will see immediately below, a common semantic factor runs through them.

When the suffix *-lah* is used with the following verbs which denote separating or removing a part or parts from an object, it denotes resulting states of separation, removal or detachment.

oli	'to pick'	woti	'to cut'
ikacs	'to open'	une	'to pluck'
kowem	'to husk'	lihktiti	'to wean'
mihlpi	'to split'	oul	'to wash'

Compare the following pairs of sentences. In the first sentences, the verbs are not suffixed by *-lah*, but in the second sentences, they are. Notice the difference in meaning.

1. Kuhn el *oli* usr ah.
   'Kuhn is picking the bananas.'

2. Kuhn el *olelah* usr ah.
   'Kuhn picked off the bananas.'

1. Tuhlwen el *woti* ah soko.
   'Tuhlwen is cutting a piece of string.'

2. Tuhlwen el *wotelah* ah soko.
   'Tuhlwen cut off a string.'

1. Sepe el *ikacs* pohk sac.
   'Sepe is opening the box.'

2. Sepe el *ikacslah* pohk sac.
   'Sepe opened up the box.'

When the suffix *-lah* is used with verbs such as *kang* 'to eat' or *nihm* 'to drink' or any verb whose object denotes something that can be consumed, it denotes complete exhaustion or depletion. Compare the following pairs of sentences.

1. Eltahl *kang* ik ah.
   'They are eating the fish.'

2. Eltahl *kanglah* ik ah.
   'They ate up the fish.'

1. Sepe el *nihm* laim sus ah.
   'Sepe is drinking the lime juice.'

2. Sepe el *nuhmlah* laim sus ah.
   'Sepe drank up the lime juice.'

1. Sohn el *sritaclkihn* mani ah.
   'John is gambling with the money.'

2. Sohn el *sritaclkuhnlah* mani ah.
   'John gambled away the money.'

When the suffix *-lah* is used with verbs such as *oruh* 'to make' or *muhsahi* 'to build' or any verbs that denote building or creating a new object, it denotes that a new object has been created. Compare the following pairs of sentences.

1. Eltahl *oruh* lohm sac.
   'They are building the house.'

2. Eltahl *orwaclah* lohm sac.
   'They built the house.'

1. Ninac el *otwe* fohtoh se.
   'Mother is weaving a basket.'

2. Ninac el *otwelah* fohtoh se.
   'Mother wove a basket.'

1. Kuhn el *tafle* tuhlihk sahk se.
   'Kuhn is carving a doll.'

2. Kuhn el *taflelah* tuhlihk sahk sac.
'Kuhn carved a doll.'

When the suffix *-lah* is used with verbs such as *puhki* 'to spread sand on' or *sroali* 'to paint' or any verb whose meaning is related to applying something to an area or to a surface, it denotes that the whole area or surface is completely covered or affected.

1. Ninac el *puhki* inum ah.
'Mother is spreading sand on the kitchen floor.'

2. Ninac el *puhkelah* inum ah.
'Mother spread the sand on the kitchen floor.'

1. Nga *sroali* tepuh se.
'I am painting a table.'

2. Nga *sroalelah* tepuh se.
'I painted a table.'

When the suffix *-lah* is used with verbs such as *sar* 'to disappear', *ef* 'to fade' or *kuni* 'to extinguish', it denotes that something is out of sight or existence. It also denotes that something is out of one's mind, when it is used with verbs such as *nihkihn* 'to not know' or *muhlkihn* 'to forget'.

Lelahkwem ah *sarlah*.
'The rainbow disappeared.'

Tuhn sac *eflah*.
'The color faded away.'

Nga *muhlkuhnlah* inen mwet sac.
'I forgot the man's name.'

When the suffix *-lah* is used with intransitive verbs such as the ones listed below, it indicates a single occurrence of a certain action.

sa	'to shout'	kahk	'to crow'
kahs	'to hirp'	muh	'to yawn'
musus	'to hiss'	wo	'to scream'
kihm	'to thump'	poht	'to pot'

Some example sentences are presented below.

Won sac *kahklah*.
'The bird chirped.'

Kuhn el *muhlah*.
'Kuhn yawned.'

When the suffix *-lah* is used with adjectives, it denotes that a new state has been reached. *Wo* means 'good'. *Wolac* means 'to have become good', which implies that something was not good before but has become so. In many cases, the suffix *-lah* indicates not only that something has reached a new state but also that the new state is excessive for a certain purpose. Look at the following example sentences.

Innek soko ah *ohsrihksrihklac* nuh ke sitosah uh.
'The road has become too narrow for the cars.'

Orekma sac *upaclac* nuh sihk.
'The work has become too difficult for me.'

Sori se inge *srihklac* nuh sihk.
'The pair of zoris here has become too small for me.'

*

-Acng

6.3.2.2 When the suffix *-acng* is used with motion verbs such as the ones listed in 6.3.2.1, it denotes that some object is at a new location or position. Observe the following sentences.

Kuhn el *ukeacng* kosro soko ah nuh ke lohm sac.
'Kuhn chased the dog to the house.'

Mwet luti sac *pwenacng* tuhlihk lutlut ah nuh ke wohf ah.
'The teacher led the pupils to the wharf.'

Sohn el *kihpackuhnacng* yot ah nuh ke sahk soko ah.
'John threw the stones at the tree.'

When the suffix *-acng* is used with verbs whose meaning is related to wearing, it denotes that something is in the position of covering. Look at the following example sentences.

Nga *nokomacng* wes se lal Sepe ah.
'I put on Sepe's shirt.'

Nga *luhfaacng* tahol se.
'I put on a towel.'

-Ack

6.3.2.3 When the suffix *-ack* is used with motion verbs such as the ones listed in 6.3.2.1, it denotes that some thing is at a higher location. In the following sentences, the suffix *-ack* is used with motion verbs.

Sah el *lihpackuhnack* nu sac nuh lucng.
'Sah threw the coconut into the air.'

Eltahl *sinuhkuhnack* oak soko ah nuh ke yot se.
'They pushed the canoe up on a rock.'

The suffix *-ack* is commonly used with verbs that relate to fishing, such as *ahs* 'to catch with a hook' or *pahtuhri* 'to fish'. In such a case, the suffix *-ack* denotes the completed aspect; but it still seems to retain a directional sense, for when a fish is caught, it is brought up out of water.

Nga *ahsack* ik lukoac.
'I caught two fish.'

Nga *soleack* ungung se.
'I caught a lobster (with a torch-light.)'

El *tahluhack* wohn se.
'He scooped a *wohn*.' (*Wohn* is a kind of fish.)

Kuht *mokoeack* lasrfol ekahsr.
'We caught a few *lasrfol*.' (*Lasrfol* is a kind of fish.)

When the suffix *-ack* is used with verbs that are related to cooking, such as *poheli* 'to boil', *muhnan* 'to roast' or *kuhlamihs* 'to mix', it denotes that cooking is finished and food is ready. Observe the following examples.

Kuht *poheleack* mos ah.
'We boiled the breadfruit.'

Nga *muhnanack* ik ekahsr ah.
'I roasted the few fish.'

Ninac el *kuhlamuhsack* fuhlao ah.
'Mother mixed the flour.'

When the suffix *-ack* is used with verbs that denote perception, it denotes that something has come into one's consciousness. Some verbs that denote perceptions are listed below.

lohng	'to hear'	liye	'to see'
puhla	'to feel'	ngusrok	'to smell'

In the following sentences, the suffix *-ack* is used with verbs of perception.

Nga *lohngack* muh el mas.
'I heard that he is sick.'

Nga *liyeack* oak soko ah inkof ah.
'I saw a canoe in the ocean.'

Nga *puhlaack* ngal ke pouk.
'I feel pain in my head.'

The suffix *-ack* is often used with verbs whose meanings are related to kindling or igniting. In such a case, *-ack* denotes that something is in operation or in activity. Note the following sentences in which the suffix *-ack* is used.

El *tanack* e sac.
'He made the fire.'

Sah el *ahkosack* lahm ah.
'Sah lit up the lamps.'

Pahpah el *acyeack* um se.
'Father started up an earth-oven (*um*).'

When the suffix *-lah* was discussed, we noticed that it denotes, with certain verbs, that something is completely exhausted, consumed, or accomplished. When the suffix *-ack* is used with those same verbs, it denotes that something was partially consumed or partially accomplished. The verb *nihm* 'to drink' means 'to drink up' when it is used with the suffix *-lah*; but when it is used with the suffix *-ack*, it means that something is partially consumed. Compare the following pairs of sentences.

1.a. Sah el *nuhmlah* piru ah.
'Sah drank up the beer.'

b. Sah el *nuhmack* piru ah.
'Sah drank some of the beer (but has not finished it).'

2.a. El *muhsahelah* lohm sac.
'He built the house.'

b. El *muhsaheack* lohm sac.
'He started building the house (but has not finished it.)'

When the suffix *-ack* is used with adjectives, it denotes that the state described by the adjective is in an initial stage of change. The adjective *okahrkahr* 'messy', for example, can be suffixed by the suffix *-ack*, as in *okahrkahrack* 'getting messy'. In the following sentences the suffix *-ack* is used.

Finmeoa ah *pohlkuhlakyak*.
'The ocean is getting rough.'

Sup sac *folotyak*.
'The soup is getting thick.'

Sifacl Tomote *kauraekyak*.
'Tomote's hair is getting curly.'

-Yac

6.3.2.4 When the suffix *-yac* is used with motion verbs (See 6.3.2.1 for a list of motion verbs), it denotes that something is at a lower location. In the following sentences the suffix *-yac* is used with motion verbs.

El *pahtokyac* oak soko ah.
'He pushed a canoe down.'

Mwet luti sac *pwenyac* tuhlihk ah nuh ten ah.
'The teacher led the children to the beach.'

El *kihfuhsyac* weah soko nuh ten.
'He bent the wire down.'

The suffix *-yac* is used with verbs whose meanings are related to stopping, hindering, catching or tying in order to denote that something is brought to a stop, or into a state of restraint or captivity. The following verbs usually take the suffix *-yac*.

kutong	'to stop'	lohi	'to prohibit'
ikol	'to delay'	kai	'to dissuade'
fakihs	'to spear'	turohngi	'to spear' (fishing)
kwacsrihpi	'to lasso'	mahsrihki	'to stalk'
srawi	'to cover'	awi	'to tie'
los	'to bind'	kafihs	'to hold'
sili	'to seal'	fahros	'to embrace'

Compare the following pairs of sentences. In the first sentences, the verb is not used with any suffix; in the second, the suffix *-yac* is used.

1.a. Sohn el *tulohkihn* oak soko ah.
'John is stopping the canoe.'

b. Sohn el *tulohkihnyac* oak soko ah.
'John stopped the canoe.'

2.a. Pahpah el *los* etong ah.
'Father is binding the firewood.'

b. Pahpah el *losyac* etong ah.
'Father tied the firewood.'

3.a. Pihlismacn sac *kapri* mwet pihsrapasr ah.
'The policemen is arresting the thieves.'

b. Pihlismacn sac *kapriyac* mwet pihsrapasr ah.
'The policemen arrested the thieves.'

*4.a. Tuhlwen el *fakihs* pahko soko.
'Tuhlwen is trying to spear a shark.'

b. Tuhlwen el *fakihsyac* pahko soko.
'Tuhlwen speared a fish.'

The suffix *-yac* is used with verbs whose meanings are related to putting, placing or burying and it denotes the completed aspect. Compare the following pairs of sentences.

1.a. El *liki* puk nahtuhl ah ke mwe fihl sacn.
'He is putting his books on the shelf.'

b. El *likiyac* puk nahtuhl ah ke mwe fihl sacn.
'He put his books on the shelf.'

2.a. Ninac el *pohki* muh ah.
'Mother is putting the oranges in a box.'

b. Ninac el *pohkiyac* muh ah.
'Mother put the oranges in a box.'

When the suffix *-lah* was discussed in 6.3.2.1, we noted that it denotes separation or removal when it is used with verbs such as *kihnih* 'to pick' or *fure* 'to twist'. When the suffix *-yac* is used with these verbs, it merely denotes that some action is exerted on a certain object. Compare the following pairs of sentences. In the first sentences, the suffix *-lah* is used and in the second sentences *-yac* is used.

1.a. Sepe el *kuhneslah* ros se.
'Sepe picked off a flower.'

b. Sepe el *kihnisyac* ros se.
'Sepe pinched a flower.'

2.a. Tuhlihk sac *furelah* lah se.
'The child twisted off a branch.'

b. Tuhlihk sac *fureyac* lah se.
'The child twisted a branch.'

3.a. El *tongollah* ahluh se.
'He knocked off a bowl.'

b. El *tongolyac* ahluh se.
'He tapped a bowl.'

When the suffix *-lah* is used with adjectives, it denotes that some state or condition has undergone a complete change or has undergoe a change to an excessive degree. (See 6.3.2.1) When the suffix *-ack* is used with adjectives, it denotes that some state or condition is in an initial stage of change. (See 6.3.2.3) The suffix *-i* denotes that a change of state lies between the initial stage and the complete change of state. We can see this in the following sentences.

1.a. Fahluhk luhk ah *mahyak*.
'My shoes are getting old.'

b. Fahluhk luhk ah *mahi*.
'My shoes have become old.'

c. Fahluhk luhk ah *mahlah*.
'My shoes have become too old.'

2.a. Tuhlihk sac arlac *puhlaikyak*.
'The child is getting brave.'

b. Tuhlihk sac arlac *puhlaiki*.
'The child has become brave.'

c. Tuhlihk sac arlac *puhlaiklac*.
'The child has become too brave.'

In the first sentences above, the suffix *-ack* is used to denote that something is in an initial stage of change. In the second sentences the suffix *-i* is used to denote that something has undergone a change. In the third sentences, the suffix *-lah* is used to show that something has undergone a change to an excessive degree.

-Ma and -Oht

6.3.2.5 The two directional suffixes *-ma* 'to the speaker' and *-oht* 'hence' are mostly used in the directional sense. They are seldom used to denote aspectual meanings. Some example sentences in which the suffixes are used will be presented.

Eltahl *ukoema* pik in imac se.
'They chased the wild pig to me.'

Won sac *sohkoht* nuh yurum.
'The bird flew in your direction.'

Ma sac *tihpihrpihrme*.
'The thing stumbled to me.'

Sikutuhr soko ah *erarraroht*.
'The scooter went in your direction with a loud noise.'

-Elihk

6.3.2.6 The suffix *-elihk* in its directional sense means 'in all directions' or 'in different direction'. Look at the following sentences in which the suffix *-elihk* is used.

Nga *kihpackuhnelihk* yot ah.
'I threw the stones in different directions.'

Nga *luhselihk* won ah.
'I chased the chickens in different directions.'

Won ah *sohkelihk*.
'The birds flew in different directions.'

Eltahl *kahengelihk*.
'They ran away in different directions.'

When the suffix *-elihk* is used with verbs whose meanings are related to breaking, cutting or splitting, it means 'into pieces' or 'asunder'. Look at the following sentences.

Sepe el *fokolelihk* ahluh se.
'Sepe broke a bowl into pieces.'

Sohn el *suhpuhkelihk* etong soko ah.
'John split the fire wood asunder.'

Ahwowo el *kotelihk* ah soko.
'The baby chopped a line into pieces.'

Suhfah soko ah *tuktukelihk*.
'The bottle was pounded into pieces.'

The suffix *-elihk* can be used with adjectives. When it is used with adjectives, it denotes that something has become increased in size, density, strength, etc. . . .

Ninac el *factelihk*.
'Mother has become fat.'

Pik soko ah arlac *yohkelihk*.
'The pig has become very big.'

Some other adjectives that can be used with the suffix *-elihk* are:

loes	'long'	mwen	'bitter'
mukohl	'sour'	kweng	'fragrant'
kahlwem	'bright'	wasengseng	'wide apart'

-Eni

6.3.2.7 The suffix *-eni* in its directional sense means 'to one place' or 'in one direction' when it is used with motion verbs. Look at the following example sentences.

El *useni* mos ah.
'He brought the breadfruit together.'

Nga *oleni* muh ah.
'I picked the oranges and put them in one place.'

Eltahl *fohlohkeni*.
'They returned to one place.'

When the suffix *-eni* is used with verbs whose meanings are related to tying, binding or pasting, it denotes that some objects have come into contact or union. Look at the following sentences in which the suffix is used.

Nga *foloseni* pwepuh ah.
'I pasted the papers together.'

Ninac el *twacni* nuknuk luhk ah.
'Mother sewed my clothes.'

Eltahl *pihpeni*.
'They were tied together.'

Sahk ah *lohleni*.
'The sticks are tied together.'

The suffix *-eni* denotes that something has been diminished in size, length, brightness, etc. . . . Look at the following example sentences.

Sahk soko ah *fotoloeni*.
'The stick has become short.'

Lohm sac *lohsreni*.
'The room became dark.'

Ma sacn arlac *srihkeni*.
'That thing has become very small.'

O-OCCURRENCE RESTRICTIONS

3.3 The suffixed verbs denote that a certain action or process has come to an end, whereas the unsuffixed verbs denote that a certain action or process is still in progress. As a result of this difference in meaning, some words such as *srwack* 'still' can occur with the suffixed verbs. There are some other words that have a similar co-occurrence restriction as *srwack*. In this section, these co-occurrence restrictions will be examined.

rwack 'still'

3.3.1 The adverb *srwack* 'still' implies that a certain action or process which was going on before is still going on. So it can be used with incomplete verb forms, but not with complete ones. In the first sentence below, the verb *pwi* is not suffixed. But in the second sentence, it is suffixed by *-lah*, which denotes that the action of tying is finished. So the adverb *swrack* can not be used in the sentence.

1. Sah el srwack na *pwi* sahk soko.
'Sah is still tying the pole.'

2. Sah el srwack na *pwelah* sahk soko. (ungrammatical)

Observe the following additional examples. Since words in parentheses are complete verb forms, they cannot be used when the adverb *srwack* is used.

Kuhn el srwack na *puok* (but not *puokyac*) tuhlihk se.
'Kehn is still hitting the child.'

Eltahl srwack na *kihnis* (but not *kuhneslah*) muh ah.
'They are still picking the oranges.'

Kuht srwack na *muhnan* (but not *muhnanack*) ik ah.
'They are still cooking the fish.'

Eltahl srwack na *taun* (but not *tanack*) e sac.
'They are still kindling the fire.'

Muhta 'to stay' or 'to remain'

6.3.3.2 The verb *muhta* has a basic meaning of 'to stay' or 'to remain', as in the following sentence.

Sohn el *muhta* Ponpe.
'John is staying In Ponape.'

But *muhta* has another meaning of 'to continue . . . ing' or 'to keep on . . . ing', when it is followed by another verb, as in the following sentence.

Ninac el muhta tuh nuknuk ah.
'Mother kept on sewing the clothes.'

Like the adverb *srwack* 'still', the verb that follows *muhta* must not be in the incomplete form. This is because 'to continue' or 'to keep on . . . ing' implies that a certain action is still in progress. Some additional examples are presented below. The words in parentheses are complete verb forms and cannot be used with *muhta*.

Srue el muhta na *luhngas* (but not *luhngaslah*) pwacpuhl ah.
'Srue kept on translating the bible.'

Tuhlihk ah muhta na *pahspahs* (but not *pahspahslah*)
'The children kept clapping.'

Eltahl muhta na *koem* (but not *koemlah*) kaki ah.
'They kept on husking the coconuts.'

Kuhn el muhta na *til* (but not *telack*) etong ah.
'Kuhn kept on picking the fire-woods.'

Ninac el muhta na *poheli* (but not *poheleack*) mos ah.
'Mother kept on boiling the breadfruits.'

Nwe 'and then'

6.3.3.3 When two sentences are joined by the conjunction *nwe*, the verb in the first sentence must be in the incomplete form. The conjunction implies that one action or state was going on for some time and then another action or state follows before the first action or state came to an end. The words in parentheses are complete verb forms and they cannot be used when the conjunction *nwe* 'and then' follows.

Sah el *sroali* (but not *sroalelah*) fahsuc tin sac nwe puhtatlac.
'Sah was painting the tin roof and then he fell down.'
'Sah fell down while he was painting the tin roof.'

Tuhlwen el *esesi* (but not *eseselah*) tuh soko nwe eyac pahol.
'Tuhlwen was peeling the sugar cane and then cut his hand.'
'Tuhlwen cut his hand while he was peeling the sugar cane.'

Kuhn el *turohngi* (but not *turohniyac*) ik soko nwe arlac ullac.
'Kuhn was trying to catch the fish and he became tired.'

Na 'and then'

6.3.3.4 Unlike the conjunction *nwe*, when two sentences are joined by the conjunction *na*, the verb in the first sentence must appear in the complete form. The conjunction *na* implies that one action has been finished and then another related action takes place. Before sending a letter, we have to finish writing the letter. *Na* is used to express a sequence of actions. Observe the following sentences.

Nga *suhmuhslah* lwacta se na suhpwaclah.
'I wrote a letter and then sent it.'

El *ahsack* ik soko na use nuh sihk.
'He caught a fish and then brought it to me.'

El *twemlah* mitmit sac na pahkelah tuh soko.
'He sharpened the knife and then cut the sugarcane.'

Sohn el *tilyac* kaki ah na yihlac.
'John brought down the coconuts and then bathed.'

El *muhnanack* ik ah na kanglah.
'She cooked the fish and then ate them.'

Puhtahkah 'how long has one been . . . ing?'

6.3.3.5 The interrogative word *puhtahkah* 'how long has one been . . . ing?' also implies that an action or process has not come to an end, and it can not be used when the verbs are in the completed form. Observe the following sentences. The words in parentheses are in the complete form and cannot be used.

Sepe el *sihmihs* (but not *suhmuhslah*) lwacta se puhtahkah?
'How long has Sepe been writing the letter.'

Palihkihn el *pihkihn* (but not *puhkanack*) luhf sac puhtahkah?
'How long has Palihkihn digging the ditch?'

Sah el *twem* (but not *twemlah*) mitmit sac puhtahkah?
'How long has Sah been sharpening the knife?'

Tihlac 'not any longer'

6.3.3.6 The negative word *tihlac* means that a certain action stopped short of reaching its goal. It cannot therefore be used with a suffixed verb which denotes a completion of action. Look at the following examples.

Nga tihlac *otwe* (but not *otwelah*) fohtoh se.
'I do not weave the basket any more.'

Sohn el tihlac *nihm* (but not *nuhmack* or *nuhmlah*) piru uh.
'John does not drink beer any longer.'

Ninac el tihlac *oul* (but not *ollah*) nuhknuk ah.
'Mother does not wash the clothes any more.'

To summarize: a suffixed verb; that is, a verb of complete aspect denotes that a certain state resulted from a certain action whereas an unsuffixed verb (or a verb of incomplete aspect) denotes that an action or a state is still in progress. The basic semantic difference is reflected in different aspects of Kusaiean grammar. It is reflected in the uses of the adverb *srwack* 'still', the conjunctions *nwe* 'and finally' and *na* 'and then', the verb *muhta* 'to keep on ... ing'. and the negative word *tihlac* 'no longer'.

Besides the co-occurrence restrictions presented in this section, there are clear semantic differences between a verb of complete aspect and a verb of incomplete aspect with regard to the negative word *tiyac* 'not', and some tense markers such as *nuh nuh* and *tuh nuh nuh*. (See 6.4 for a detailed presentation).

TENSE SYSTEM

6.4 The term **tense** is used to refer to the relation of the time of an action or a state to a reference point of time. Usually, but not always, the reference point is the time of speaking. Sometimes the reference point is expressed in the sentence. In the first sentence below, the reference point is the moment of speaking; in the second sentence, it is *ke wik met ah* 'last week'.

Nga ac som nuh Ponpe lutu.
'I will go to Ponape tomorrow.'

Nga ac som nuh Ponpe *ke wik met ah* tuh suhtuhelah.
'I was to go to Ponape last week, but failed.'

In the first sentence above, the speaker is talking about an event that will take place after the reference point, which is the present moment of speaking. In the second sentence the reference point is last week and the speaker is talking about an event which was to take place after the reference point.

Basically there are three tenses in Kusaiean: **past**, **present**, and **future**. The past tense refers to the time of an action or of a state which precedes the reference point of time. The present

tense refers to the time of an action or a state which is parallel to the reference point of time. The future tense refers to the time of an action or of a state which will take place after the reference point of time.

Tense Markers

6.4.1 The set of words in Kusaiean that is used to express such time relations will be called **tense markers**. Basically, there are six tense marker:

tuh	(past)
nuh	(perfect)
ac	(future)
fah	(future)
muh	
in	

These six tense markers combine in various ways and form two-word or three-word tense markers. A list of compound tense markers follows. These tense markers are not glossed as their use is not fully understood.

Two-word Tense Markers

ac nuh	ac fah
ac tuh	fah tuh
tuh fah	nuh nuh

Three-word Tense Markers

ac fah tuh	ac tuh fah
tuh fah tuh	tuh tuh fah
tuh nuh nuh	ac nuh nuh
ac nuh fah	ac muh fah
ac muh tuh	

Although the term **tense marker** is used to refer to the words listed above, their meanings are not limited to time relationships. They may convey such additional meanings as certainty, probability, irreality, etc., as we will see in 6.4.3. In this respect, a term such as **tense-mode marker** might be more appropriate.

UNMARKED TENSES

6.4.2 Before discussing the individual tense markers, sentences without tense markers will be examined first. During the discussion of **aspect** (See 6.3), only sentences without any tense markers were presented. The term **unmarked tense** will refer to sentences without any tense markers.

The unmarked tense can be ambiguous. It can refer to the time of action or state which exist at or before the moment of speaking. The following sentence, for example, can have two meanings. In one sense it means that Sepe *was* sick at some time before the moment of speaking; in another sense it means that Sepe *is* sick at the moment of speaking.

Sepe el mas.
'Sepe was sick.' or 'Sepe is sick.'

The time of Sepe's being sick can be made clear by the use of words denoting time such as *ekweyah* 'yesterday' or *ingena* 'now'. Look at the following sentences.

Sepe el mas *ekweyah*.
'Sepe was sick yesterday.'

Sepe el mas *ingena*.
'Sepe is sick now.'

Observe the following additional examples. Two translations are given for each sentence.

Ninac el oli muh ah.
'Mother is picking the oranges.'
'Mother was picking the oranges.'

Ninac el tuh nuknuk sacn.
'Mother is sewing those clothes.'
'Mother was sewing those clothes.'

Pahpah el sohli ik ah.
'Father is salting the fish.'
'Father was salting the fish.'

Even when the verbs appear in the completed aspect, there can be two different meanings in terms of tense.

Ninac el *olelah* muh ah ekweyah.
'Mother picked the oranges yesterday.'

Ninah el *olelah* muh ah ingena.
'Mother picks the oranges now.'

In the two sentences above, the only difference between them is the words that denote different times. The word *ekweyah* 'yesterday' refers to the past and the word *ingena* 'now' refers to the present.

The unmarked tense has another important function of expressing habitual actions. The sentence below has no tense marker. It can imply that mother gathered firewood before and that she will do so in the future. In other words, the sentence describes mother's habitual work or actions.

Ninac el ti etong.
'Mother gathers firewood.'

In order to distinguish the habitual sense from the present or the past tense, adverbs such as *ingena* 'now' or *lwen nuh kwewa* 'everyday' are often used. Compare the following two sentences.

Ninac el ti etong *ingena*.
'Mother is gathering firewood now.'

Ninac el ti etong *lwen nuh kwewa*.
'Mother gathers firewood every day.'

Observe the following additional examples.

Pahpah el orekma *lwen nuh kwewa*.
'Father works every day.'

Ninac el puhruhe nuh sin kat *lwen nuh kwewa*.
'Mother prays to the God every day.'

Eltahl yihyih *lwen nuh kwewa*.
'They bathe every day.'

In the example sentences above, the unmarked tense describes personal habits. It is used to describe some event that takes place regularly. Look at the following example sentences.

Posohfihs ah ikack ke ao onkohsr.
'The post office is open at 8 o'clock.'

Faht ah takack lwen nuh kwewa.
'The sun rises every day.'

Tongaru el tuhkuh sie ke mahlwem se.
'The ship Tongaru comes once a month.'

Wacngihn lutlut ke sacnri uh.
'There is no school on Sundays.'

Kahkah uh tuhkuh ke pacl in ohyohu uh.
'*Kahkah* (a kind of bird) comes when it is cold.'

Uses of Tense Markers.

6.4.3 In the following discussion, the different tense markers will be taken up separately.

Tuh (past)

The tense marker *tuh* indicates that a certain action or state occurred sometime in the past (before the moment of speaking). But it differs from the unmarked tense, which can also refer to the past, in that *tuh* implies that a certain action or state was taking place or took place subsequent to another action or state. The preceding action or state is not expressed, but it is always implied by the tense marker *tuh*. Compare the following two sentences.

El mas ekweyah.
'He was sick yesterday.'

El *tuh* mas ekweyah.
'He (after that) was sick.'

Compare the following two sentences. Like the preceding examples, the second sentence below differs from the first one in that an action preceding that of painting is implied.

Eltahl sroali lohm sacn.
'They were painting the house.'

Eltahl *tuh* sroali lohm sacn.
'They (after that) were painting the house.'

In the following two sentences, the verbs appear in the complete forms. They differ from the immediately preceding examples in their aspect.

Eltahl orwaclah lohm sacn.
'They built the house.' 'They finished building the house.'

Eltahl *tuh* orwaclah lohm sacn.
'They (after that) finished building the house.'

Nuh (continuous) and (perfective)

The tense marker *nuh* has two different uses, depending upon the aspect of the verbs. When it is used with verbs of incomplete aspect, it denotes that a certain action or state which started

sometime in the past is still in progress at the moment of speaking. Look at the following sentences.

El *nuh* oruh lohm ah e ke sacnri ah me.
'He has been building the house since last Sunday.'

Ninac el *nuh* oruh fahfah sac e ekweyah me.
'Mother has been making the poi since yesterday.'

Eltahl *nuh* riti puk ah e ke mahlwem met ah me.
'They have been reading the book since last month.'

When the tense marker *nuh* is used with verbs of complete aspect, it denotes that a certain action came to an end before a certain reference point in the past or before the moment of speaking. Look at the following examples.

El *nuh* orwaclah lohm sac met liki kom tuhkuh ah.
'He had built the house before you came.'

Pahpah el *nuh* pakiyac sahk soko met liki nga tuhkuh ah.
'Father cut down the tree before I came.'

Srac el *nuh* suhmuhslah lwacta sac ke kom tuhkuh ah.
'Srac had finished writing the letter when you came.'

Pahpah el *nuh* ukiyac mos soko ah met liki kom isuslac ah.
'Father had planted the tree before you were born.'

nuh (continuous) (perfective)

The tense marker *nuhnuh* is a reduplicated form of *nuh*. *Nuhnuh* has two uses like *nuh*. It can denote continuous action or perfective, depending upon the different aspects of the verbs. But, in some cases, *nuhnuh* differs from *nuh* in that when *nuhnuh* is used, the speaker's feeling of impatience or dissatisfaction is involved. Compare the following sentences.

El *nuh* oruh lohm sac e ke sacnri met ah me.
'He has been working on the house since last Sunday.'

El *nuhnuh* oruh lohm sac e ke sacnri met ah me.
'He has been working on the house (lazily) since last Sunday.'

Eltahl *nuh* riti puk ah e ke mahlwem met ah me.
'They have been reading the book since last month.'

Eltahl *nuhnuh* riti puk ah e ke mahlwem met ah me.
'They have been reading the book (uselessly) since last month.'

When *nuhnuh* is used with verbs of complete aspect, it denotes that a certain action came to an end before a reference point. It is more emphatic than *nuh* in this use.

El *nuh* orwaclah lohm sac met liki kom tuhkuh ah.
'He had built the house before you came.'

El *nuhnuh* orwaclah lohm sac met liki kom tuhkuh ah.
'He had built the house (long) before you came.'

Srac el *nuh* suhmuhslah lwacta sac ke kom tuhkuh ah.
'Srac had written the letter before you came.'

Srac el *nuhnuh* suhmuhslah lwacta sac ke kom tuhkuh ah.
'Srac had written the letter (long) before you came.'

Tuhfah 'just now' 'for the first time'

The tense marker *tuhfah* 'just now' seems to be made up of two morphemes *tuh* 'past' and *fah* 'future'. But the meaning of *tuhfah* is different from the combined meaning of the two morphemes *tuh* and *fah*. *Tuhfah* is therefore treated as a separate tense marker.

The tense marker *tuhfah* indicates that a certain action or a state was taking place or took place in the immediate past. Look at the following examples.

Eltahl *tuhfah* na sun acn inge.
'They just now reached this place.'

Nga *tuhfah* na eis lwacta luhk kosrae me ah.
'I just now received my letter from Kusaie.'

Nga *tuhfah* na esamack lah lwen luhk mihsenge.
'I just now recalled that today is my birthday.'

Oak ah *tuhfah* na oaclac tari.
'The ship just now left.'

Nga *tuhfah* na lohngack lah komtacl macruhtlac.
'I just now heard that you are married.'

The tense marker *tuhfah* has an extended meaning of 'for the first time'. *Tuhfah* denotes that an action or a state occured for the first time in one's experience. Look at the following sentences.

El *tuhfah* na sun acn Awai.
'He came to Hawaii for the first time.'

Eltahl *tuhfah* na kawayang.
'They wore leather shoes for the first time.'

El *tuhfah* na eislah sacluhri lal ah.
'He received his salary for the first time.'

Eltahl *tuhfah* na lohngack lah oasr snow Awai.
'They heard for the first time that there is now in Hawaii.'

Ac 'to be' 'be scheduled to' or 'will'

The tense marker *ac* is used to denote that a certain action will take place or come into existence after a certain reference point of time. Following are some sentences which will help illustrate the uses of *ac*.

The tense marker *ac* is used to make a prediction or a guess about what will probably happen. Look at the following examples.

Ac af lutu.
'It will rain tomorrow.'

Sahp Sepe el *ac* misac met liki ekwaclac ah.
'Perhaps Sepe will die before evening.'

Sah el *ac* sun lohm ah pacl se inge.
'Sah may have reached the house by now.'

The tense marker *ac* is used to denote that some action will take place according to an arrangement or a schedule.

Oak ah *ac* tui acn Muhkihl.
'The ship will stop at Mokil.' 'The ship is scheduled to stop at Mokil.'

Mwet sac ma *ac* oruh ma sacn tiyac tuhkuh.
'The man who was to work on the job did not come.'

Eltahl *ac* tuhkuh ke mahlwem fahsr uh.
'They are to come next month.'

Oak sohk ah *ac* tuhkuh lututacng.
'The plane is scheduled to arrive early in the morning.'

The tense marker *ac* is used to denote one's intention to do something in the future. Look at the following examples.

Nga *ac* oruh ma sacn.
'I will do that thing.'

El *ac* pahtuhri lututacng.
'He will go fishing early in the morning.'

Ninac el *ac* poheleack mos ah.
'Mother will cook the breadfruit.'

Kun el *ac* som nuh Utwac ofong.
'Kun will go to Utwac tonight.'

Fah

The tense marker *fah* is used to denote that something will take place in the future. *Fah* differs from *ac*, which is also a future tense marker, in the following respects. First, *fah* implies the intention or willingness of the person who is the subject of a sentence. Thus, it is not used when the subject is not a person or persons. Second, one's intention or willingness can be changed, and *fah* is less certain than *ac* in terms of probability. Observe the following sentences.

Nga *fah* topuk kom.
'I will (try to) write to you.'

Kat el *fah* kahsruh kom in ma nuh kwewa.
'God will (try to) help you with everything.'

Fin oasr mani, nga us, tuhkuh, nga *fah* suhpwacoht lom.
'If there is any money, I will bring it and send it for you.'

El *fah* sihm pac.
'He will (try to) write to you too.'

Kuhn el *fah* tuhkuh ke mahlwem tyok ah.
'Kuhn will (try to) come next month.'

In 'should' 'may'

The tense marker *in* is also a future tense marker. But *in* differs from *ac* or *fah* in its use. The tense marker *in* is used in expression of command, request, promise, wish, hope, obligation, purpose, or permission.

When *in* follows the subject pronouns *nga*, *el* and *kom* as in *nga in*, *el in* or *kom in*, they are often contracted into *ngan*, *elan* or *kon* respectively in a fast speech.

Some example sentences in which *in* is used are presented below.

Sohn el fahk muh *ngan* som ingena.
'John told me that I should go right now.'

Nga siyuhk sel Sepe muh *elan* orek mongo.
'I told Sepe that she should cook food.'

El wihli nuh sihk muh *ngan* eis puk sac.
'He promised that I should get the book.'

El finsrak muh eltahl *in* tuhkuh.
'I hope that they will come.'

Nga finsrak muh komtacl *in* kwewa kuh na in mahno.
'I hope that they are all healthy in their body.'

El lwelah kuht *in* som.
'He allowed us to go.'

Pahpah el lohi kuht kuht *in* tiyac sismohk.
'Father prohibited us from smoking.'

Nga suhlahklahklah oacna *ngan* sohk.
'I hurried away as if I were flying.'

Kolyac, *ngan* fahk lukmac se inge nuh sum.
'Wait, (so that) I can tell you a secret.'

Ac nuh 'may have . . .'

The tense marker *ac nuh* indicates possibility. Some pairs of example sentences are provided below. In the first sentence of each pair, *ac nuh* is used with verbs of incomplete aspect. In the second sentence of each pair, *ac nuh* is used with verbs of complete aspect. Notice the difference in meaning.

1. Kuhn el *ac nuh* ahksahfye orek ma sac ke wik met ah.
'Kuhn may have been finishing the work last week.'

2. Kuhn el *ac nuh* ahksahfyelah orek ma sac ke wik met ah.
'Kuhn may have finished the work last week.'

1. Eltahl *ac nuh* oruh innek soko ah.
'They may have been making the road.'

2. Eltahl *ac nuh* orwaclah innek soko ah.
'They may have made the road.'

Tuh nuh nuh 'used to'

The tense marker *tuh nuh nuh* indicates that something was happening in the past. Look at the following examples.

Sohn el *tuh nuh nuh* mwet na wo se met.
'John used to be a good man before.'

Sohn el *tuh nuh nuh* sismohk upac met.
'John used to smoke heavily before.'

Sohn el *tuh nuh nuh* otwot fohtoh.
'John used to weave baskets.'

Ac nuh nuh

The tense marker *ac nuh nuh* indicates that a certain state or condition will continue in the future.

Sah el *ac nuh nuh* mas mweyen el srihk na puhtatlac.
'Sah will be sick continuously in the future because he fell down when he was small.'

Sah el *ac nuh nuh* mwet wo se.
'Sah will remain a good man.'

When the tense marker *ac nuh nuh* is used with verbs, it indicates strong obligation.

Sohn el *ac nuh nuh* oruh lohm sin pahpah tuhwmacl ah mweyen el tohflah seltahl.
'John has to build his parents' house because he was brought up by them.'

Kuhn el *ac nuh nuh* moli was se nuhtihk ah mweyen el kuhnauslah.
'Kuhn has to pay for my watch because he broke it.'

Kom *ac nuh nuh* fuhfuhltuhk mweyen suhtuhuh sum.
'You ought to be ashamed of yourself because you are wrong.'

Sah el *ac nuh nuh* tiyac oruh tepuh sac.
'Sah need not make the table.'

The meanings and uses of the following tense markers remain to be uncovered.

ac fah	ac tuh
fah tuh	ac fah tuh
ac tuh fah	tuh fah tuh
ac nuh fah	ac muh fah
ac muh tuh	

Below are some example sentences in which the tense markers above are used. No translations are given.

Um sac *ac fah* ikacklac lutu.
Kom *ac tuh* pahtlac.
Sohn el *fah tuh* sihm nuh sesr.
Kuht *ac fah tuh* tui Maclwem.
Sepe ma *ac tuh fah* mongoi Leluh.

El *tuh fah tuh* sang molel Utwac.
Sahp el *ac nuh fah* suhpwacma wes lom ah tyok.
Kom *ac muh fah* liye orek ma se lom inge tyok.
Nga *tuh fah tuh* sang nuh sel.
El *ac nuh fah* weluhltahl tyok.
Kom *ac muh tuh* liye luhngse.

The writer hopes that the meanings of the different tense-markers presented above will be clarified sometime in the future.

7 Negation

NEGATIVES

7.1 A sentence can be negated by the words *tiyac* 'not', *tihlac* 'not any more' or 'not any longer' or *soenna* 'not yet'. A word such as *tiyac*, *tihlac* or *soenna* will be called a **negative word**. There are a few other negative words such as *mwet* 'don't', *nikmet* 'don't' or *kosacna* 'don't ever' or 'never'. They are used in commanding somebody not to do a certain thing. They will be treated when imperative sentences are discussed. (See 9.3 for imperative sentences.)

POSITION OF NEGATIVES

7.2 A negative word in a sentence occurs after the tense marker, if there is one, and before the verb or adjective. Note the position of the negatives *tiyac*, *tihlac* and *soenna* in the following sentences.

El ac *tiyac* tuhkuh.
'He will not come.'

El *tihlac* turohngi pahko uh.
'He does not spear the sharks any longer.'

Ninac el *soenna* poheleack mos ah.
'Mother has not cooked the breadfruit yet.'

Kun el tihlac sismohk.
'Kun does not smoke any longer.'

USES OF NEGATIVES

7.3 The three negatives will now be examined in terms of their meaning and some coocurrence restrictions.

tiyac 'NOT'

7.3.1 The negative word *tiyac* can be used with verbs of complete or incomplete aspect. When *tiyac* is used with verbs of complete aspect, it denotes that the intended goal of a certain action has not been attained, although the action has started. Look at the following sentences in which *tiyac* is used with verbs of complete aspect.

Sohn el *tiyac* tanack e sac.
'John has not succeeded in making the fire.'
'John has not made the fire.'

Sah el *tiyac* otwelah fohtoh sac.
'Sah has not finished weaving the basket.'

Ninac el *tiyac* fihkarelah inum ah.
'Mother has not finished spreading the kitchen ground with pebbles.'

Pahpah el *tiyac* pakiyac sahk soko ah.
'Father has not finished chopping down the tree.

When *tiyac* is used with verbs of incomplete aspect, it denotes absence of a general tendency. Look at the following sentences.

Nga *tiyac* sismohk.
'I do not smoke.'

El *tiyac* wi kohf.
'He does not catch cold.'

Kuhn el *tiyac* yihyih infacl ah.
'Kuhn does not bathe in the river.'

Eltahl *tiyac* orek ma upac.
'They do not work hard.'

When *tiyac* is used with verbs of incomplete aspect, it sometimes denotes that a certain action has not even started. Look at the following sentences.

Sah el *tiyac* tuni ik el us ah.
'Sah did not even start stringing the fish he brought.'

El *tiyac* kihte pik ah ke mos.
'He did not start feeding the pigs with breadfruit.'

The negative word *tiyac* is also used with adjectives, as we can observe in the following sentences.

Sohn el *tiyac* puhlaik.
'John is not brave.'

Ik ah *tiyac* pusrohsr.
'The fish do not stink.'

Fin kof ah *tiyac* pohlkuhlak.
'The ocean is not rough.'

tihlac 'NOT ANY LONGER' OR 'NOT ANY MORE'

7.3.2 The negative word *tihlac* can be translated as 'not any longer' or 'not any more'. It implies that a certain action was in progress but has stopped. *Tihlac* is never used with verbs or adjectives of complete aspect. The first sentence below is a syntactically acceptable sentence but the second sentence is not, because *tihlac* is used with a verb of complete aspect.

1. El *tihlac* oruh lohm sac.
   'He does not build the house any longer.'
2. El *tihlac* orwaclah lohm sac. (ungrammatical)

Observe the following additional examples.

Kuhn el *tihlac* sismohk.
'Kun does not smoke any longer.'

Eltahl *tihlac* nihmnihm.
'They do not drink any more.'

Sah el *tihlac* us sitosah uh.
'Sah does not drive the car any more.'

Eltahl *tihlac* acnwuhk.
'They do not fight any longer.'

Tuhlwen el *tihlac* puhlaik.
'Tuhlwen is not brave any more.'

soenna 'NEVER' 'NOT YET'

7.3.3 The negative word *soenna* has a variant form *sonna*. This negative word can be used with verbs of either complete or incomplete aspect. But the meaning of *soenna* varies somewhat according to the aspect of the verbs. When it is used with verbs of complete aspect, it denotes that something has not been finished at the moment of speaking although it is expected to be finished by then. Observe the following sentence.

Nga *soenna* retelah puk sac.
'I have not finished reading the book yet.'

El *soenna* sroalelah lohm sac.
'He has not finished painting the house yet.'

Eltahl *soenna* tuhkuh.
'They have not come yet.'

Sitosah soko ah *soenna* ahkohnkohnuh.
'The car has not been fixed yet.'

Ik ah *soenna* pusrohsrack.
'The fish does not stink yet.'

When *soenna* is used with verbs of incomplete aspect, it denotes a negative experience.

Nga *soenna* us sitosah uh.
'I have never driven a car.'

El *soenna* oruh oak soko.
'He has never built a canoe.'

Eltahl *soenna* som nuh Ponpe.
'They have never been to Ponape.'

Wilsin el *soenna* sismohk.
'Wilson has never smoked.'

Kuht *soenna* liye petsac mukwikwi uh.
'We have never seen a moving picture (movie).'

In addition to the three negative words presented above, there are two adverbs whose meaning is very close to the negatives. They are *luhkuhn* 'almost' and *kuhruhn* 'nearly'. These two words will be examined below.

luhkuhn 'ALMOST' AND *kuhruhn* 'NEARLY'

7.3.4 These words can be used with verbs of complete or incomplete aspect. When they are used with verbs of complete aspect, they indicate that a certain action stopped short of reaching its intended goal or short of being finished. Observe the following sentences.

Sitosah soko ah *luhkuhn* na puhtatlac.
'The car almost fell off (something).'

Tuhlihk sac *kuhruhn* na walomlah.
'The child nearly drowned.'
'The child came near being drowned.'

Sohn el *luhkuhn* na pakiyac niyacl.
'John almost cut his leg.'

Mwet sacn *kuhruhn* na itactuh.
'The man was nearly run over.'
'The man came near being run over.'

When *luhkuhn* and *kuhruhn* are used with verbs of incomplete aspect, they denote that a certain action was about to take place but stopped short of being started. Observe the following examples.

Sah el *kuhruhn* na kuhfuhl likacsihk sac.
'Sah was about to trigger the rifle (but he did not).'

Sah el *luhkuhn* na ahkos insin soko ah.
'Sah was about to start the motor boat (but he did not).'

Kun el *kuhruhn* na fakihs pahko soko ah.
'Kuh was about to spear the shark (but he did not).'

Kun el *luhkuhn* na moli ma sacn.
'Kuh was about to buy the thing (but he did not).'

TWO MODIFIERS OF *tiyac*

7.4 Two modifiers which are used only with the negative word *tiyac* 'not'. They are *kulun* 'at all' and *katwen* 'for nothing', 'gratuitously' or 'without any purpose'.

The word *kulun* 'at all', which is used to emphasize the negative word *tiyac*, can also be translated as 'never'. Look at the following pairs of examples.

1. El *tiyac* fuhng.
   'He is not handsome.'
2. El *tiyac kulun* fuhng.
   'He is not handsome at all.'

1. Nga *tiyac* fahk ma sac nuh sel.
   'I did not say that to him.'
2. Nga *tiyac kulun* fahk ma sacn nuh sel.
   'I did not say that to him at all.'
   'I never said that to him.'

1. El *tiyac* orek ma upac.
   'He did not work hard.'
2. El *tiyac kulun* orek ma upac.
   'He never worked hard.'

When *tiyac* is used with verbs of complete aspect, it denotes that

a certain intended goal of action has not been reached. (See the discussion of *tiyac*.) Observe the following sentence.

El *tiyac* ollah nuknuk ah.
'He has not finished washing the clothes.'

Kulun in the sentence above denotes that the action is far from being finished, and it can also imply that the action has not even started. Look at the following example:

El *tiyac kulun* ollah nuknuk ah.
'He is far from finishing washing the clothes.' (He has not even started washing them.)

Observe the following additional examples.

El *tiyac kulun* poheleack mos ah.
'He has not cooked the breadfruit at all. (He has not even started cooking it.)

El *tiyac kulun* tawiyac nwek sac.
'He has not finished weaving the net at all.' (He has not even started.)

The word *katwen* itself means 'for nothing', 'gratuitously' or 'without a good reason'. It is always used with *tiyac*. Both *tiyac* and *katwen* have a negative meaning. The combined meaning of the two negative words is positive. *Tiyac katwen* means 'with a good reason' or 'purposefully'. Look at the following example sentences.

Nga *tiyac katwen* fahk nuh sum.
'I did not say that to you for nothing.'
'I said that to you purposefully.'

El *tiyac katwen* som nuh lucng.
'He did not go up to the mountain for nothing.'
'He went up to the mountain with some purpose.'

Kuht *tiyac katwen* koloslah usr ah.
'We did not peel the bananas for nothing.'
'We peeled the bananas with some purpose.'

Pahpah el *tiyac katwen* uniyac pik ah.
'Father did not kill the pig for nothing.'
'Father killed the pig purposefully.'

ELEMENTS TO BE NEGATED

7.5 The negative words appear before verbs or adjectives. But they

do not always negate the verbs or adjectives. The negative word *tiyac* in the following sentence appears before the adjective *suhlallacl* 'mean', but it can negate either the subject of the sentence or the adjective.

Sohn el *tiyac* suhlallacl.
'John is not mean.'

The ambiguity becomes clear when the sentence above is expanded, as in the following. In the first sentence below the subject is negated, while in the second sentence the adjective is negated.

Sohn el tiyac suhlallacl tuh *Macri* el.
'John is not mean but Mary is.'

Sohn el tiyac *suhlallacl* tuh el arlac *wo*.
'John is not mean but he is very good.'

In order to avoid such an ambiguity, a special sentence type called a **cleft sentence** is often employed. (The cleft sentence will be discussed in 11.) We now note some examples of cleft sentences in order to see how they help avoid the kind of ambiguity that has just been discussed. The negative word *tiyac* of the following sentence can negate the subject, the verb or the object as we have already observed.

Eltahl *tiyac* molelah ma sac ekweyah.
'They did not buy the thing yesterday.'

But in the following cleft sentences, there is no such an ambiguity with regard to the element which is negated. The element to be negated appears right after the negative word *tiyac* but before the word *pa*. (The negated elements are italicized.)

Tiyac *eltahl* pa molelah ma sac ekweyah ah.
'It is not they that bought the thing yesterday.'

Tiyac *ma sac* pa eltahl molelah ekweyah ah.
'It is not the thing that they bought yesterday.'

Tiyac *ekweyah* pa eltahl molelah ma sac ah.
'It is not yesterday that they bought the thing.'

Tiyac *moliyen ma sac* pa eltahl oruh ekweyah ah.
'It is not buying of the thing that they did yesterday.'

8 Word Order and Topicalization

WORD ORDER

8.1 In the preceding chapter, we analysed the basic structure of sentences. In its basic structure a sentence is made up of a subject and a predicate. In the sentences we have seen up to now, the subject precedes the predicate. The subject and the predicate can be made up of more than one word. But the words in a subject noun phrase or in a predicate must appear in their own proper positions. For example, look at the subject noun phrase of the following sentence:

Mwet kuh se ekuhllah oak soko ah.
'A strong man turned the canoe over.'

The subject noun phrase (NP) is made up of three words: *mwet* 'man', *kuh* 'strong', and *se* 'one'. The adjective *kuh* must appear between *mwet* and *se*. *Kuh mwet se* or *mwet se kuh* cannot be used instead of *mwet kuh se*.

The predicate of the sentence above is made up of the transitive verb *ekuhllah* and its object *oak soko ah*. The object cannot precede the transitive verb. This order shows that, as words have their own proper positions in a phrase, so phrases have their own positions in a sentence. The term **word order** will be used to refer to the relative order of words in a phrase or to the relative order of phrases in a sentence.

Word order has a very important function. In many cases the word order alone can tell us which is the subject and which is the object. Look at the following sentence.

Kosro ngalnguhl soko ah ngalisyac *tuhlihk sac*.
Subject Object

The position of the noun phrase *kosro ngalnguhl soko ah* before the verb *ngalisyac* signals that it is the subject of the sentence. The position of the noun phrase *tuhlihk sac* after the verb *ngalisyac* signals that it is the object of the verb. When the two noun phrases are switched around, as in the following sentence, their function is also changed.

Tuhlihk sac ngalisyac *kosro ngalnguhl soko ah.*
Subject Object
'The child bit the dog.'

In the sentence above the noun phrase *kosro ngalnuguhl soko ah* is now the object of the verb *ngalisyac.*

Since the word order indicates important grammatical relations, it is relatively inflexible, but not completely so. A certain amount of freedom is allowed. (In 8.2.1–6, we will observe the extent to which the word order can be changed.)

CHANGING WORD ORDER

8.2

SUBJECT + ADJECTIVE ⟶ ADJECTIVE + SUBJECT

8.2.1 When the predicate of a sentence is an adjective, the subject can appear after the adjective. Observe the following pair of sentences.

Mwet sac arulac puhlaik.
'The man is very brave.'

Arulac puhlaik *mwet sac.*
'Very brave is the man.'

The basic meaning of the two sentences is the same. But there is some difference in emphasis. The emphasis seems to be on the subject of the first sentence while the emphasis seems to be on the adjective of the second sentence. But this is a very tentative observation.

When the subject is a pronoun, as in the following sentences, the inversion is not possible.

El arlac fuhng. But not Arlac fuhng *el.*
'He is very handsome.'

Nga marsrinsracl. But not Marsrinsracl *nga.*
'I am hungry.'

Kom arlac srohwohsr. But not Arlac srohwohsr *kom.*
'You are very stingy.'

SUBJECT + INTRANSITIVE VERB ⟶ INTRANSITIVE VERB + SUBJECT

8.2.2 When the predicate of a sentence is an intransitive verb and the verb appears in the complete aspect, the word-order of the subject and the predicate can be changed. The following pairs of sentences illustrate.

1. *Nuknuk* ah owolac.
   'The clothes are washed.'
2. Owolac *nuknuk ah.*
   'The clothes are washed.'

In the two sentences above the verb appears in the complete aspect. When the verb appears in the incomplete aspect, the inversion is not common, but possible.

1. *Nuknuk ah* owo.
   'The clothes are being washed.'
2. Owo nuknuk ah.
   'The clothes are being washed.'

Passive verbs are similar to intransitive verbs with regard to the inversion of the subject and predicate. In the following sentences the predicates are passive forms of complete aspect.

1. *Mitmit sac* twemyuhklac.
   'The knife is sharpened.'
2. Twemyuhklac *mitmit sac.*

1. *Fohtoh ah* otweyuhklac.
   'The basket are woven.'
2. Otweyuhklac *fohtoh ah.*

1. *Muh ah* kulusyuhklac.
   'The oranges are peeled.'
2. Kulusyuhklac *muh ah.*

SUBJECT + TRANSITIVE VERB + OBJECT + PREPOSITIONAL PHRASE ⟶
SUBJECT + TRANSITIVE VERB + PREPOSITIONAL PHRASE + OBJECT

8.2.3 Normally, the object of a transitive verb immediately follows the verb. Some prepositional phrases may follow the object. But the word order of the object and the prepositional phrase can be inverted. In the following sentence the part italicized is the object and the part that appears in small capital letters is a prepositional phrase.

El tolma *pohl sac* NUH SIHK.
'He threw the ball to me.'

In the sentence below the prepositional phrase precedes the object.

El tolma NUH SIHK *pohl sac.*

Observe the following additional example sentences.

1. Sohn el molelah *nuknuk fohn se* NUH SIHK.
   'John bought the shirt for me.'
2. Sohn el molelah NUH SIHK *nuknuk fohn se*.
   'John bought me the shirt.'
1. Ninac el ollah *pohk sac* NUH KE SINKAC SAC.
   'Mother pulled the box to the wall.'
2. Ninac el ollah NUH KE SINKAC SAC *pohk sac*.
   'Mother pulled to the wall the box.

When the object of a transitive verb is a pronoun, as in the following, the inversion is impossible.

Kuhn el sinuhkihn*yuh* nuh yohrohl ninac.
'Kuhn pushed me to mother.'

The prepositional phrase *nuh yohrohl ninac* cannot be placed before the object pronoun *yuh*.

Preposing Locational Phrases

8.2.4 The locational phrases are part of a predicate and normally appear after the verbs or adjectives. But they can be preposed to the beginning of the sentence. In the following sentence the italicized part is a locational phrase.

Eltahl muhta *lohm sihk ah*.
'They are staying at my home.'

The locational phrase above can be preposed, as in the following sentence. But the word *we* 'there' must appear at the place where the locational phrase was originally. Look at the following sentence in which the locational phrase appears sentence initially and the word *we* 'there' appears.

Lohm sihk ah, eltahl muhta *we*.
'(At) my house, they are staying there.'

In the first sentences of the following pairs of sentences the locational phrase appears after the verb or adjective. In the second sentence it appears sentence initially and *we* appears finally.

1. Mitmit sac tuhlac *insack sac*.
   'The knife is lost in the forest.'
2. *Insack sac*, mitmit sac tuhlac *we*.
   'In the forest the knife was lost there.'

1. Ongaiyac sac sikyak *fin acn Maclwem.*
   'The accident took place in Maclwem.'
2. *Fin acn Maclwem,* ongaiyac sac sikyak *we.*
   'In Mahlwem the accident took place.'
1. Ninac el ollah nuknuk sac *infael soko ah.*
   'Mother washed the clothes at that river.'
2. *Infael soko ah,* Ninac el ollah nuknuk sac *we* ah.
   'In the river Mother washed the clothes.'

Proper place names can be used as locational phrases, as in the following examples. But they can not be preposed to the sentence initial position.

El muhta *Utwac.*
'He is staying in Utwac.'

Eltahl lutlut *Kuam.*
'They are studying in Guam.'

Eltahl orekma *Maclwem.*
'They are working in Maclwem.'

The italicized words above are proper place names and function as locational phrases. In the sentence below the proper place name appears at the beginning of the sentence. The sentence is ungrammatical, one peculiarity of the proper place names.

Utwac, el muhta *we.* (ungrammatical.)

Preposed Objects

8.2.5 The object appears after a transitive verb, but it can also appear at the beginning of the sentence. Observe the following pairs of sentences (the italicized part is the object).

1. Eltahl tahkuhs *kaki ah.*
   'They are taking the coconut meat out.'
2. *Kaki ah,* eltahl tahkuhs.
   'The coconut, they are removing its meat.'
1. Kuht orwaclah *innek soko* Maclwem.
   'We built a road in Maclwem.'
2. *Innek soko,* kuht orwaclah Maclwem.
   'A road, we built in Maclwem.'
1. Eltahl sohleack *ik ah noh fohn.*
   'They salted all of the fish.'
2. *Ik ah noh fohn* eltahl sohleack.
   'All of the fish, they salted.'

To summarize this presentation so far: the relative order of certain phrases within a predicate can be changed, and noun phrases which are not the subject of a sentence can appear at the beginnings of sentences. In the sentences we have seen thus far, the relative positions of whole phrases were changed. As will be seen below, it is also possible to have part of a noun phrase preposed to the sentence-initial position.

Preposing a Noun Phrase Within Another Noun Phrase

8.2.6 In 6.1.6, we saw that a noun phrase can be a part of another noun phrase through the construct suffix *-n*. In the sentence below the italicized part is a noun phrase and is within another noun phrase (underlined).

Nga longyac niyen *tuhlihk sac*.
'I stepped on the child's leg.'

The whole object noun phrase (underlined) can be preposed to the sentence-initial position as follows:

Niyen *tuhlihk sac*, nga longyac.

But it is also possible to prepose the italicized noun phrase *tuhlihk sac* only, as in the sentence below.

Tuhlihk sac, nga longyac niyac.

When the noun phrase after the construct suffix *-n* is repositioned (as above) *niyen* is changed into *niyac*. *Niyac* is an impersonal form of the word 'leg'. (See 4.1.3 for the definition of impersonal forms.)

Some additional examples are presented below. In the second sentence of each set, a noun phrase which appears after the construct suffix in the first sentence is preposed to the sentence-initial position.

1. Nga ulyac puhluhn *kaho soko ah*.
   'I pulled the tail of the cow.'
2. *Kaho soko ah*, nga ulyac puhla ah.
   'The cow, I pulled her tail.'
1. Nga puokyac sifen *tuhlihk sac*.
   'I hit the head of the child.'
2. *Tuhlihk sac* nga puokyac sifac ah.
   'The child, I hit his head.'

1. Kunutnutuh muhtuhn *mitmit sac.*
   'The blade of the knife has become dull.'
2. *Mitmit sac*, kunutnutuh muhta ah.
   'The knife, its blade has become dull.'

1. Kaptwaclihk niyen *tepuh sac.*
   'The leg of the tabls is broken.'
2. *Tepuh sac*, kaptwaclihk niyac ah.
   'The table, its leg is broken.'

In the examples we have detailed above, the construct suffix *-n* is used with inalienable nouns such as 'head', 'face' or 'leg'. But the suffix *-n* can also be used with classifiers, with nouns derived from adjectives or transitive verbs, and with prepositions. In what follows we will see that a noun phrase following a construct suffix can be preposed to beginning of a sentence even when the suffix is used with classifiers or derived nouns.

The construct suffix in the following sentences is used with classifiers. The italicized part is a noun phrase which is within another noun phrase. In the second sentence of each set, the italicized part of the first sentence appears at the beginning of the second sentence, with a concomitant change in the forms of classifiers.

1. Nga tuhlakihnyac mongo nwacn *kosro soko ah.*
   'I snatched the food of the dog.'
2. *Kosro soko ah*, nga tuhlakihnyac mongo nwac ah.
   'The dog, I snatched its food.'

1. Masack muhtwacn kiyen *mwet Utwac sac.*
   'The Utwac man's wife became sick.'
2. *Mwet Utwac sac*, masack muhtwacn kiyacl ah.
   'The Utwac man, his wife became sick.'

1. Arlac fohkfohki lohm sin *mwet ah.*
   'The man's house became very dirty.'
2. *Mwet ah*, arlac fohkfohki lohm sel ah.
   'The man, his house became very dirty.'

The construct suffix *-n* in the first sentence of each pair is used with nouns derived from adjectives or transitive verbs. The noun phrase (italicized) after the construct suffix can be preposed to the beginning of the sentence, as we can see in the second sentence of each pair.

1. Ohrwack nukumiyen *wes koakoa uh.*
'Wearing striped shirts is in fashion.'
2. *Wes kokoa uh*, ohrwack nukumiyac.
'The striped shirts, wearing them is in fashion.'

1. Nga etuh orweyen *fahfah sac.*
'I know how to make the poi.'
2. *Fahfah sac*, nga etuh orweiyac.
'The poi, I know how to make it.'

1. Arlac fihsracsr oliyen *usr uh.*
'It is very easy to pick the bananas.'
2. *Usr uh*, arlac fihsracsr oliyac.
'The bananas, they are easy to pick.'

1. Kuht lut ke suhmahtiyen *tuhlihk sac.*
'We were amazed at the brightness of the child.'
2. *Tuhlihk sac*, kuht lut ke suhmahtiyacl.
'The child, we were amazed at his brightness.'

A prepositional phrase of itself can not appear at the beginning of a sentence. But its object can appear at the beginning of a sentence, leaving the preposition behind. When this preposing takes place, the forms of prepositions undergo changes just like the inalienable nouns, the classifiers, and the derived nouns. The preposition *ke* is changed into *kac* and *sin* is changed into *se*.

In the sentence below, the italicized part is the object of the preposition *sin* and the part which is underlined is a prepositional phrase.

Nga kuhkakuhnlah pik ah nuh sin *muhtwacn sac.*
'I sold the pigs to the woman.'

In the sentence below the noun phrase *muhtwacn sac* of the above sentence appears at the beginning of the sentence and the preposition *sin* is changed into *se*.

Muhtwacn sac, Nga kuhkakuhnlah pih ah nuh se.
'The woman, I sold the pigs to her.'

Observe the following additional pairs of sentences. In the second sentence of each pair, the noun phrase, which is the object of the preposition in the first sentence, appears at the beginning of the sentence.

1. Nga molelah mitmit sac sin *mwet Maclwem sac.*
'I bought the knife from the Maclwem man.'

2. *Mwet Maclwem sac*, el molelah mitmit ah se.
'The Maclwem man, he bought the knife from him.'

1. Nga tuhfalack ke *sikeng sac.*
'I am nervous about the examination.'

2. *Sikeng sac*, nga tuhfalack kac.
'The examination, I am nervous about it.'

1. Elmuhr el pahlac *ke orekma upac uh.*
'Elmuhr is accustomed to the hard work.'

2. *Orekma upac uh*, Elmuhr el pahlac kac.
'The hard work, Elmer is accustomed to it.'

1. Tuhlihk sac kuhyang nuh ke *sinkac sac.*
'The child bumped into the wall.'

2. *Sinkac sac*, tuhlihk sacn kuhyang nuh kac.
'The wall, that child bumped into it.'

To summarize: the word order in a sentence is relatively fixed, but not completely so. A certain amount of freedom is allowed. Phrases within a predicate can change their relative positions. Noun phrases which normally appear within a predicate can appear at the beginning of a sentence, whether the noun phrase is an object of a transitive verb or of a preposition. But the pronouns are an exception to this generalization. They can not change their relative position within a sentence. When a speaker wants to emphasize an element in a sentence, the inverted order is used.

TOPICALIZATION

8.3 A noun phrase in a sentence can be singled out to be contrasted with something else. The two sentences below have the same contentive meaning. But the second differs from the first in that the object of the transitive verb *luhlahlfongi* 'to believe' is singled out and appears after *fuhnnuh ke* 'as for' in the second sentence.

1. Nga luhlahlfongi mwet sac.
'I believe the man.'

2. *Fuhnnuh ke* mwet sac, nga luhlahlfongel.
'As for the man, I believe.'

The two sentences below also have the same contentive meaning. But the second sentence differs from the first one in that the sub-

ject of the second sentence is singled out and appears after *finnwe kacl* 'even'.

1. Sohn el wi orek ma.
   'John went to work.'
2. *Finnwe kacl* Sohn, el wi orek ma.
   'Even John, he went to work.'

Sentences such as the second one above will be called **topicalized sentences**. The phrases *fuhnnuh ke* 'as for' and *finnwe ke* 'even' will be called **topicalizers**.

USES OF TOPICALIZERS

8.4 The topicalizer *fuhnnuh ke* is composed of the conjunction *fuhnnuh* 'if' and the preposition *ke* 'at' or 'for'. But the meaning of the topicalizer *fuhnnuh ke* does not seem to be a composite meaning of the two elements. The preposition *ke* can be used with the possessive suffixes. The following are the suffixed forms:

fuhnnuh ke	'as for'
fuhnnuh keik	'as for me'
fuhnnuh keim	'as for you'
fuhnnuh kacl	'as for him'
fuhnnuh kacsr	'as for us'

The topicalizer *fuhnnuh ke* is used to show that the element which follows it is an exception to a general rule. Look at the following sentence. What it means is that everybody went to work except the woman.

Fuhnnuh ke muhtwacn sac, el tiyac wi orek ma.
'As for the woman, (she) did not go to work.'

The topicalized sentence above implies a sentence such as the following.

Mwet nuh kwewa wi orek ma mihsenge.
'Everybody went to work today.'

Observe the following additional examples of topicalized sentences. The second sentences of the following pairs are implied by the first sentences.

1. *Fuhnnuh kacl* Sohn, el kuh in kacs Inglis.
   'As for John, he can speak English.'
2. Mwet nuh kwewa tiyac kuh in kahs Inglis.
   'Not everybody can speak English.'

1. *Fuhnnuh ke* mwet tolu ah, eltahl som nuh ke parti ah.
   'As for the three men, they went to the party.'

2. Mwet nuh kwewa tiyac som nuh ke parti ah.
   'Not everybody went to the party.'

The topicalizer *finnwe ke* 'even' is made up of two morphemes, *finnwe* 'even if' and *ke* 'at' or 'for'. *Finnwe ke* is used to invite a comparison between what is expressed and what may have happened or what may have been the case. The sentence below means that even the small child went to work and that the adults should have gone to work, too.

Finnwe ke tuhlihk srihsrihk sacn, el wi orek ma.
'Even the child went to work. (so the adults might have gone to work)'

Observe the following additional examples of topicalized sentences.

Finnwe nga, nga tiyac kuh in riti puk se inge.
'Even I cannot read this book here.'

Finnwe ke sacnri, el wi orek ma.
'Even on Sundays, he goes to work.'

Finnwe ke mwet mahtuh uh, eltahl enenuh in pahtuhr mihsenge.
'Even the old men, they have to fish today.'

9 Interrogative and Imperative Sentences

CLASSIFICATION OF SENTENCES

9.1 Sentences have different communicative functions. Some sentences are used to state a fact or to make a description; others are used to get some information, and others to ask or command somebody to do something. According to these communicative functions, sentences can be classified into three major types: **declarative, interrogative**, and **imperative**. Up to Chapter 7, all the Kusaiean sentences used in this text are declarative, the type used to state facts or make descriptions. In this chapter, we will examine **interrogative sentences**, which are used to ask questions, and **imperative sentences**, which are used to ask or command somebody to do something.

INTERROGATIVE SENTENCES

9.2

Classification of Interrogative Sentences

9.2.1 Interrogative sentences can be classified into different types based on these two criteria: (1) the presence or absence of an interrogative word, or (2) the type of answer that is expected.
According to the first criterion, the first two sentences below can be grouped together because neither of them contains any interrogative word. The third sentence is different because it contains the interrogative word *fuhkah* 'how'.

1. Kuh kom mas?
   'Are you sick?'
2. Kuh kom mas kuh sruhi?
   'Are you sick or drunk?'

3. Kuh kom fuhkah?
'How are you?'

However, according to the second criterion, the second and third sentences should be grouped together, and the first sentence must be differentiated from them because the answer to the first interrogative sentence must begin with either *ahok* 'yes' or *moh* 'no'. Neither of these words can be used as answers to the second or third interrogative sentences. Note the following interrogative sentences and their corresponding answers.

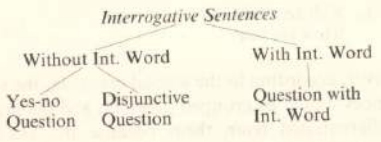
1. Kuh kom kuh na?
'Are you well?'
   A. Ahok, nga kuh na.
'Yes, I am well.'
   B. Moh, nga tiyac na kuh.
'No, I am not well.'

2. Kuh kom mas kuh sruhi?
'Are you sick or dizzy?'
   A. Nga mas
'I am sick.'
   B. Nga sruhi.
'I am dizzy.'

3. Kuh kom twemlah mitmit sac ke meac?
'With what did you sharpen the knife?'
   A. ke yot se.
'With a stone.'

We saw above that the two criteria give two different results. An interrogative sentence with *kuh* 'or' must be grouped with the first sentence on the basis of the absence of an interrogative words; on the other hand, an interrogative sentence with the word *kuh* 'or' must be grouped with the third sentence, according to the criterion of the type of answer.

This seems to suggest that there are at least three different types of interrogative sentences. The following classification of interrogative sentences will be adopted. There are questions with interrogative words and those without interrogative words. The questions without interrogative words can be subdivided into two groups: **yes-no questions** and **disjunctive questions**. The classification is summarized in the following diagram.



Each of the three types of question sentences will be presented.

Yes-no Questions

9.2.1.1 The use of the general question marker *kuh* is optional; it can be omitted in speech because intonation is available in speech. The intonation can tell us whether the sentence is a declarative or an interrogative sentence. (See 4.10.2 for the use of *kuh* and 2.8 for the definition of intonation.)

The yes-no question, generally, has a rising intonation, whereas the declarative sentence has a falling intonation. From the intonation pattern, a hearer can tell whether a sentence is an interrogative sentence or not without the general question marker. Compare the following sets of sentences, noticing the different intonations.

1. *Oak soko ah* tihli? (Yes-no question)
'Did the canoe sink?'
2. *Oak soko ah* tihli. (Statement)
'The canoe sank.'
1. *Kom ac tuhkuh* ofong? (Yes-no question)
'Are you coming tonight?'
2. *Kom ac tuhkuh* ofong. (Statement)
'You are coming tonight.'

Use of the Response Words ahok 'yes' and moh 'no'

The two words *ahok* 'yes' and *moh* 'no' will be called **response words**. The selection of the response words *ahok* 'yes' and *moh* 'no' depends upon whether or not the answer agrees with the question in terms of negation. Read the following question and the answers.

Kom ac som pahtuhr?
'Are you going to go fishing?'

Ahok, nga ac som pahtuhr.
'Yes, I will go fishing.'

Moh, nga ac tiyac som pahtuhr
'No, I will not go fishing.'

The response word *ahok* is used with the first answer because the answer agrees with the question. The question is not negative and the answer is not negative. The response word *moh* is used with the second answer, because the answer does not agree with the question. That is, the question is not negative but the answer is.

The following question is negative. Look at the two answers following it.

Kom tiyac kuh in kahsrweyuh?
'Can't you help me?'

Ahok, nga tiyac kuh in kahsrwekom.
'Yes, I cannot help you.'

Moh, nga kuh in kahsrwekom.
'No, I can help you.'

Ahok is used with the first answer because the answer agrees with the question. The question is negative and the answer is also negative. *Moh* is used with the second answer, because the question and the answer do not agree. The question is negative but the answer is positive; that is, the response indicates that the speaker *can* help.

The use of the Kuasiean response words *ahok* and *moh* contrasts with that of the English response words 'yes' and 'no' when the question is negative. Observe the following question and the answers.

Kom tiyac tasack kac?
'Are you not tired of it?'

Ahok, nga tiyac tasack kac.
'No, I am not tired of it.'

Moh, nga tasack kac.
'Yes, I am tired of it.'

The English 'no' is used where the Kusaiean *ahok* 'yes' is used. The English 'yes' is used where the Kusaiean *moh* 'no' is used. The selection of the response words in English depends upon the *content* of the answer alone. When the answer is negative, the response word 'no' is used. When the answer is not negative, the response word 'yes' is used. In Kusaiean the selection depends upon the agreement between the question and the answer in terms of negation.

Following are some additional examples of yes-no questions and their alternative answers.

Ac oasr toeni se ofong?
'Will there be a class tonight?'

Ahok, oasr.
'Yes, there will be.'

Moh, ac tiyac oasr.
'No, there will not be.'

Disjunctive Questions

9.2.1.2 Disjunctive questions anticipate an answer consisting of one of the two or more alternatives mentioned in the question. Furthermore, disjunctive questions have a rising-falling intonation pattern. Look at the following examples.

Kom luhngse kohfi *kuh* mil?

'Do you want coffee or milk?'

Eltahl enenuh usr *kuh* muh?

'Do they need bananas or oranges?'

El som pahtuhr kuh ti etong?

'Did he go fishing or picking fire-wood?'

Questions with Interrogative Words

9.2.1.3 The following questions have interrogative words in them, and they have a falling intonation pattern.

Kom ac som nuh oyac?

'Where are you going?'

Eltahl ac muhta inge puh tahkah?

'How long will they stay here?'

Kom yukwiyac mos ah fuhkah?

'How did you plant the breadfruit trees?'

For the uses of the interrogative words, see 4.10, where they are presented.

IMPERATIVE SENTENCES

9.3 The imperative sentence is a type of sentence which is used in asking, requesting or commanding somebody to do something. But this characterization of the imperative sentence is not enough to distinguish it from a declarative sentence. Compare the following sentences for example. Both can be used in requests.

Kom kuh in use puk sacn?
'Could you bring me the book?'

Use puk sacn!
'Bring the book to me.' 'Bring me the book.'

The first sentence above is an interrogative sentence, while the second one is imperative. In what follows, certain characteristics of imperative sentences which distinguish them from the declarative sentences or from the interrogative sentences will be presented.

CHARACTERISTICS OF IMPERATIVE SENTENCES

9.3.1 The subject is an obligatory element both in declarative and interrogative sentences. The absence of the subject is one of the main features of imperative sentences. Look at the following imperative sentences which have no subjects:

Fihkarelah inum ah!
'Spread the sand on the kitchen floor!'

Ahkosack sitosah soko nge!
'Start this car!'

Orek ma lututacng!
'Work tomorrow morning!'

In the following sentence, however, the proper noun *Sohn* 'John' appears at the beginning of the sentence where subjects usually occur. But it is not a subject of the sentence.

Sohn, retema lwacta an nuh sihk.
'John, read the letter to me!'

If the word *Sohn* were the subject of the above sentence and if the sentence were declarative, the subject marker *el* would be used, as in the following sentence.

Sohn el retema lwacta sac nuh sihk.
'John read the letter to me.'

The subject marker *el* helps to distinguish a declarative sentence from an imperative sentence. Also, in actual speech, the two sentences are distinguished from each other by a pause (as shown by the comma in the written form). A considerable pause intervenes between *Sohn* and the rest of the imperative sentence.

Proper nouns, pronouns, and noun phrases can also appear in the subject position. In such cases, the pause and the intonation pattern signals whether the pronoun or the noun phrase is a subject or not.

Another important difference between declarative and imperative sentences is that the tense-markers can be optionally used in declarative, but not in imperative, sentences. Words such as *ac*, *fah*, and *tuh* are tense-markers and cannot be used in imperative sentences. (See 6.4, for the tense system of declarative sentences.)

Direct and Indirect Imperative Sentences

9.3.2 Imperative sentences can be grouped into two classes: **direct** and **indirect** imperative sentences. The imperative sentences that we have examined in the preceding section are direct imperative sentences in the sense that the person spoken to is to carry out a certain action requested or commanded. Another type of imperative sentence is that in which the person spoken to is but a mediator and the action is to be carried out by a third person. Note the imperative sentence below.

Elan uniyac pik soko ah.
'Let (or allow, make, tell) him (to) kill the pig.'

The action of the killing is not to be carried out by the person spoken to but by a third person. The term **indirect imperative sentences** will be used to refer to sentences such as the one above.

The indirect imperative sentences seem to be shortened forms of direct imperative sentences. W can compare the following two sentences.

Lwelah elan som pahtuhr.
'Allow him to go fishing.'

Elan som pahtuhr.
'Allow him to go fishing.'

The only difference between the two sentences above is that in

the first sentence the verb *lwelah* 'to allow' is used, whereas in the second sentence it is not used. The second sentence seems to have been derived from the first by simply omitting the verb *lwelah*.

Besides *lwelah* the following verbs can be used: *sap* 'to tell' or 'to order'; *fihlelah* 'to permit'; *kwacfe* 'to request'. Observe the imperative sentences below. The parentheses indicate that the elements in them can be omitted.

(Sap) elan otwelah fohtoh sac.
'Tell him to finish weaving the basket.'

(Fihlelah) eltahl in tuhkuh fong.
'Permit them to come tonight.'

(Kwacfe) elan orekma upac.
'Ask him to work hard.'

PECTS OF IMPERATIVE SENTENCES

.3 Imperative sentences are used in requesting, commanding or urging, all of which have a future time reference, since the action referred to in them is to be carried out after the request or command is made.

However, verbs in imperative sentences usually appear in the complete aspect. For example:

Iseack tutpes ah.
'Squeeze out the toothpaste.'

The directional suffix *-ack* is used in the sentence above. In a declarative sentence the suffix denotes that an action has come to an end and a certain result is achieved. Look at the following sentence.

Nga iseack tutpes ah.
'I squeezed out (some of) the toothpaste.'

A future time reference and complete aspect in the same sentence do not seem to be compatible. But, actually, verbs of complete aspect are used in imperative sentences more frequently than those of incomplete aspect. Some reasons why verbs of complete aspect are used more frequently will be examined below.

We observed in 6.3 that a verb without any directional suffix can be ambiguous. (See 4.3 for the uses of directional suffixes as aspect markers in declarative sentences.) Suppose the following sentence is spoken to a listener who might not know what *Sohn* is doing exactly.

Sohn el pihkihn pohk se.
'John is digging up a box.' or 'John is burying a box.'

As the two translations indicate, the listener may not know whether John is digging up a box or burying one. In a similar way, if the following imperative sentence is spoken to a person who does not know what was going on before or what is expected of him, he might not know how to react to the command.

Pihkihn pohk se.
'Dig up a box.' or 'Bury a box.'

That is, the listener may not know whether he is to dig up or bury a certain box. But when the two directional suffixes, *-ack* and *-yac* are used, as in the following imperative sentences, there is no ambiguity.

Pihkihnyac pohk se.
'Bury a box.'

Puhkanack pohk se.
'Dig up a box.'

Let us observe another set of imperative sentences. In the first sentence below, no directional suffix is used. Let us suppose that a radio is turned on. When the first sentence is used, the listener may not know whether he should turn it up or down. In the other two sentences the suffixes *-ack* and *-yac* are used, and the speaker can immediately react to the command.

Urok retio sac.
'Turn the radio.'

Urokack retio sac.
'Turn up the radio.'

Urokyac retio sac.
'Turn down the radio.'

To summarize: when they are used in declarative sentences, the directional suffixes denote that a certain action has come to an end and a certain result has been achieved. When they are used in imperative sentences, the directional suffixes do not denote that a certain action has come to an end, but they specify the desired result of a certain action.

Verbs of incomplete aspect are also used in imperative sentences. But they seem to be used only when the speaker assumes that the listener already knows what is expected of him or when he thinks that the listener already knows what he is to do next. Let us observe some specific cases.

A speaker may give an order with the imperative sentence below in which a verb of complete aspect is used.

Tahkuhslah kaki ah.
'Husk the coconuts.'

When the speaker urges the listener to keep on removing the meat, he may use the imperative sentence below, in which a verb of incomplete aspect is used.

Tahkuhs kaki ah.
'Husk the coconuts.'

The verb of incomplete aspect is used above because the speaker assumes that the listener already knows what he should do.

We have thus far pointed out that the notion of future time reference and that of complete aspect do not seem to be compatible. But the verbs of complete aspect are more frequently used to specify the desired results of a certain action.

NEGATION OF IMPERATIVE SENTENCES

9.3.4 The two negative words listed below are always used at the beginning in negative imperative sentences.

nik	'don't'
mwet	'don't'

The negative word *nik* 'don't' must be used either with the second person subject pronoun *kom* 'you' or with *met*. The meaning of *met* in *nik met* is not clearly understood by the writer. Look at the following sentences in which *nik kom* is used.

Nik kom (or komtacl) ahkmas.
'Don't kill.'

Nik kom (or komtacl) pihsrapasr.
'Don't steal.'

Nik kom (or komtacl) kahskahs kikiyacp nuh sin mwet tuhlan lom an.
'Don't lie to your neighbors.'

In the following imperative sentences, the word *met* is used instead of *kom*.

Nik met ahkmas.
'Don't kill.'

Nik met pihsrapasr.
'Don't steal.'

Nik met kosro.
'Don't commit adultery.'

The difference between *nik kom* and *nik met* lies in the fact that an imperative sentence with *nik kom* is directed to the listener, whereas an imperative sentence with *nik met* is not necessarily directed to any particular listener. It is more or less an admonition rather than a command.

Nik met has a variant form, *ni met*, which is considered very informal and rude.

Unlike the negative word *nik*, *mwet* 'don't' can be used with or without the second person. Look at the following imperative sentences. The word that appears in parentheses is optional.

Mwet (kom) sroalsroali wes luhk ah.
'Don't make my shirt black.'

Mwet (kom) lihkahsihki won ah.
'Don't shoot at the birds.'

Mwet (kom) passai acn sacn.
'Don't clear the place.'

Negative Imperative Sentences and Aspects

9.3.5 It was pointed out (9.3.3) that verbs of complete aspect are more commonly used in imperative sentences than those of incomplete aspect. But in the negative imperative sentences, the reverse is the case; that is, verbs of incomplete aspect are more commonly used in negative imperative sentences.

Generally, in negative imperative sentences a verb of incomplete aspect is used to denote the type of action that is not to be performed, regardless of the results of the action. The negative imperative sentence below implies that you can cook or give away the fish but must not salt them.

Nik kom sohli ik ah.
'Don't salt the fish.'

A negative imperative sentence with a verb of incomplete aspect seems to convey an absolute absence of an action, whereas a negative imperative sentence with a verb of complete aspect warns against a specific result of the action. Compare the following set of negative imperative sentences.

Nik kom kang ik ah.
'Don't eat the fish.'

Nik kom kanglah ik ah.
'Don't eat all of the fish.'

Nik kom kangack ik ah.
'Don't bite all the fish.'

The first sentence above conveys an idea that the fish must not be touched at all. The second sentence means that one can eat the fish but not all of the fish (or not the whole fish). The third sentence means that one can eat the fish, but not bite off pieces from each of the fish. Here is another set of negative imperative sentences.

Nik kom pahtok tepuh sac.
'Don't push (or pull) the table.'

Nik kom pahtoklah tepuh sac.
'Don't push away the table.

Pahtakma nuh nge.
Push it to me (or toward me).'

The first sentence above implies that the listener must not do anything related to pushing or pulling, while the second implies that the listener can pull (or push), but he must not pull it toward a specific direction. Some additional sets of examples are listed below. Notice the differences in meaning.

1. Nik met kulus muh ah.
   'Don't peel the oranges.'
2. Nik met koloslah muh ah.
   'Don't peel all of the oranges.'
3. Nik met kolosack muh ah.
   'Don't peel all of the oranges partly.'

1. Nik met sis puhs ah.
   'Don't throw the waste.'
2. Nik met sisma puhs ah. Sislah.
   'Don't throw the waste to me. Throw it away.'
3. Nik met siselihk puhs ah. Siseni.
   'Don't throw the waste in all directions. Throw it in one place.'

Adjectives and Imperative Sentences

9.3.6 Adjectives themselves are not used in imperative sentences. But

there are two ways by which adjectives can be used in such constructions. One way is to change adjectives into transitive verbs with the causative prefix *ahk-*. The causativized transitive verbs can be used in imperative sentences like any other transitive verbs. Look at the following imperative sentences. The object pronoun in parentheses is optional.

Ahkalkenye (kom).
'Make yourself diligent.' 'Be diligent.'

Ahkpihsrpihsrye (kom).
'Make yourself quick.' 'Be quick.'

Ahkpuhlaikye (kom).
'Make yourself brave.' 'Be brave.'

Ahkirpihtye (kom).
'Make yourself alert.' 'Be alert.'

Another way in which adjectives can be used in imperative sentences is to use them with the verb *oruh* 'to make' or 'to force'. Look at the following sentences.

Oruh kon woyak.
'Try to be good.'

Oruh kon oaruyak.
'Try to be prudent.'

Oruh kon epahsryak.
'Try to be respectful.'

Oruh kon tiyac sifil pac kulukyak.
'Try not to be bad again.

Polite Forms of Imperative Sentences

9.3.7 An imperative sentence can convey a brusque command or a polite request, depending upon the way it is uttered in a particular situation. The following imperative sentence below, for example, can be construed as a command as well as a request.

Kuhn, tahkuhslah kaki ah.
'Kuhn, husk the coconuts.'

However, there are three ways of making an imperative sentence sound polite. One is to use the word *wihn* 'please' at the end of an imperative sentence. Look at the following sentences.

Use puk sacn, *wihn*.
'Bring that book, please.'

Kuhn, tahkuhslah kaki ah, *wihn*.
'Kuhn, husk the coconut, please.'

Sepe, soane yuh, *wihn*.
'Sepe, wait for me, please.'

Another way of making an imperative sentence sound polite is to use the phrase *nuhnak muhnahs* 'excuse me' or 'pardon me'. The phrase can occur either at the beginning of an imperative sentence or at the end of it. Look at the following example.

Olema usr ah, *nuhnak muhnahs*.
Nuhnak muhnahs, olema usr ah.
'Excuse me, but pick the bananas and bring them to me.'

Ollah nuknuk ah, *nuhnak muhnahs*.
Nuhnak muhnahs, ollah nuknuk ah.
'Excuse me, but wash the clothes.'

A third way of making imperative sentences polite is by using a tag-question. The term **tag-question** refers to a yes-no question that follows immediately after an imperative sentence. Look at the following sentence. (The tag-question is italicized in each sentence.)

Use puk sacn. *Kom kuh*?
'Bring that book. Can you?'

Pahkema sahk soko ah. *Kom kuh*?
'Chop down the tree and bring it to me. Can you?'

10 Complex Sentences

SENTENCE TYPES

10.1 In chapter 9 we saw that sentences can be classified into three different types: declarative, imperative, and interrogative. The classification was made in terms of their communicative functions. In this chapter we will see that sentences can be classified in terms of their structures into three additional types: simple, compound, and complex.

A simple sentence is made up of one sentence, which may be declarative, imperative, or interrogative. The following are simple sentences.

Sohn el sritacl kita.
'John plays guitar.'

Kuh kom fah tuhkuh oyekuh?
'Do you intend to come tonight?

Nikmet som lututacng.
'Don't go early in the morning.'

A compound sentence is made up of two or more than two sentences that are connected by coordinate conjunctions. (See 4.11.1 for the definition and uses of the coordinate conjunctions.) Look at the following compound sentences.

Nga tuhkuh *na* el som.
'I arrived and then he left.'

Sohn el ac som *a* Sepe el ac tiyac som.
'John will go but Sepe will not go.'

Nga futfut pohl *nwe* arlac ullac.
'I was kicking the ball and I am very tired.'

A complex sentence is also made up of two or more than two

sentences. But a complex sentence differs from a compound sentence in the relation of one sentence to the other. Let us compare the two sentences below. The first sentence is compound and the second is complex. Each is made up of two sentences.

Nga ac som *a* kom ac muhta. (compound sentence)
'I will go but you will stay.'

Nga nuhnkuh *muh* Sohn el tiyac kuh. (complex sentence)
'I think that John is not strong.'

In the case of the compound sentence, the two sentences in it are independent of each other in terms of their structure. But in the case of the complex sentence above, *Sohn el tiyac kuh* is a part of the whole sentence, functioning as the object of the transitive verb *nuhnkuh* 'to think'. The term **dependent clause** will be used to refer to sentences which function as a part of another sentence. The term **main clause** will be used to refer to the whole sentence that contains the dependent clause.

A clause in a sentence can function as a modifier of a noun. In the following sentence the italicized part is a clause which modifies the noun *won* 'birds'.

Won ma *Sohn el sruokyac* ah arlac fact.
'The birds that John caught are very fat.'

The term **relative clause** is used to refer to a clause which has a modifying function. Relative clauses will be treated in detail in 10.2.

A clause can function as a subject or object of a transitive verb. The italicized part in the sentence below is a clause that functions as an object of the transitive verb *puhla* 'to feel'.

Nga puhla muh *Sepe el ac tuhkuh mihsenge.*
'I feel that Sepe will come today.'

In terms of function, the clause in the sentence above is similar to a noun phrase whose main function is as a subject or as an object. A clause that functions like a noun phrase will be called **nominal clause.** They will be treated in detail in 10.3.

A clause can have adverbial functions in a sentence, denoting cause, reason, result, purpose, concession or condition. The term **adverbial clause** will be used to refer to clauses which have adverbial functions. Adverbial clauses will be presented in 10.4.

There is another type of dependent clause, marked by the word *in*, which is called an **infinitive clause**. This type will be discussed in 10.5.

THE RELATIVE CLAUSE

10.2 In 6.1.2–3, it was observed that adjectives, numerals, classifiers can serve as modifiers of a head noun in a noun phr In this chapter we will see that a sentence can function modifier of a head noun in a noun phrase. Observe the follo sentence (in which the subject is underlined).

> Fohtoh luo ma *ninac el otwelah* ah arlac wo.
> 'The two baskets that Mother has woven are very good.'

Confining our attention to the subject noun phrase, we observe that there is a sentence (italicized) within the su noun phrase. Although the italicized part is a sentence, it i independent; it is a part of the noun phrase and its function modify the head noun *fohtoh* 'basket'. The term **relative c** will be used to refer to a sentence which appears within a phrase and modifies the head noun. The term **antecedent** w used for the noun or noun phrase which is modified by a rel clause.

FORMATION OF THE RELATIVE CLAUSE

10.2.1 The sentence below has a relative clause in the object phrase.

> Nga molelah ik ekahsr ma *Sah el ahsack* ah.
> 'I bought a few fish that Sah caught.'

If we examine the relative clause carefully, we find that it a complete sentence by itself. The object of the transitive *ahsack* 'caught' does not follow the verb. But Kusaiean spe will know that its object is *ik ekahsr* 'a few fish'. *Ik ekahsr* i the object of the verb *molelah* 'bought'. So the phrase *ik e* has a dual function in the sentence above.

Let us observe another relative clause.

> Nga sun mwet Maclwem se ma *macruhtlac nuh sin muhtwac kahto sac.*
> 'I met the man who is married to the pretty woman.'

The italicized part in the sentence above is a relative claus the subject of the relative clause does not appear in the ita part. Nevertheless, we can immediately tell that the one married to the pretty woman is *mwet Maclwem se* 'a Mal The phrase *mwet Maclwem se* also serves as the object

transitive verb *sun* 'meet with'. A phrase or a noun which immediately precedes the relative clause has a dual function—one in the relative clause and one in the whole sentence.

A sentence with a relative clause in it seems to result from combining two related sentences. Suppose we have the following two sentences.

1. Nga retelah puk luo.
   'I read two books.'
2. Puk luo ah arlac pwacr.
   'The two books are very interesting.'

By combining the two sentences we have the following sentence in which the first sentence above appears as a relative clause in the subject noun phrase of the second sentence.

Puk luo ma *nga retelah* ah arlac pwacr
'The two books that I have read are very interesting.'

Given the first two sentences below, we can have the third sentence in which the first sentence appears as a relative clause of the object noun phrase.

1. Sah el ahsack ik ekahsr.
   'Sah caught a few fish.'
2. Ninac el muhnanack ik ekahsr ah.
   'Mother cooked the few fish.'
3. Ninac el muhanack ik ekahsr ma *Sah el ahsack* ah.
   'Mother cooked the few fish that Sah caught.'

For the discussion to follow, it will be assumed that a sentence with a relative clause is derived from two sentences. We will now offer a somewhat theoretical discussion of the way in which two sentences are combined into a larger sentence with a relative clause. Bear in mind that the speaker of Kusaiean does not go through these steps as he speaks the language. This description is how a linguist interprets the process.

To illustrate the way in which one sentence is made into a relative clause, we will use the following two sentences.

1. Nga lohng on soko.
   'I am listening to a song.'
2. *On soko ah* arlac pwacr.
   'The song is very interesting.'

Three important steps are necessary to make the first sentence a relative clause.
First, place the first sentence above before the determiner *ah* of the subject noun phrase of the second sentence as follows: (Remember that the following is a hypothetical structure.)

On soko *nga lohng on soko* ah arlac pwacr.

Second, prepose *on soko* (italicized) to the beginning of the first sentence, as follows:

On soko *on soko* nga lohng _____ ah arlac pwacr.

Third, replace the second *on soko* with the relative pronoun *ma*. (See 4.4.5, for the use of the relative pronoun *ma*.)

on soko
↓
On soko ma *nga lohng* ah arlac pwacr.
'The song that I am listening to is very interesting.'

The following is another example of making a sentence a relative clause. The roman numerals I, II, and III refer to the three steps.

1. Sohn el tuhngalyac won luo.
   'John caught two birds.'
2. Ninac el poheleack won luo ah.
   'Mother cooked (boiled) the two birds.'

I. Ninac el poheleack won luo *Sohn el tuhngalyac won luo* ah.
II. Ninac el poheleack won luo *won luo* Sohn el tuhngalyac _____ ah.
III. Ninah el poheleack won luo *ma Sohn el tuhngalyac* ah.
'Mother boiled the two birds that John caught.'

The second step (II) above is very similar to preposing a noun phrase of a predicate to the sentence initial position, which is dealt with in 8. In the following sentence, the italicized part is a location phrase. It can be preposed to the sentence-initial position. When this preposing takes place, the word *we* is left behind.

1. Sah el muhta *lohm sel Srue ah*.
   'Sah is staying Srue's house.'
2. *Lohm sel Srue ah*, Sah el muhta *we*.
   '(At) Srue's house, Sah is staying there.'

If the first sentence above is changed into a relative clause of the following sentence, *we* is left behind in the relative clause.

Pahpah el orwaclah *lohm sel Srue ah.*
Pahpah el orwaclah lohm sel Srue *ma Sah el muhta we ah.*

The italicized part below is a part of the object noun phrase. It can be preposed to the sentence-initial position with a concomitant change of *niyen* to *niyacl.*

1. Tuhlwen el kihnisyac niyen *tuhlihk muhtwacn sac.*
'Tuhlwen pinched the girl's leg.'

2. *Tuhlihk muhtwacn sac,* Tuhlwen el kihnisyac niyacl.
'The girl, Tuhlwen pinched her leg.'

If the first sentence above becomes a relative clause of the subject noun phrase of the following sentence, we can observe the same change of *niyen* into *niyahl.*

3. Tuhlihk muhtwacn sac tuhngyak.
'The girls began to cry.'

4. Tuhlihk muhtwacn se ma *Tuhlwen el kihnisyac niyacl* ah tuhngyak.
'The girl whose leg Tuhlwen pinched began to cry.'

Following are some additional sentences that have relative clauses in them. The example sentences will be presented according to the function of the antecedent in the relative clause.

The antecedents of the following relative clauses are functioning as subjects of the relative clauses. The antecedents appear in square brackets.

[Tuhlihk se] ma *nuhmlah piru* ah arlac sruhilac.
'The child who drank up the beer became very drunk.'

Taktuh el onoi [mwet] ma *weack kohf* ah.
'The doctor is treating the men who caught a cold.'

[Kosro soko] ma *tuhlac ekweyah* ah fohlohkoh olutu.
'The dog which was lost yesterday came back this morning.'

Eltahl kwacsrihpi [pik soko] ma *kahenglac* ah.
'They are trying to snare the pig that ran away.'

The antecedents of the following relative clauses serve as the objects of the transitive verbs of the relative clauses.

Nga fohlohkuhnlah [puk se] ma *nga retelah ekweyah ah.*
'I returned the book that I finished reading yesterday.'

[Fohtoh luo] ma *ninac el otwelah* ah arlac wo na pwacye.
'The two baskets that mother wove are very good indeed.'

[Fahfah se] ma *Kuhn el orwaclah* ah arlac yuh.
'The poi that Kuhn has made is very delicious.'

Sepe el sang [fuhlao se] ma *nga molelah Ponpe* ah.
'Sepe gave the flour that I bought at Ponape.'

The antecedents of the following relative clauses are location phrases of the relative clauses.

[Inmolsron se] ma *Tongaru el oai we* ah arlac tihngtihngi.
'The harbor where the ship Tongaru came in is blocked.

[Lohm se] ma *eltahl muhta we* ah arlac fohkfohk.
'The house in which they are living became very dirty.'

[Inluhluh se] ma *puhkantwen ik we* uh asr Leluh.
'The pond in which there are many fish is in Leluh.'

Sah el puhtatlac [fin inkacnek soko] ma *puhkantwen fokon pik w* ah.
'Sah fell down on the path where there are lots of pigs' feces.'

The antecedents below function as the object of the preposition in the relative clauses.

[Mitmit se] ma *nga paki sahk soko inge* kac ah arlac kunutnuti.
'The knife that I am cutting the tree with is very dull.'

[Kosro soko] ma *tuhlihk sac ahngyahng nuh se* ah ngalisyac niya
'The dog that the child is annoying bit his leg.'

Muhsahllah [sinkac se] ma *Sohn el kihpackuhnacng pohl sac nuh kac* ah.
'The wall that John threw the ball at collapsed.'

Nga etuh [mwet se] ma *Sah el molelah kiaka sac se* ah.
'I know the man whom Sah bought the mat from.'

The antecedents of the following sentences are elements th should appear after construct forms.

[Tuhlihk se] ma *nga longyac niyac* ah tuhngyak.
'The child whose foot I stepped on began to cry.'

El sruokyac [won se] ma *niyac ah kaptwaclihk* ah.
'I caught a bird whose leg is broken.'

Nga enenuh in oruh [um se] ma *nga nihkihn oreiyac* ah.
'I have to make an earth-oven which I do not know how to mak

The Relative Clause and Determiners

10.2.2 When a noun phrase has a relative clause in it, one of the determiners *ah*, *uh*, and *an* must be used. The subject noun phrases of the two sentences below differ from each other only in that the determiner is used in the second sentence but not in the first sentence. Except for the determiner, the other elements in the noun phrases are the same.

1. Mwet loeloes luo tuhkuh.
   'Two tall men came.'
2. Mwet loeloes luo ah tuhkuh
   'The two tall men came.'

When a relative clause is added to the subject noun phrase, as in the following, the determiner must be used. Otherwise, the sentence is ungrammatical.

Mwet loeloes luo ma *nga etuh* ah tuhkuh.
'The two tall men that I know came.'

The determiner is obligatory with a noun phrase which is modified by a relative clause.

Restrictions on Antecedents

10.2.3 There are some restrictions in Kusaeian on the antecedents of relative clauses. One such restriction is that pronouns cannot be antecedents of relative clauses. For example, one cannot say the following:

Nga luhngse [kom] ma *koaseyuh* ah. (ungrammatical)
'I like you who hates me.'

Another restriction is that proper personal nouns cannot be head nouns unless they are changed into common nouns, in which case they are no longer proper nouns. (See 4.1.2.5 for the definition of a proper noun and its conversion to a common noun.) In the sentence below, the antecedent of the relative clause is a proper noun and the sentence is ungrammatical.

[Sohn] ma *tuhkuh ekweyah* ah arlac enganack. (ungrammatical)
'John that came yesterday is very happy.'

However, when the proper noun *Sohn* 'John' is modified by a numeral, as in the following sentence, the sentence is grammatical.

The numeral indicates that the proper noun *Sohn* is regarded as a common noun.

[Sohn luo] ma *tuhkuh ekweyah* ah arlac enganack.
'The two Johns that came yesterday are very happy.'

Finally, the determiner cannot be used with antecedents of relative clauses. In the sentence below the antecedent is modified by the determiner, which appears before the relative clause; the sentence is thus ungrammatical.

Eltahl kapriyac [mwet ah] ma *sruhilac* ah. (ungrammatical)
'They arrested [those men who were drunken.']

To summarize: we saw that pronouns and proper nouns cannot be antecedents of relative clauses, and that head nouns cannot be modified by determiners. These restrictions can be boiled down to one rule: the antecedent of a relative clause cannot be a definite noun phrase. (See 6.1.5 for the definition of the definite noun phrase.)

Omission of Relative Pronoun *ma*

10.2.4 The relative pronoun *ma* cannot be deleted when the antecedent of a relative clause functions as the subject of the relative clause. But in all other cases, such as the object of a transitive verb or a preposition in a relative clause, the relative pronoun *ma* can be deleted.

In the sentence below the antecedent serves as a subject of the relative clause and *ma* cannot be deleted.

[Kosro soko] ma *ngalisyac pouk* ah lihsyuhklac.
'The dog that bit my hand has been chased away.'

When the relative pronoun *ma* is omitted as in the following the sentence becomes ungrammatical.

[Kosro soko] *ngalisyac pouk* ah lihsyuhklac. (ungrammatical)

When the antecedent of a relative clause is not the subject of relative clause, it can be deleted without any change in meaning. Look at the following pairs of sentences. The relative pronoun is not used in the second sentence of each pair.

Nga fohlohkuhnlah [puk se] ma nga riti ekweyah ah.
Nga fohlohkuhnlah [puk se] nga riti ekweyah ah.
'I have returned the book that I was reading yesterday.'

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The antecedent *puk se* is functioning as the object of the transitive verb *riti* 'to read'.

[Mitmit se] *nga paki sahk soko ah kac* ah arlac kohsroh.
'The knife that I cut the tree with is very sharp.'

The antecedent *mitmit se* above is functioning as the object of the preposition *ke* 'with'.

Omission of Antecedents

10.2.5 In the preceding section we saw that the relative pronoun *ma* can be deleted under certain conditions. In this section we will see that the antecedents after the preposition *ke* 'at' and *met liki* 'before' can be deleted only when they are used to denote time. In the sentence below, the antecedent is *pacl se* 'a time' and it appears in square brackets.

Sah el arlac foloyak ke [pacl se] ma *nga ahngyahng nuh sel* ah.
'Sah got very mad at the time when I bothered him.'

The antecedent of the relative clause in the sentence above can be omitted, together with the relative pronoun (as shown below).

Sah el arlac foloyak ke [ ] ——— *nga ahngahyng nuh sel* ah.
'Sah got very mad when I bothered him.'

When the antecedent and the relative pronoun *ma* are deleted, as in the sentence above, *ke* seems to be a conjunction. But when *ke* is regarded as a conjunction, the presence of the determiner *ah* at the end of the sentence cannot be accounted for. When the second sentence above is assumed to be derived from the first sentence, we can account for the determiner.

Returning to the Kusaiean sentence above, suppose we have the following sentence in which the antecedent and the relative pronoun are deleted after the preposition *ke*. As can be seen, several time phrases, in addition to *pacl se*, can be antecedents.

Pahpah el misac ke { *pacl se* / *lwen se* / *wik se* / *mahlwen se* / *yac se* / *ao se* } *nga fohlohkoh* ah.

'Father died { at the time / on the day / in the week / in the month / in the year / in the hour } when I returned.

It seems, then, that the head nouns can be deleted when the speaker assumes that the hearer also knows whether the speaker is talking about the day, the week, or the year.

The antecedents after *met liki* 'before' can be deleted, as is the case with the preposition *ke*. Some examples are presented below. The elements that can be deleted appear in parentheses.

Sohn el sroalelah lohm se met liki (pacl se ma) *nga tari ke ma sac.*
'John finished painting the house before the time when I was through with the thing.'
'John finished painting the house before I was through with the thing.'

Eltahl sun acn Kosrae met liki (lwen se ma) *fohru se sikyak* ah.
'They reached Kusaie before the day when the hurricane arose.'
'They reached Kusaie before the hurricane arose.'

Mwet Sacpacnis ah muhsahelah sohs ah met liki (yac se ma) *nga isuslac* ah.
'The Japanese people built the bridge before (the year when) I was born.'
'The Japanese people built the bridge before I was born.'

In addition to the prepositions *ke* and *met liki*, there is another word after which the antecedent can be deleted. The word is *tukun* 'back of' or 'after'. The word is the construct form of *tok* 'back'. The head noun of a relative clause can be omitted after this word, when *tukun* is used to refer to time. In the sentence below the elements that appear in parentheses can be omitted.

Nga ac som nuh posohfihs ah tukun (pacl se ma) *el suhmuhslah lwacta sac* uh.
'I will go to the post office after the time when she finishes the letter.'
'I will go to the post office after she finishes the letter.'

Ninac el ac som pahtuhr tukun (pacl se ma) *el fihkarelah inum ah* uh.
'Mother will go fishing after the time when she finishes spreading the kitchen's pebbles.'
'Mother will go fishing after she finishes spreading the kitchen's pebbles.'

To summarize: the head nouns and the relative pronoun can be deleted after the prepositions *ke* and *met liki*, and the word *tukun*. The deletion is possible only when the words are used to refer to time.

After the head nouns and the relative pronoun are deleted, the words *ke*, *met liki* and *tukun* appear to be conjunctions. But if they are treated simply as conjunctions, the determiner at the end of the sentence cannot be accounted for.

SENTENCES WITH MULTIPLE RELATIVE CLAUSES

10.2.6 So far in this chapter we have observed sentences in which only one relative clause appears. It is possible that more than one relative clause can occur in a sentence. In this section sentences with more than one relative clause will be presented.

The sentence below contains two relative clauses. One appears in the subject noun phrase and the other in the object noun phrase.

Mwet ekahsr ma *sruhilac* ah kuhnahoslah lohm se ma *kuht oruh* ah.
'The few men that were drunk broke down the house that we began to repair.'

Two relative clauses appear in the sentence below. One appears after the head noun *oak soko* 'a canoe', the other appears within another relative clause after the head noun *fohru se* 'a hurricane'.

Kuht sroalelah oak soko *ma pahtacng nuh inmolsron ah ke* fohru se ma *sikyak ah*.
'We painted the canoe that drifted in during the hurricane which arose last week.'

Theoretically, an infinite number of relative clauses can be used within a sentence. But as the number of relative clauses increases, it becomes more difficult to understand the sentences.

NOMINAL CLAUSE

10.3 In the preceding section (10.2) we observed that a dependent clause can have an adjective-like function within a noun phrase. In this section we will see that a dependent clause can function as a noun or noun phrase. Compare the following two sentences. In the first sentence the object of the transitive verb *etuh* 'to know' is a noun phrase *mwet sac* 'that man'. In the second, the object is

a dependent clause introduced by the conjunction *muh* 'that'. The objects are italicized.

Nga etuh *mwet sac*.
'I know that man.'

Nga etuh muh *Sohn el ac tuhkuh lutu*.
'I know that John will come tomorrow.'

In the first sentence below the noun phrase *pweng se* 'this news' is the subject. In the second sentence, the subject is a dependent clause introduced by the conjunction *lah* 'that'. (The subjects are italicized.)

Pwacye *pweng se*.
'This news is true.'

Pwacye lah *el misac*.
'It is true that he died.'

The two sentences *Sohn el ac tuhkuh lutu* 'Join will come tomorrow' and *el misac* 'he died' can be complete sentences by themselves. But when they are preceded by the conjunctions *muh* and *lah*, they can function like a noun phrase.

Uses of Complementizers *lah* and *muh*

10.3.1 Nominal clauses are introduced by the two conjunctions *lah* and *muh* which are called **complementizers**. *Lah* is used when a nominal clause has an interrogative word in it. Observe the following sentences in which nominal clauses contain interrogative words. The nominal clauses are italicized.

Nga etuh lah *Kuhn el muhta oyac*.
'I know where Kuhn is staying.'

Nga etuh lah *efuhkuh el tiyac tuhkuh*.
'I know why he did not come.'

Nga etuh lah *Sepe el tuhkuh ngac*.
'I know when Sepe came.'

Nga etuh lah *meah Kuhn el oruh uh*.
'I know what Kuhn is doing.'

Nga etuh lah *el fuhkah*.
'I know how he is.'

The complementizer *lah* can be used also when a nominal clause does not have an interrogative word in it. In such a case, *lah* can

be translated as 'whether' and the words *kuh tiyac* 'or not' can be added optionally.

Sohn el etuh lah *Sepe el mas kuh tiyac.*
'John knows whether Sepe is sick or not.'

Nga nuhnkuh lah *nga ac enenuh in som kuh tiyac.*
'I wonder if I will have to go or not.'

Sepe el siyuhk sihk lah *el kuh in som.*
'Sepe asked me whether she can go or not.'

El esam lah *el kaliyac sruhnguhl sac kuh tiyac.*
'He is trying to recall whether he closed the door or not.'

From the observations we have made in the preceding paragraphs, the use of *lah* can be summarized in the following way: when interrogative sentences are used as nominal clauses, *lah* is used. On the other hand, *muh* is used when declarative sentences are used as nominal clauses. Some example sentences in which *muh* introduces nominal clauses are presented.

Nga etuh muh *el mas.*
'I know that he is sick.'

Nga esam muh *mihsenge pa lwen luhk uh.*
'I remember that today is my birthday.'

El mahmahi nuh sihk muh *el arlac luhngse nga.*
'He whispered to me that he is very fond of me.'

With some transitive verbs that can take nominal clauses as their objects, either of the two complementizers can be used in most cases. But the transitive verbs have slightly different meanings according to the different complementizers. Observe the following pairs of sentences.

1. Nga esam *lah nga kaliyac sruhnguhl sac.*
   'I am trying to recall whether I closed the door.'
2. Nga esam *muh nga kaliyac sruhnguhl sac.*
   'I remember that I closed the door.'
1. Nga nuhnkuh *lah el ac tuhkuh.*
   'I wonder if he will come.'
2. Nga nuhnkuh *muh el ac tuhkuh.*
   'I think that he will come.'
1. Nga siyuhk sel Kuhn *lah el ac som.*
   'I asked Kuhn whether he will go.'
2. Nga siyuhk sel Kuhn *muh el in som.*
   'I suggested to Kuhn that he should go.'

Some transitive verbs such as *nihkihn* 'not to know', *muhlkihn* 'to forget', *kahlwem* 'understand', and *susfa* 'to bet' are used with the complementizer *lah* only. Look at the following examples.

Nga nihkihn lah *el mas.*
'I do not know that he is sick.'

Nga muhlkuhnlah lah *nga ac som.*
'I had forgotten that I would have to go.'

El susfa lah *nga pa ac som uh.*
'He bets that I will be the one that will go.'

On the other hand, there are many transitive verbs which allow only the complementizer *muh*, such as the following: *finsrak* 'to hope', *fweni* 'to guess', *luhlahlfongi* 'to believe', and *wihli* 'to promise'.

Nga finsrak *muh* eltahl in tuhkuh.
'I wish they would come.'

El fweni *muh* oak ah ac tuhkuh oyekuh.
'He guessed that the ship would come this evening.'

Nga luhlahfongi *muh* el fah sang pohk sac nuh sel Kuhn.
'I believe that he will give the box to Kuhn.'

Nominal Clause as Object

10.3.2 Not all transitive verbs can take nominal clauses as their objects. In this section we will discuss what kinds of transitive verbs can take nominal clauses as their objects and the complementizers that are used.

1. The verbs listed below which are related to perceptions can take nominal clauses as their objects.

liye	'to see'	lohng	'to hear'
puhla	'to feel'	akihlen	'to notice'
porongo	'to listen to'		

The complementizer *muh* is used with the verbs of perception. Look at the following examples.

Nga liye muh *el enenuh in laslas.*
'I saw that he has to be operated upon.'

El lohng muh *pahpah tulunwacl ah kwelac.*
'He heard that his father got well.'

Pahpah el puhla muh *el mas.*
'Father feels that he is sick.'

The dependent clauses in the following sentences introduced by the complementizer *lah* look like objects of the transitive verbs. However, they are not nominal clauses but adverbial clauses denoting purpose. (See 10.4.5 for the use of *lah* as a purpose conjunction.)

Nga liye lah *el ac enenuh in som.*
'I am looking (at something) to see if he has to go.'

El lohng lah *Sohn el ac tuhkuh ngac.*
'He is listening (to something) to see when John came.'

2. The verbs listed below which describe mental activities can take nominal clauses as objects:

nuhnkuh	'to think'	esam	'to remember'
etuh	'to know'	luhlalfongi	'to believe'
motko	'to figure out'	puh	'to discuss'
kahlwem	'to understand'	muhlkihn	'to forget'
nihkihn	'not to know'	lahfuh	'to deny'
luhma	'to picture in mind'		

The transitive verbs *nuhnkuh* 'to think', *esam* 'to remember', *etuh* 'to know', and *motko* 'to figure out' can be used with either of the two complementizers *lah* and *muh*. But the verbs *kahlwem* 'to understand', *nihkihn* 'not to know', *muhlkihn* 'to forget' can be used with the complementizer *lah* only. Some example sentences are presented below.

Nga nihkihn lah *Sohn el ac moli acn sac kuh tiyac.*
'I do not know whether John will buy the land or not.'

Nga muhlkuhnlah lah *nga ac liyacl taktuh.*
'I had forgotten that I was to see the doctor.'

Nga kahlwem lah *efuhkuh el som pahtuhr.*
'I understand why he went fishing.'

Sohn el luhlahlfongi muh *Sepe el ac macruhtyak sel.*
'John believes that Sepe will marry him.'

3. The verbs listed below whose meanings are related to reporting or asking can take nominal clauses as their objects.

topuk	'to answer'	fahk	'to say'
kalweni	'to repeat'	mahmahi	'to whisper at'
sulkackihn	'to spread (news)'		
siyuhk	'to ask'	kwacfe	'to request'

The complementizer *muh* is used with the verbs listed abo
Look at the following examples.

Pahpah el fahk nuh sihktacl muh *kihtacl in som pahtuhr.*
'Father told us that we should go fishing.'

Sal el sulkackihn nuh seltahl muh *oak soko an tihli.*
'Sah announced to them that the ship sank.'

El kalweni muh *nga pa ac som uh.*
'He said repeatedly that I am the one who should go.'

Sohn el topuk muh *elan som nuh Kosrae.*
'John answered that he has to go to Kusaie.'

The two verbs *siyuhk* 'to ask', and *kwacfe* 'to request' can t
either *muh* or *lah*. But the meanings of the verbs become differe

1. Sohn el siyuhk sihk muh *nga in weluhl som.*
   'John urged (me) that I should go with him.'
2. Sohn el siyuhk sihk lah *nga ac weluhl som.*
   'John asked me if I would go with him.'
1. Meri el kwacfe sihk muh *nga in wi petsac.*
   'Mary requested that I should go see the picture.'
2. Meri el kwacfe sihk lah *nga ac wi petsac.*
   'Mary asked me if I would go see the picture.'

Nominal Clause as Subject

10.3.3 We noted that not all transitive verbs can take nominal clau
as objects. Likewise, not all adjectives can take nominal clau
as subjects. Those listed below usually take a nominal clause
the subject.

pwacye	'true'
kahlwem	'clear'
kuluk	'bad'
sakihrihk	'strange'
tweyuhk	'not sure'

Only the complementizer *lah* is used with the subject nomi
clause. Some examples of nominal clauses as subjects
presented below. The subjects are italicized.

Pwacye lah *Srue el kauli ekweyah.*
'It is true that Srue was arrested yesterday.'

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Kahlwem lah *eltahl tiyac nuhnkuh in kahsrweyuh.*
'It is clear that they do not intend to help me.'

Kuluk lah *Sohn el tiyac tuhkuh olutu.*
'It is bad that John did not come this morning.'

Sakihrihk lah *Sah el tiyac fahkack ma sacn.*
'It is strange that Sah did not speak up.'

ADVERBIAL CLAUSES

10.4 Adverbial clauses have functions similar to simple adverbs and prepositional phrases, and they are used to express time, manner, condition, concession, cause, and purpose. (See 4.9 for different types of adverbs and 4.8 for the different meanings of prepositions.) We will now examine different kinds of adverbial clauses.

ADVERBIAL CLAUSE OF TIME

10.4.1 The words *ke* 'when', *met liki* 'before' and *tukun* 'after' are used to introduce adverbial clauses of time. (See 10.2.3 and 4.8 where it is pointed out that the words *ke* and *met liki* are basically prepositions and the word *tukun* is a construct form of *tohkoh* 'back'.) Some examples (italicized) of adverbial clauses of time are presented below.

Sohn el engan *ke el muhta Awai ah.*
'John was happy when he was in Hawaii.'

Nga ahksahfyelah orek ma se *met liki el tuhkuh uh.*
'I had finished this work before he came.'

Sohn el tuhkuh *tukun nga pahngnol ah.*
'John came after I called him.'

ADVERBIAL CLAUSE OF CONDITION

10.4.2 The words *fin* and *fuhnuh* are used to introduce adverbial clauses of condition. *Fin* is used to state a condition which is possible or probable at the moment of speaking or sometime in the future. Look at the following sentence.

Fin af lutu, nga ac tiyac som.
'If it rains tomorrow, I will not go.'

The word *fuhnuh* is used to state a condition which is contrary to fact. Look at the following sentence.

Fuhnuh Sepe el tuhkuh ekweyah, luhkuhn el tiyac misac.
'If Sepe had come yesterday, he might have not died.'

The adverbial clause above (italicized) implies that Sepe did not come yesterday and states a condition which is contrary to fact.

When *fuhnuh* is used in adverbial clauses of condition, the adverb *luhkuhn* 'probably' or 'perhaps' must be used in the main clause.

The status of the words *fin* and *fuhnuh* is rather difficult to define. They can be regarded as conjunctions as well as a mode-markers. Conjunctions appear at the beginning of a dependent clause. Since the two words *fin* and *fuhnuh* can appear the beginning of a dependent clause, they can be regarded as conjunctions. But the two words can also appear within a dependent clause, usually after the subject. In this respect they are not like conjunctions, since conjunctions do not appear after a subject. Look at the following two sentences. In the first sentence, the word *fuhnuh* appears before the dependent clause; in the second, it appears after the subject of the dependent clause.

Fuhnuh el tuhkuh fong, luhkuhn nga sramsram nuh sel.
El *fuhnuh* tuhkuh fong, luhkuhn nga sramsram nuh sel.
'If he had come last night, I would have talked to him.'

Even though the position of the word *fuhnuh* is different in the sentences above, there seems to be no difference in meaning.

Some additional examples of adverbial clauses of condition are presented below.

Fin

Nga *fin* ac som, nga ac fohlohkihn mani lal ah.
'If I go, I will return his money.'

Kom *fin* liyacl, kom ac arlac luhngse el.
'If you see her, you will like her.'

Fin el lohng macruht se lom an, el ac lut na pwacye.
'If he hears about your marriage, he will be very surprised.'

Kom *fin* srihke, kom ac kuh in oruh.
'If you try, you can do it.'

Fin pwacye sum, suhtuh sihk.
'If you are right, I am wrong.'

Fuhnuh

Fuhnuh wo molo, luhkuhn el orekma.
'If the salary had been good, he might have worked.'

Fuhnuh oasr mani sihk, luhkuhn nga eslah sie ring ah.
'If I had had money with me, I would have bought one of the rings.'

Fuhnuh el som nuh Ponpe, luhkuhn el tiyac misac.
'If he had gone to Ponape, he might not have died.'

Fuhnuh won se pa nga, luhkuhn nga sohkoht.
'If I were a bird, I would fly to you.'

Fuhnuh oasr pinsuhl nuhtihk, luhkuhn nga syot soko nuhtum.
'If I had had pencils, I would have given one to you.'

Fuhnuh oasr mani luhk, luhkuhn nga molelah.
'If I had had money, I would have bought it.'

Adverbial Clause of Concession

10.4.3 The word *finnwe* is used to introduce an adverbial clause of **concession**. An adverbial clause of concession implies a contrast between two facts or two circumstances. That is, in view of a fact in the dependent clause, a fact in the main clause is unexpected or surprising. Look at the following example sentences.

Finnwe el tiyac suhmaht, el orek suhmaht pacl nuhkwewa.
'Although he is not smart, he is always acting smart.'

Finnwe oasr mani sihk, nga ac tiyac sang nuh sel Sepe.
'Even though I have money with me, I will not give it to Sepe.'

Finnwe af lutu, kuht ac som.
'Even though it rains tomorrow, we will go.'

Finnwe eltahl tiyac kahsruhp, eltahl arlac engan.
'Although they are not rich, they are happy.'

Adverbial Clause of Cause and Reason

10.4.4 The conjunction *mweyen* 'because' introduces adverbial clauses of cause. Look at the following examples.

Sepe el tiyac orek ma mihsenge *mweyen* el mas.
'Sepe did not work today because she was sick.'

El sifil pahngonyuh *mweyen* el enenweyuh.
'He called me again because he needed me.'

Nga puokohl Sohn *mweyen* el arlac lokoalok nuh sihk.
'I slapped John because he was very bothersome to me.'

The conjunction *lah* can introduce adverbial clauses of reason. *Lah* can be translated as 'since', 'now that', or 'seeing that'. (See 10.3.1 for the use of *lah* as a complementizer.)

In the following example sentences *lah* introduces adverbial clauses of reason.

El titi keik *lah* nga tiyac wi orek ma.
'He complained about me since I did not go to work.'

El engan *lah* pahpah el tuhkuh.
'She is happy now that her father came.'

Sepe el mwekihn *lah* el tiyac kuh in topuk titsuhr sac.
'Sepe was ashamed since she was not able to answer the teacher.'

Sah el wo *lah* nga kahsrwacl.
'Sah feels good now that I am helping him.'

ADVERBIAL CLAUSE OF PURPOSE

10.4.5 The conjunction *lah* can introduce adverbial clauses of purpose and can be translated as 'to see . . .' When *lah* is used as a conjunction of purpose, the future tense marker *ac* must be used in the dependent clause. Look at the following example sentences.

El oruh ma sac *lah* nga *ac* foloyak.
'He is doing that to see if I will get mad.'

El pahngon yuh *lah* nga *ac* kahs.
'He is calling me to see if I will speak.'

Sah el pami wil sac *lah* piyac acn se patlah uh.
'Sah is pumping the tire to see where it is punctured.'

Nga liye inkof ah *lah ac* oasr ik we.
'I am looking into the pond to see if there are any fish.'

El pauni ik ah *lah ac* toasr.
'He is weighing the fish to see if it is heavy.'

(See 10.5.2, for another type of adverbial clauses of purpose.)

ADVERBIAL CLAUSE OF MANNER

10.4.6 The conjunction *oacna* 'like', 'in a similar way that' introduces adverbial clauses of manner. Some examples are presented below.

Sah el manman ik *oacna* ke nga manman ik ah.
'Sah cooks fish in a way similar to the way I cook fish.'

Sah el oruh ma sac *oacna* nga fahk ah.
'Sah is making the thing like I told him.'

The word *in* can be used with *oacna* as in the following sentence.

Sepe el suhlahklahk som *oacna* el *in* sohk.
'Sepe hurried and went as if she were flying.

Oacna can also be used to compare one thing or action to another thing or action which is not real but hypothetical. Look at the following additional examples.

Sohn el mongo *oacna* elan arlac nguhllah.
'John is eating as if he were starved.'

Kuht orwe kom *oacna* kom in pa pahpah tuhmwacsr uh.
'We treat you as if you were our father.'

El kahskahs *oacna* elan mwet fuhlwact se.
'He speaks as if he were a big man.'

Adverbial Clause of Comparison

10.4.7 The conjunction *oacna* can be used to introduce adverbial clauses of comparison. *Oacna* expresses equality. Look at the following examples.

Sepe el kahto *oacna* Srue kahto.
'Sepe is as pretty as Srue.'

Oak soko nge muhi *oacna* ma soko ngoh.
'This canoe is as fast as that one.'

Sohn el puhlaik *oacna* nga puhlaik.
'John is as brave as I am.'

Eltahl ahsor *oacna* kuht ahsor.
'They are as sad as we are.'

Comment Clause

10.4.8 The conjunction *muh* can be used to introduce dependent clauses which add explanation or comment to what is expressed in the main clause. Look at the following comment clauses (italicized).

Nga ema sup sac, *muh arlac sohllah.*
'I am tasting the soup (and I think) that it is too salty.'

Pahpah el kaiyuh, *muh ngan tiyac sismohk.*
'Father advised me (saying) that I should not smoke.'

El titi keik, *muh nga arlac alsrwacnges.*
'He is complaining about me, (saying or thinking) that I am lazy.'

Ninac el puokohl Sah, *muh el pa mwet pihsrapasr se.*
'Mother slapped Sah, (thinking) that he was the thief.'

INFINITIVE CLAUSE

10.5 The term **infinitive clause** (borrowed from English grammar) will be used to refer to dependent clauses marked by the word *in*. In English the word *to* can be used with verbs to indicate that they are used as subjects, objects, or adverbs. Observe the following sentences.

John wants *to go there.*
To see is to believe.
John works hard *to earn money.*

In the first sentence above, *to go there* functions as an object of the verb *want*. In the second sentence above, *to see* functions as the subject. In the third sentence above, *to earn money* has an adverbial function denoting purpose.

The Kusaiean word *in* has functions very similar to the English word *to*. For this reason the term infinitive clause is borrowed. For example, the following sentence is a complete sentence.

El molelah oak soko ah.
'He bought the canoe.'

When the word *in* is used in the sentence above as in

El *in* molelah oak soko ah,

the sentence can be used as a dependent clause. In the following sentence, *el in molelah oak soko ah* is used as an object of the verb *luhngse* 'to want, to like, or to love'.

Nga luhngse *el in molelah oak soko ah.*
'I want him to buy the canoe.'

In the following sentence, *el in molelah oak soko ah* is used as a subject of the nominal clause (underlined).

Nga muh wo *el in molelah oak soko ah.*
'I think that it is good for him to buy the canoe.'

In what follows we will note the different functions of the infinitive clauses in detail.

As Nominal Clause

10.5.1 As nominal clauses, infinitive clauses can be used as subjects and objects of transitive verbs. Infinitive clauses are usually used as subjects when the predicates of sentences are adjectives. In the following sentences the italicized parts are infinitive clauses which function as subjects.

Wo *kuht in orek ma lutu.*
'It is good for us to work tomorrow.'

Kuluk *kom in sismohkkihn paip uh.*
'It is bad for you to smoke cigarettes.'

Fihsracsr *kuht in som nuh Muhkihl liki nuh Pihnglacp.*
'It is easier for us to go to Mokil than to Pinglap.'

As nominal clauses, infinitive clauses can be used as objects of transitive verbs. But not all transitive verbs can take infinitive clauses as objects. Following is a list of transitive verbs that can take infinitive clauses as objects.

esam	'to remember'	muhlkihn	'to forget'
nuhnkuh	'to plan'	srihke	'to try'
ahko	'to prepare'	muhtweng	'to bear'
muhtwacwacack	'to start'	ahlohloh	'to hesitate'
enenuh	'to need'	siyuhk	'to ask'
kwacfe	'to request'	finsrak	'to hope'
sruhnga	'to hate'	luhngse	'to want' 'to like'
lwelah	'to allow'	kuh	'to be able'
koflah	'to be unable'	etuh	'to know how'
nihkihn	'not to know how'	oruh	'to cause' 'to force'

In the following sentences the infinitive clauses (italicized) are used as objects of transitive verbs.

Kom fah esam *in fohlohkuhnma ahluh an.*
'You should remember to bring the dish.'

Nga wac na muhlkihn *in kaliyac lohm sihk uh.*
'I always forget to lock my house.'

Nga nuhnkuh *ngan som.*
'I plan to go.'

Kom fah srihke *in wolac elah lom an.*
'You should try to behave yourself.'

Kuht ahko *in Sah pa som puh.*
'We are preparing for Sah to go.'

Nga tiyac kuh in muhtweng *in liyael lwen nuh kwewa.*
'I cannot bear to see him every day.'

Kuht enenuh *in mongo lwen nuh kwewa.*
'We need to eat every day.'

Sohn el kwacfe *ngan som.*
'He requested me to go.'

Kuht finsrak *pahpah pa in tuhkuh uh.*
'We want our father to come.'

As Adverbial Clause

10.5.2 When infinitive clauses are used as adverbial clauses, the express purpose. The italicized part in the following sentence i an infinitive clause that denotes purpose.

Sohn el som nuh Kosrae *elan lutlut kahs Kosrae.*
'John went to Kusaie in order to learn to speak Kusaiean.'

Look at the following additional examples of infinitive claus (italicized) denoting purpose.

El sana som *elan welah oak soko ah.*
'He left early in order to catch the ship.'

Nga suhpwacllah Sohn nuh ke stohr ah *elan molelah sie tin in titi a*
'I sent John to the store to buy a can of milk.'

El wihti sahk soko ah *in fototolac.*
'He is cutting the stick to make it short.'

Sepe el sef mani *in sang eslah sie nuknuk fohn ah.*
'Sepe is saving money in order to buy one of the shirts.'

Nga orek ma upac *ngan ahksahfyelah mihsenge.*
'I am working hard in order to finish (the work) today.'

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11 Cleft Sentences

The term cleft sentence will be used to refer to sentences such as the following.

Wes se *pa* nga enenuh uh.
'It is a shirt that I need.'

Mos se *pa* Sohn el kanglah ah.
'It is a breadfruit that John ate.'

Some characteristics of cleft sentences are (1) the word *pa* is used; (2) the determiner *uh* or *ah* is obligatory at the end of the sentence; and (3) the cleft sentence is used to emphasize a noun phrase or a noun. The part preceding *pa* is the element to be emphasized.

BASIC STRUCTURE OF CLEFT SENTENCES

11.1 In this section we will find out that the basic structure of the cleft sentence is an identificational sentence structure. (See 6.2.4) The structure is of the form.

Noun phrase	+	Noun phrase
[± definite]		[+ definite]

That is, an identificational sentence is made up of two noun phrases. The first noun phrase can be either definite or non-definite, but the second must be definite. Some examples of identificational sentences are provided below.

Mukul se *pa* Sohn.
'John is a man.'

Sohn *pa* mukul sac.
'John is the man.'

El *pa* Sohn.
'He is John.'

The following cleft sentence, however does not clearly show that it is made up of two noun phrases. The part preceding *pa* is a definite noun phrase, but the part following *pa* is neither a noun phrase nor a sentence.

Puk sacn *pa* Sohn el retelah ah.
'It is that book that John read.'

If the part following *pa* is taken out of the cleft sentence, it is not a sentence at all. Look at the following.

Sohn el retelah ah.
John he read the

The determiner *ah* at the end of sentence is not accounted for.

However, the following sentence clearly made up of two noun phrases. The first is a definite one; the second one is also a definite phrase that contains a relative clause. The italicized part is the relative clause.

Puk sacn *pa* ma se ma *Sohn el retelah* ah.
'That book is the thing that John read.'

Now let us compare the following two sentences, which we saw in the preceding paragraphs.

1. Puk sacn pa ma se ma Sohn el retelah ah.
2. Puk sacn pa Sohn el retelah ah.

The two sentences above have little difference in meaning, but they do differ from each other in form. The difference lies in the fact that in the second sentence the antecedent of the relative clause is omitted together with the relative pronoun *ma*.

In 10.2.5, where the relative clauses are presented, it was noted that the antecedent of a relative clause can be deleted when the antecedent follows the words *ke* 'at', *tukun* 'after' or *met liki* 'before', and when the words denote time. The two sentences below thus have little difference in meaning.

1. Sohn el kuh ke pacl se ma nga tuhkuh ah.
   'John was well at the time when I came.'
2. Sohn el kuh ke nga tuhkuh ah.
   'John was well when I came.'

It seems that the cleft sentences are derived from the identificational sentences, by omitting the antecedent of a relative clause together with the relative pronoun. When the antecedent

of the relative clause in the following identificational sentence is deleted along with the relative pronoun *ma*, we have a cleft sentence. The antecedent appears in square brackets.

1. Ponpe pa [acn se] ma eltahl muhta we ah.
   'Ponape is the place where they are staying.'
2. Ponpe pa eltahl muhta we ah.
   'It is Ponape where they are staying.'

Following are some additional pairs of identificational and cleft sentences. The first sentences are identificational and the second are cleft sentences. The antecedent of the relative clause and the relative pronoun *ma* appear in square brackets.

1. Mahlwem met ah pa [pacl se ma] Sohn ma som nuh Awai ah.
   'The last month was the time John and some others went to Hawaii.'
2. Mahlwem met ah pa Sohn ma som nuh Awai ah.
   'It is the last month that John and some others went to Hawaii.'

1. Sohn pa [mwet se ma] ahsack ik rangrang soko ah.
   'John is the man who caught the yellow fish.'
2. Sohn pa ahsack ik rangrang soko ah.
   'It is John that caught the yellow fish.'

1. Muhtwacn sac pa [mwet se ma] Sohn el sang mani ah nuh se ah.
   'The woman is the person whom John gave the money to.'
2. Muhtwacn sac pa Sohn el sang mani ah nuh se ah.
   'It is the woman that John gave the money to.'

INTERROGATIVE WORDS AND CLEFT SENTENCES

11.2 The interrogative words *suc* 'who' and *meah* 'what' can function either as subject or as object. In the following two sentences, they are used as subjects.

Suc tuhkuh?
'Who came?'

Meah sikyak?
'What happened?'

In the following two sentences the determiner *ah* is used at the end of interrogative sentences.

Suc tuhkuh ah?
'Who is it that came?'

Meah sikyak ah?
'What is it that happened?'

The relationship between the two sentences in (1) below is very similar to that of the two sentences in (2).

1. a. Suc tuhkuh?
'Who came?'
b. Suc tuhkuh ah.
'Who is it that came?'

2. a. Mwet sac tuhkuh.
'The man came.'
b. Mwet sac pa tuhkuh ah.
'It is the man that came.'

The cleft sentence above is derived from a basic sentence such as the following.

Sohn pa [mwet se] ma tuhkuh ah.
'John is the one who came.'

When the antecedent and the relative pronoun are deleted in the sentence above, a cleft sentence results.

In a similar way, the following interrogative sentence

Suc tuhkuh ah?
'Who is it that came?'

can have its corresponding identificational sentence such as the following:

Suc [mwet se] ma tuhkuh ah?
'Who is the man that came?'

When the antecedent and the relative pronoun are deleted, we can have the following sentence,

Suc tuhkuh ah?
'Who is it that came?

The interrogative sentence above seems to be a cleft sentence. But the word *pa* cannot be used when the first noun phrase is an interrogative word such as *suc* 'who' or *meah* 'what'. Compare the following two sentences. In the second cleft sentence, *pa* is not used.

Mwet sac pa tuhkuh ah.
'It is the man that came.'

Suc tuhkuh ah?
'Who is it that came?'

The two interrogative words *suc* 'who' and *meah* 'what' can be objects of transitive verbs. In such cases, they can appear after the transitive verbs, as in the following sentences.

Mwet sacn oruh *meah*?
'What is that man doing?'

Kom etuh *suc*?
'Whom do you know?'

But the interrogative words in the sentences above can also appear at the beginning of the sentences, as shown below.

Meah mwet sacn oruh uh?
'What is it that that man is doing?'

Suc kom etuh uh?
'Who is it that you know?'

Notice that the determiners *ah* and *uh* are used at the end of the sentences. The interrogative sentences above are cleft sentences which are derived from the following identificational sentences. The antecedents appear in square brackets.

Meah [ma se] ma mwet sacn oruh ah?
'What is the thing that that man is doing?'

Suc [mwet se] ma kom etuh an?
'Who is the man that you know?'

The other interrogative words such as *oyac* 'where' and *ngac* 'when' can appear either at the beginning of a sentence or elsewhere in a sentence. But when they appear at the beginning, the interrogative sentences are of the cleft sentence type. Look at the following set of sentences. In the first sentence, *oyac* 'where' appears inside the interrogative sentence. In the second, *oyac* appears at the beginning of the sentence, which is an identificational sentence. The third is a cleft sentence, which is derived from the second sentence by deleting the antecedent and the relative pronoun.

1. Sohn el muhta *oyac*?
   'Where does John stay?'
2. *Oyac* [acn se] ma Sohn el muhta we an?
   'What is the place where John is staying?'
3. *Oyac* Sohn el muhta we an?
   'Where is it that John is staying?'

Observe the following set of interrogative sentences in which the interrogative word *ngac* 'when' is used.

1. Pahpah el ac tuhkuh *ngac*?
   'When is the father coming?'

2. *Ngac* [pacl se] ma pahpah el ac tuhkuh an?
'When is the time when the father is coming?'

3. *Ngac* pahpah el ac tuhkuh an?
'When is it that father is coming?'

In addition to interrogative words such as *suc* 'who', *meah* 'what', *oyac* 'where', or *ngac* 'when', noun phrases whose head nouns are modified by interrogative words can appear at the beginning of the sentences. When they occur at the beginning, the sentences are of the cleft sentence type. Look at the following.

1. *Mwet oyac se* kom osun nuh se *ah*?
'What person is it that you met with?'

2. Kom osun nuh sin *mwet oyac se*?
'What person did you meet with?'

1. *Lohm fuhkah se* eltahl orwaclah *ah*?
'What kind of house is it that they made?'

2. Eltahl orwaclah *lohm fuhkah se*?
'What kind of house did they build?'

1. *Pacl suc* kom ac som nuh we *uh*?
'What time is it that you will leave for there?'

2. Kom ac som nuh we *pacl suc*?
'At what time will you leave for there?'

The first sentences in the pairs of sentences above are derived from sentences such as following, by deleting the antecedents and the relative pronouns.

Mwet fuhkah se [mwet se] ma kom ohsun nuh se ah?
'What person is the man that you met with?'

Lohm fuhkah se [lohm se] ma eltahl orwaclah ah?
'What house is the one that they built?'

Pacl suc [pacl se] ma kom ac som nuh we an?
'What time is the time when you will leave for there?'

When the antecedents of the relative clauses in the sentence above are deleted together with the relative pronouns, they become cleft sentences. However, instead of deleting the antecedents and the relative pronoun *ma*, the first identical noun can be replaced by the indefinite pronoun *ma* (as in the second sentence below).

1. *Mwet* fuhkah se [*mwet* se] ma kom ohsun nuh se ah?
'What person is the one that you met with?'

2. *Ma* oyac [*mwet* se] ma kom ohsun nuh se ah?
'Who is the man that you met with?'

1. *Mitmit* oyac se [*mitmit* se] ma kom twen an?
'What knife is the knife that you are sharpening?'

2. *Ma* oyac [*mitmit* se] ma kom twem an?
'What is the knife that you are sharpening?'

NEGATIVE WORD *tiyac* AND CLEFT SENTENCES

11.3 In the following sentence, the negative word *tiyac* 'not' appears before the verb *nihm* 'to drink'.

Nga tiyac nihm piru ah ekweyah.
'I did not drink beer yesterday.'

However, we are not certain whether *tiyac* negates the subject, the verb, the object, or the time word. In other words, the sentence above can be ambiguous as to what element in the sentence is negated. In order to avoid such ambiguity, the cleft sentence is often used; the negative word *tiyac* 'not' appears at the beginning of the sentence and the element to be negated immediately follows the negative word *tiyac*. Look at the following cleft sentences.

Tiyac *nga* pa nihm piru ah ekweyah ah.
'It is not I that drank beer yesterday.'

Tiyac *piru uh* pa nga nihm ekweyah ah.
'It is not beer that I drank yesterday.'

Tiyac *ekweyah* pa nga nihm piru uh ah.
'It is not yesterday that I drank beer.'

12 Ellipsis and Substitution

ELLIPSIS

12.1 The term **ellipsis** is used to refer to the omission of a word or a phrase. Ellipsis is often used to avoid repeating a word or a group of words when there is no doubt as to what words are omitted. In the sections to follow, we will observe ellipses in dialogues, compound sentences, and complex sentences, in that order.

ELLIPSIS IN DIALOGUES

12.1.1 In a dialogue we can observe many ellipses. Sentence *A* below is a question and sentence *B* is an answer.

A. Sepe el tuhkuh ngac?
'When did Sepe come?'

B. Sepe el tuhkuh ekweyah.
'Sepe came yesterday.'

But instead of *B*, the following can be an adequate answer to the question *A*.

B'. Ekweyah.
'Yesterday.'

Comparing the two answers, we note that certain elements were omitted from the answer *B*. This ellipsis is possible because the elements (shown in parentheses below) appear in the question.

(Sepe el tuhkuh) ekweyah.
'(Sepe came) yesterday.'

Ellipsis can also be observed in dialogues of statement and question. Sentence *A* below is a statement and sentence *B* is a

question by which a listener asks about a point which he may not have heard clearly.

A. Kuhn el oruh lohm se.
'Kuhn is building a house.'

B. Meah kuhn el oruh an?
'What is Kuhn building?'

Instead of question *B*, the following can be an adequate question.

B'. Meah?
'What?'

When questions *B* and *B'* are compared, we note that the elements in parentheses below are omitted.

Meah (Kuhn el oruh an)?
'What (is Kuhn building)?'

The ellipsis is possible because the elements in them are used in the preceding statement.

Ellipsis in Compound Sentences

12.1.2 Compound sentences are made up of two or more than two sentences joined together by coordinate conjunctions. The following compound sentence is made up of two sentences joined by the conjunction *nwe* 'and then'.

Sepe el orek ma nwe *el arlac ullac.*
'Sepe has been working and she is very tired.'

The sentence preceding the conjunction *nwe* 'and' will be called the first sentence and sentence following the conjunction *nwe* will be called the second sentence.

When identical nouns or noun phrases appear in the first and second sentences, the one in the second sentence can be omitted. In the following compound sentence, the noun phrase *sahk soko ah* 'the one tree' appears both in the first sentence and in the second sentence.

El paki *sahk soko ah* nwe *sahk soko ah* puhtatlac.
'He was chopping the tree and finally the tree fell down.'

The noun phrase *sahk soko ah* of the second sentence can be omitted as in:

El paki *sahk soko ah* nwe —— puhtatlac.
'He was chopping the tree and finally (it) fell down.'

It is generally the case that when two identical nouns or noun phrases appear in the first and second sentences of a compound sentence, the one in the second sentence can be omitted. In the example sentence in the preceding paragraph, only one noun phrase is omitted. But it is possible that more than one noun phrase can be omitted. In the compound sentence below the noun phrase *muhtwacn sac* 'the woman' appears both in the first and second sentences. The noun phrase *ik soko ah* 'the one fish' also appears in both.

Muhtwacn sac ahsack *ik soko ah* na *muhtwacn sac* unelah *ik soko ah*.
'The woman caught the fish and the woman scaled the fish.'

Both of the noun phrases *muhtwacn sac* 'the woman' and *ik soko ah* 'the one fish' of the second sentence can be omitted, as in

Muhtwacn sac ahsack *ik soko ah* na ——— unelah ———.
'The woman caught the fish and (she) scaled (it).'

The omitted elements in the example sentences above were noun phrases, but a word or a group of words other than noun phrases can also be omitted. Look at the following sentences.

Kom kuh in mutullac fin siyac an kuh *kom kuh in mutullac* lohm sel ah.
'You can sleep on that chair or you can sleep in his house.'

The italicized parts in the first and second sentences are the same. The italicized part in the second sentence can be omitted, as in

Kom kuh in mutullac fin siyac sac kuh ——— lohm sel ah.
'You can sleep on that chair or in his house.'

The elements omitted in the sentence above are not a noun phrase. They are part of the predicate.

Ellipsis in Complex Sentences

12.1.3 The principle of ellipsis in complex sentences is basically the same as in compound sentences. A word or phrase can be omitted in the second sentence of a compound sentence when there is an identical word or phrase in the first sentence. A complex sentence is made up of a main clause and a dependent clause. A word or phrase can be omitted in a dependent clause when an identical word or phrase appears in the main clause. In the following

complex sentence, the noun phrase *sup sac* 'the soup' appears both in the main clause and in the dependent clause.

Nga ema *sup sac*, muh *sup sac* em sohl.
'I am tasting the soup, (and think) that the soup tastes salty.'

The noun phrase *sup sac* in the dependent clause can be omitted as in

Nga ema *sup sac*, muh ——— em sohl.
'I am tasting the soup, (and think) that (it) tastes salty.'

The italicized part of the following complex sentence is an infinitive clause. The subject of the infinitive clause *kom* 'you' is the same as that of the main clause.

Kom fah esam *kom in fohlohkuhnma ahluh an.*
'You should remember to bring the bowls back to me.'

The subject of the infinitive clause *kom* can be omitted as in

Kom fah esam ——— *in fohlohkuhnma ahluh an.*
'You should remember to bring the bowls back to me.'

SUBSTITUTION

12.2 The process of substitution is similar to ellipsis in that substitution and ellipsis are used in order to avoid repetition. Substitution differs from ellipsis in that in ellipsis a word or a group of words is omitted without leaving any substituting word, whereas a substituting word is left behind in the case of substitution. Compare the following two pairs of sentences.

1. Nga molelah *nuknuk fohn sac* tuh nga sruhnga *nuknuk fohn sac.*
   'I have bought the shirt but do not like the shirt.'
2. Nga molelah *nuknuk fohn sac* tuh nga sruhnga. (Ellipsis)
   'I have bought the shirt but I do not like (it).'
1. Nga etuh *mwet sac* tuh nga koase *mwet sac.*
   'I know the man but I hate the man.'
2. Nga etuh *mwet sac* tuh nga koas*el.* (Substitution)
   'I know the man but I hate him.'

In the first pair, the second sentence differs from the first sentence in that the object of the transitive verb *sruhnga* 'not to like' is simply omitted, since it is the same as the object of the transitive verb *molelah* 'to have bought' in the first part of the compound sentence. In the second pair, the second sentence differs from the

first in that *mwet sac* 'that man', which is the object of the transitive verb *koase* 'to hate', is not repeated but is replaced by a pronoun *l* 'him'. An ellipsis has occurred in the second sentence of the first pair and a substitution in the second sentence of the second pair.

Substitution generally takes place in the following cases:

1. When adverbs of place or adverbial phrases of place are repeated.
2. When head nouns of noun phrases are the same but the modifiers of the noun phrases are different.
3. When noun phrases whose head nouns are human nouns are repeated.

In the paragraphs following, we will examine each of the three different cases.

SUBSTITUTION WITH *we*

12.2.1 Proper place names and locative nouns can be used as adverbs of place. When an adverb of place is repeated in compound or complex sentences, the word *we* 'there' must be used in the latter part of a compound sentence or in the dependent clause of a complex sentence. In the sentence below, the italicized parts are the same.

Sah el muhta *Ponpe* ke 1967 ac Sepe el muhta *Ponpe* ke 1966.
'Sah stayed in Ponape in 1967 and Sepe stayed in Ponape in 1966.'

In such a case, the second *Ponpe* must be substituted by the word *we* 'there' as in

Sah el muhta *Ponpe* ke 1967 ac Sepe el muhta *we* ke 1966.
'Sah stayed in Ponape in 1967 and Sepe stayed there in 1966.'

Without the substitution the sentence becomes very clumsy and awkward.

In the following compound sentence two prepositional phrases are used.

Sah el ac muhsahelah lohm se *ke acn sac* a Kuhn el ac orwaclah imac se *ke acn sac*.
'Sah will build a house in that area but Kuhn will make a field in that area.'

The second prepositional phrase *ke acn sac* 'in the place' must be replaced by the word *we* 'there' as in:

Sah el ac muhsahelah lohm se *ke acn sac* a Kuhn el ac orwaclah imac se *we*.
'Sah will build a house in that place but Kuhn will make a field there.'

SUBSTITUTION WITH *ma*

12.2.2 When head nouns of two or more than two noun phrases are identical but their modifiers are different, one of the head nouns can be replaced by the indefinite pronoun *ma*. (See 4.4.4 for the meaning and the use of *ma* as an idefinite pronoun.) Let us examine the following sentence.

Sohn el molelah *pinsuhl rangrang lukoac* ac nga molelah *pinsuhl sruhsrah soko*.
'John bought two yellow pencils and I bought a red pencil.'

In the above sentence, the head nouns of the two italicized noun phrases are the same: *pinsuhl* 'pencil'. But the modifiers are different: in the first noun phrase *rangrang* 'yellow' and *lukoac* 'two' are modifiers whereas *sruhsrah* 'red' and *soko* 'one' are modifiers. In such a case the head noun of the second italicized noun phrase can be replaced by *ma*, as in the following.

Sohn el molelah *pinsuhl rangrang lukoac* ac nga molelah *ma sruhsrah soko*.
'John bought two yellow pencils and I bought a red one.'

Following are some additional example sentences in which *ma* is used. *Ma* refers back to the italicized words.

Pahpah el ahsack *ik* na luhlahp soko a ninac el ahsack *ma* na srihsrihk soko.
'Father caught a big fish but Mother caught a very small one.'

Sitosah folfol soko ah itto ac *ma* rangrang soko ah ahkluo.
'The blue car was the first and the yellow one was the second.'

UBSTITUTION WITH *el*

2.2.3 When a noun phrase whose head noun is a human noun functions as the object of transitive verbs, it cannot undergo ellipsis but must undergo substitution. The same is true for nouns which appear after the construct suffix *-n*. However, when the noun phrase functions as a subject, it can undergo either substitution or ellipsis.

It was previously pointed out (4.1.2.3) that nouns can be

classified into proper human nouns and common nouns. Th distinction is reflected in the use of the possessive pronoun Look at the following three noun phrases.

niyac*l* Sepe	'Sepe's leg'
niye*n* tuhlihk sac	'the child's leg'
niye*n* tepuh sac	'the leg of the table'

The head nouns are inalienable nouns and the possessive suffi are used with them. In the first noun phrase above the thi person possessive suffix *-l* is used because the possessor is pressed by a proper human noun *Sepe*. In the second and th noun phrases the construct suffix *-n* is used because the possess are expressed by common nouns *tuhlihk* 'child' and *tepuh* 'tab

However, with regard to substitution, a distinction must drawn between human and nonhuman nouns. Compare following two sentences. The head nouns of the (italicized) no phrases in the first sentence are human nouns; those in the sec sentence are nonhuman nouns.

Nga liye *tuhlihk sac* tuh nga tiyac us *tuhlihk sac*.
'I saw the child but I did not take the child.'

Nga liye *sitosah soko ah* tuh nga tiyac us *sitosah soko ah*.
'I saw the car but I did not drive the car.'

In each compound sentence above, the italicized parts are same. In the first sentence above the second italicized n phrase undergoes substitution, and in the second sentence ab the second italicized noun phrase undergoes ellipsis, as we see in the following sentences.

Nga liye tuhlihk sac tuh nga tiyac us *-el*.
'I saw the child but I did not take him.'

Nga liye sitosah soko ah tuh nga tiyac us.
'I saw the car but I did not drive (it).'

Look at the following additional examples. The third pe pronoun suffix refers back to the italicized noun phrase in sentence. The blank in each sentence indicates that the head n of a noun phrase is a nonhuman noun.

Mwet sac sramsramkihn *tuhlihk sac*, muh mwet nuhkwewa luhngse *el*.
'The man talked about the child, saying that everyone likes hi

Mwet sac sramsramkihn acn sac, muh el ac tiyac kuhkakihn ———.
'The man talked about the land, saying that he will not sell (it).

Sepe el fahk nuh sel *Sah* muh Srue el sok*o*l.
'Sepe told to Sah that Srue was looking for him.'

Sohn el eslah *lwacta se* tuh el tiyac retelah ———.
'John received a letter but he did not read (it).'

In the following sentence two noun phrases are joined together with the conjunction *ac*. Each of the two noun phrases is complex: i.e., including another noun phrase within it.

Niyen *muhtwacn sac* ac poun *muhtwacn sac* ngalyak.
'The woman's legs and hands started hurting.'

The included noun phrases above (italicized) are the same and the second one can be replaced by the third person suffix *-l*, as below.

Niyen *muhtwacn sac* ac paho*l* ngalyak.
'The woman's legs and (her) hands started hurting.'

In the following sentence, the head nouns of the (italicized) noun phrases are not human nouns.

Fin *tepuh sac* ac niyen *tepuh sac* arlac siruhpruhp.
'The top and the legs of the table are very rough.'

Since the head nouns of the (italicized) noun phrases are not human noun, the third person pronoun suffix is not used. Instead, the inalienable noun is changed into an impersonal form *niyac* 'its leg'.

Fin *tepuh sac* ac *niyac* ah arlac siruhpruhp.
'The top of the table and its legs are very rough.'

However, when the head noun of a noun phrase after the construct suffix *-n* is an animate thing such as a fish, frog, bird, or dog, either ellipsis or substitution is possible. In the following sentence, the head noun of the italicized noun phrases is the animate noun *kosro* 'dog'.

Poun *kosro soko ah* ac niyen *kosro soko ah* kihneta.
'The dog's forelegs and the dog's hind legs are wounded.'

The first sentence below results from substitution and the second sentence from ellipsis.

Poun *kosro soko ah* ac *niyac*l kihneta.
'The dog's forelegs and his hind legs are wounded.'

Poun *kosro soko ah* ac *niyac* ah kihneta.
'The dog's forelegs and its hind legs are wounded.'

Look at the following additional sets of examples. The second sentences are derived from the first through substitution.

1. Puhluhn *ik soko ah* ac muhtuhn *ik soko ah* arlac yohk.
'The tail of the fish and the front part of the fish are very big.'

2. Puhluhn *ik soko ah* ac *muhtahl* arlac yohk.
'The tail of the fish and its face are very big.'

1. Poun *fohrohk soko ah* ac insiyen *fohrohk soko ah* kihneta.
'The frog's forefeet and the belly of the frog are wounded.'

2. Poun *fohrohk soko ah* ac *insiyacl* kihneta.
'The frog's forefeet and its belly are wounded.'

In the preceding paragraphs of this section, we observed that noun phrases whose head nouns are human nouns in dependent clauses or in the second parts of compound sentences undergo substitution when the following conditions are met:

1. when identical noun phrases appear in main clauses or in the first parts of compound sentences, and

2. when the identical noun phrases in the dependent clauses or in the second parts of compound sentences function as objects of transitive verbs, or when they appear after the construct suffix *-n*.

However, when the function of the repeated noun phrase is a subject, substitution is not obligatory and ellipsis can be applied. Look at the following sentence. (the identical noun phrases are italicized.)

Tuhlihk sac puhtatlac na *tuhlihk sac* tuhngyak.
'The child fell down and the child began to cry.'

The following two sentences can be derived from the sentence above. The first sentence below resulted from substitution and the second from ellipsis.

Tuhlihk sac puhtatlac na *el* tuhngyak.
'The child fell down and he began to cry.'

Tuhlihk sac puhtatlac na tuhngyak.
'The child fell down and began to cry.'

Look at the following additional sets of examples. The second and third sentences in each set are derived from the first sentence through substitution and ellipsis, respectively.

1. *Tuhlihk muhtwacn sac* orekma nwe *tuhlihk muhtwacn sac* ullac.
   'The girl worked and finally the girl became tired.'
2. *Tuhlihk muhtwacn sac* orekma nwe *el* ullac.
   'The girl worked and finally she became tired.'
3. *Tuhlihk muhtwacn sac* orekma nwe ullac.
   'The girl worked and finally became tired.'

1. *Mwet sac* suhlahklahk som oacna *mwet sac* in sohk.
   'The man hurried and went as if the man were flying.'
2. *Mwet sac* suhlahklahk som oacna *el* in sohk.
   'The man hurried and went as if he were flying.'
3. *Mwet sac* suhlahklahk som oacna in sohk.
   'The man hurried and went as if flying.'

However, in nominal clauses ellipsis is seldom allowed. The following sentence will illustrate.

Muhtwacn sac fahk muh *muhtwacn sac* in som nuh Utwac.
'The woman said that the woman must go to Utwac.'

The noun phrase *muhtwacn sac* appears both in the main clause and in the dependent clause. The one in the dependent clause can undergo substitution, as in

Muhtwacn sac fahk muh *el* in som nuh Utwac.
'The woman said that she must go to Utwac.'

13 Linguistic Relationships

BORROWING

13.1 Speakers of one language seldom remain isolated from the rest of the world; they often come into contact with those of different languages through war, trading, or religion. Through this contact with other languages, speakers of one language often discover and come to use certain objects or ideas which they did not have before the contact. In some cases, the names of new objects are translated into the words of the borrowing language. For example, the Kusaiean word *oak sohk* 'airplane' is made up of two words *oak* 'canoe' and *sohk* 'to fly'. The word *lohm nuknuk* 'tent' is another example. It is made up of the two words *lohm* 'house' and *nuknuk* 'cloth'. In some other cases, foreign words are borrowed with some changes in pronunciation, meaning and/or grammatical function. The word *tuhram* 'drum' for example, is borrowed from English. When we compare the original English word *drum* with the Kusaiean borrowed word *tuhram*, we notice some differences in pronunciation. The term **borrowing** will be used to refer to words such as *tuhram* which are taken into Kusaiean from other languages.

Kusaieans had a rather long period of contact with Japanese, and since that time they have been experiencing additional contact with English. Through these contacts, many new things and ideas have been introduced to Kusaie. Consequently, many new words were added to the Kusaiean language. Some people raise the strong objection that borrowed words are not Kusaiean words. But as we will see in the following sections, once foreign words are used in Kusaiean, they are filtered through the sound system and grammatical structure of Kusaiean. In other words, the borrowed words undergo changes which enable them to fi

into the structure of Kusaiean. In this respect we can say that the borrowed words are 'Kusaienized.'

In the sections to follow, we will observe some prominent changes in the pronunciation, meaning, and grammatical functions of borrowed words.

Changes in Pronunciation

13.1.1

KUSAIEANIZATION OF ENGLISH WORDS

English has voiced stops and fricatives, which Kusaiean does not have. As a result the English sounds [b], [d], [g], and [v] are changed into Kusaiean [p], [t], [k] and [f] respectively. Observe the following examples.

English	*Kusaiean*	*English*	*Kusaiean*
beef	pif	button	puhtin
box	pohk	number	nacmpuh
sabbath	sahpuht	bet	pet
address	actres	Friday	fuhrwacte
Edith	itit	card	kaht
lead	let	Saturday	sactte
Monday	mante	candy	kacnte
frog	fohrohk	glue	kulu
bag	pack	pig	pik
glass	kulahs		
varnish	fahnuhs	vice	fais
vote	fot	level	lwacfuhl
shovel	sahfuhl		

There are certain other sounds in English that Kusaiean does not have, Hence, when English words were borrowed, these were replaced by Kusaiean sounds that are close to the English sounds. For example, Kusaiean does not have the two English sounds [θ] and [ð] which are represented in English by the spelling *th*. They are replaced by the Kusaiean sound *t*. The English sounds [č] as in *church* and [ǰ] as in *jug* were replaced by the Kusaiean sound [s]. Some examples that show the changes are presented below.

English	*Kusaiean*	*English*	*Kusaiean*
Arthur	atuhr	fathom	fahtwem
sabbath	sahpuht	Esther	Estuhr
jack	sahk	hinges	insis
January	sacnwuhri	chapter	sapta
China	sacini	March	mahs

The sound [h] in English is not represented in Kusaiean.

English	*Kusaiean*	*English*	*Kusaiean*
handcuff	acnkuhf	handbag	acnpahk
Hawaii	Awai	hoe	o
hole	ol	hammerhead	acmuhret

Consonant clusters are found word-initially and word-finally in English. But these clusters never occur in Kusaiean. Thus word-initial consonant clusters in English are separated by inserting a vowel in Kusaiean.

English	*Kusaiean*	*English*	*Kusaiean*
Friday	fuhrwacte	frog	fuhrohk
glass	kuhlahs	brass	puhras
glue	kulu	plane	puhlweng

Word-final consonant clusters in English are simplified in Kusaiean by dropping the final consonant. Look at the following examples.

English	*Kusaiean*	*English*	*Kusaiean*
camp	kacm	lamp	lahm
yeast	is	clamp	kuhlahm
box	pohk	round	raun
cement	simacn	ink	ing

In the preceding paragraphs we have seen how some English consonants are changed in Kusaiean. In the paragraphs to follow, we will see how some vowels in English are changed in Kusaiean.

Short vowels in English monosyllabic words become long in Kusaiean.

English	*Kusaiean*	*English*	*Kusaiean*
pig	pik [pi:k]	kiss	kis [ki:s]
bag	pack [pɛ:k]	belt	pacl [pɛ:l]

English sounds [ey] and [ow] are changed into [e:] and [o:], respectively, in Kusaiean. The glide quality of the English vowels is not found in Kusaiean. Look at the following examples.

English	*Kusaiean*	*English*	*Kusaiean*
vote [vowt]	fot	cake [keyk]	kek
rake [reyk]	rek	day [dey]	te
radar [reydar]	retar	pay [pey]	pe
hoe [how]	o	hole [howl]	ol
bowl [bowl]	pol		

English [ar] sounds are changed into Kusaiean *ah* [æ:] as we can see in the following examples.

English	*Kusaiean*	*English*	*Kusaiean*
mark	mahk	march	mahs
card	kaht	varnish	fahnuhs

AIEANIZATION OF JAPANESE WORDS

In the preceding section we observed how certain English sounds are changed in the process of Kusaieanization. We can also note some prominent changes of Japanese sounds in the process of Kusaieanization.

Japanese voiced consonants are changed into Kusaiean voiceless consonants. That is, Japanese [b], [d] and [g] are changed into Kusaiean [p], [t] and [k] respectively. Some examples are provided below.

Japanese	*Kusaiean*	*Gloss*
barikan	parikang	'hair-clippers'
biru	piru	'beer'
gurobu	kuropu	'glove'
baka	paka	'worn-out'
kabu	kapu	'curve'
ganbaru	kampare	'to do one's best'
fundoshi	fintosi	'loin-cloth'
jidosha	sitosah	'car'
denki	tengki	'flash-light'
dempo	tempo	'telegram'
genki	kengki	'vigorous'
geta	keta	'clog'
goro	koro	'ground ball'

Japanese [h] sound is not found in Kusaiean.

Japanese	*Kusaiean*	*Gloss*
hotai	otai	'bandage'
hashi	asi	'chop-sticks'

Japanese [j] and [z] sounds are pronounced as Kusaiean *s*.

Japanese	*Kusaiean*	*Gloss*
jidosha	sitosah	'car'
zori	sori	'slippers'

Japanese [a] is changed into [a:] in Kusaiean.

Japanese	*Kusaiean*	*Gloss*
bando	panto	'punt'
baru	baru	'bar'
sakura	sakura	'cherry'

INDIRECT BORROWING

13.1.2 Some English words were borrowed into Japanese, changed to fit the sound system of Japanese, and then borrowed from Japanese into Kusaiean. The following are some examples.

English	*into*	*Japanese*	*into*	*Kusaiean*
curve		kabu		kapu
glove		gurobu		kuropu
marathon		marason		marasong
overcoat		oba		opa
punt		panto		panto
(crow) bar		baru		paru
beer		biru		piru
relay		rire		rire

The English word *curve* has two forms in Kusaiean. One is *kapu* which is borrowed in Kusaiean through Japanese. The other is *kuhf* which is borrowed directly from English.

CHANGES IN MEANING

13.1.3 In the preceding section (13.1.1) we observed some of the changes that take place when English or Japanese words are borrowed into Kusaiean. We will now look at some changes in meaning when a word of English or Japanese is borrowed into Kusaiean.

The word *kawa* in Japanese means 'leather'. The word is often used with another word *kutsu* 'shoes', as in *kawa kutsu* meaning 'leather shoes'. However, in Kusaiean *kawa* alone means 'leather shoes'. The meaning of the word *kawa* is changed from 'leather' in Japanese into 'leather shoes' in Kusaiean. Some additional examples of this sort are presented below.

Japanese	*Gloss*	*Kusaiean*	*Gloss*
sakura	'cherry'	sakura	'a card game'
manga	'cartoon'	mangnga	'comical'
sentoki	'fighter plane'	sentoki	'speedy'
genki	'vigor'	kengki	'vigorous'

English	*Kusaiean*	*Gloss*
rose	ros	'flower'
iron	aen	'scuffle', 'handcuff'
pound	paun	'to weigh'
sabbath	sahpuht	'the last one in a family'

Changes in Grammatical Function

13.1.4 Once English or Japanese words have been borrowed into Kusaiean, the borrowed words follow not only the sound system but also the grammatical system of Kusaiean. Kusaiean nouns which denote tools, instruments, or materials can be changed into transitive verbs with the addition of the suffix *-i*. Borrowed words are no exceptions to this rule of word-formation. (See 5.1, for further examples.) In the following examples the nouns, which have been borrowed from either English or Japanese, are changed into transitive verbs.

Nouns		*Transitive Verbs*	
suka	'sugar'	sukai	'to coax', 'to put sugar in'
kohfi	'coffee'	kohfii	'to put coffee in'
aen	'iron'	aeni	'to iron'
rek	'rake'	reki	'to rake'
sitosah	'car'	sitosahi	'to transport by car'
asi	'chop-stick'	asii	'to pick with chopsticks'
tempura	'fried food'	tempurai	'to fry'
keta	'clog'	ketai	'to put on clogs'

LINGUISTIC VARIATIONS

13.2 The island of Kusaie is divided into four districts: Lelu, Maclwem, Tahfuhnsahk, and Utwac. In all four districts the language that is spoken is Kusaiean. But Kusaiean is not uniform in all respects; there are some variations among the four districts. The word meaning 'roller for canoes', for example, is pronounced as *tahlong* in Maclwem, but the same word is pronounced as *talong* in Leluh and Tahfuhnsahk. The term **dialect** is used to refer to regional variations of a language.

Kusaiean has not only regional but also individual variations. Strictly speaking, almost every individual speaker speaks differently from any other speaker. But, in most cases, the differences are not noticed. However, one speaker's speech can be noticeably different from another's. The word meaning 'to promise' is pronounced as *uli* by certain speakers, but the same word is pronounced as *wihli* by some other speakers. The term **idiolect** is used to refer to individual variations of a language.

There is a final type of phonological variation. A speaker can pronounce a word in two, or more than two, different ways. The word *tukun* 'back of' or 'behind' has the following variant forms: *tokun*, *tokin*, or *tukin*. The term **free variation** is used to refer to variant forms of a word by the same speaker.

Besides dialectal, idiolectal, and free variations in pronunciation, a language can have variations in grammar and vocabulary. The word *oac* 'oar' is used with the *soko* numerals in Maclwem but with the *sie* numerals in Leluh and Tahfuhnsahk. This can be an example of a dialectal difference in grammar. A certain type of ball game is referred to as *ayuhis* or *ayeis* in *Maclwem* but the same game is referred to as *ituhk pohl* in *Leluh, Tahfuhnsahk* and *Utwac*. This is a dialectal variation in vocabulary.

Presented below are some examples of dialectal and idiolectal differences in pronunciation. Pairs of words are presented and the parts that are different from each other in each pair are italicized.

DIALECTAL VARIATIONS

13.2.1

Maclwem	*Thafuhnsahk Leluh, Utwac*	*Gloss*
t*ah*long	t*a*long	'roller for canoes'

Maclwem	*Thafuhnsahk Leluh, Utwac*	*Gloss*
ahsor	ah*s*yor	'sad'
kih*wih*sr	kih*wuh*sr	'tip of a swamp'
oal*kuh*sr	oalk*o*sr	'eight'
*fuh*kihl	f*a*kihl	'room'
t*ah*kuhs	t*a*kihs	'to meat out'
pwack*uh*r	pwack*a*r	'gutter'
k*uh*k	k*a*k	'to bump'
s*u*long*uh*n	s*i*long*i*n	'hard of hearing'
ahlohl*oh*	ahlohl*o*	'undecided', 'hesitant'
lout	l*uh*ut	'we'
te*nw*erak	te*nuh*rak	'a plant'
k*uh*tin mas	k*a*tin mas	'widow'
*n*elahkwem	*l*elahkwem	'rainbow'
loks*ah*k	loks*a*k	'to hang'

IDIOLECTAL VARIATIONS

13.2.2 The forms listed in the first column are commonly used by older Kusaiean speakers and those listed in the second column are used by younger speakers.

I	*II*	*Gloss*
*uku*n	*wihki*hn	'to hide'
*mwo*kahs	*o*kahs	'a fish'
*ngwes*rihk	*nguhs*rihk	'clever'
l*ah*lahlfongi	l*uh*lahlfongi	'to believe'
tuhlweny*a*k	tuhlweny*uh*k	'an adge'
s*a*long	s*ah*long	'to die'
wa*o*k	wa*e*k	'ache'

KUSAIEAN PAST AND PRESENT

13.3 A language can be compared to a living thing that does not remain the same but keeps on changing constantly. A baby grows up to become an adult. It is not easy to observe the gradual growth of the baby. After it has grown up, we can notice that it has grown up, but we usually do not notice the day-to-day changes. Likewise, a language is changing constantly, but the change is so gradual and imperceptible that we are seldom aware

of the change. Changes in languages can be observed in aspects: pronunciation, vocabulary, grammar, and meaning the sections to follow, we will discuss some of the changes.

Changes in Pronunciation

13.3.1 A certain word may be pronounced differently according to of the speakers. The word meaning 'adze', for example pronounced as *tuhlwenyak* by older speakers and as *tuhlweny* by young speakers. It seems that *a* in *tuhlwenyak* is changing *uh*. A certain fish name is pronounced as *mwakahs* by o speakers and as *wokahs* by younger speakers. Between the forms *mwakahs* and *wokahs*, we can note the following chan *mw* is changing to *w* and the first *a* in *mwakahs* is changing

From written records we can also observe change pronunciation. In *Mwulwun Sasu* (New Testament), the meaning 'good' is written as *mwo*. At present, there are pronunciations for the word: *wõ* and *wo*. In the first form vowel *o* is heavily nasalized; in the other form, it is not. The with a heavy nasalization of the vowel is used by older spea and the form without the nasalization is used by younger spea The *m* in *mwo* seems to have been lost after nasalizing the v *o*. The nasal quality of the vowel is again being lost in the sp of younger Kusaieans. (In Ponapean, the related word mea 'good' is written as *mwahu*. The *m* is still retained.) The ch of *mwo* into *wo* is by no means an isolated example. A additional examples illustrating the same change are prese below.

Old Form	*Present Form*	*Gloss*
mwen	wen	'boy'
sumwoli	suwoli	'to bow'
mwuleoa	wuleoa	'dove'
imwen	iwen	'house of'

Addition and Loss of Words

13.3.2 In the preceding section we observed a few examples which that the pronunciation of words changes through time. W now see that some words are being added to Kusaiean, wh some others are being lost. In 13.1 we saw that preser Kusaieans use many words borrowed from English and Jap

The borrowed words can be regarded as additions to the vocabulary of Kusaiean.

Another way of adding new words is through compounding. When Christianity was introduced to Kusaie, many words that are related to it were either borrowed or created. Words such as *puhruhe* 'prayer' and *tikon* 'deacon' were borrowed. On the other hand, words such as *lohm sacnri* 'church' and *puhruhe luhn lwem* are new creations. *Lohm sacnri* is a compound word, which is made up of a Kusaiean word *lohm* 'house' and a borrowed word *sacnri* 'Sunday'. The word *puhruhe luhn lwem* is made up of three morphemes: *puhruhe* 'prayer', which is a borrowed word, *luhn* 'of', and *lwem* 'Lord', which are Kusaiean words.

While many new words are added through borrowing or compounding, it is also true that many words become obsolete. In Kusaiean, there are the following words which refer to different phases of the moon:

maspang	'full moon'	luhlti	
mesalem		kowola met	
alwat		kowola tyok	
mesohn		sropahsr ahpnak	
mesait		sropahsr srohsrluhn	
me saul		suhan kusahf	
lohtlohtoh		kusahf suhnak	
sriafong		srohmpahr	
arfohkoh		arpi	
seken par		li	'moonless night'
sohfsen		sripuhp	
aohlwen		linguli	
fahkfong		lingalang	
mesr	'14th phase'		
el	'15th phrase'		

Except for the four words meaning 'full moon', '14th phrase', '15th phrase', and 'moonless night', most Kusaiean speakers cannot associate the words with particular phrases of the moon. Before the solar calendar was introduced to Kusaiean culture, the lunar calendar must have been closely related to Kusaiean culture, especially as it related to fishing. But since the introduction of the solar calendar, the lunar calendar was less frequently used. As a result, some of the words are becoming obsolete.

Another example can be drawn from old chants that used
be an important part of Kusaiean culture. They were used
pulling canoes, making canoes, and in other ceremonies. T
chants are also used less frequently now. Some of the wor
used in the chants are not used in present-day Kusaiean; co
sequently, many Kusaieans do not know their meanings. N
Kusaiean that was consulted knew the italicized words in t
following chants:

Lutu, lutu, lutu, lutu, lutu uh
Finsrak in imac uh oacna *ululu*
anu saknunnun, kapihn fuhluh uh
sruhpwahyuhlah
i, fisra ele, ele, ele, ele,
Fisra ele *il*

As Kusaiean culture continues to change, many more wo
will no doubt be added and lost, just as they have been in the p

Changes in Meaning

13.3.3 The meaning of a word may also change. The word *kosro*,
example, seems to have been used to refer to animals in gen
such as dogs, pigs, and goats. However, since words such as
'pig', *ohsr* 'horse', and *kaho* 'cow' were borrowed from Engl
kosro came to have a very restricted meaning. It now usu
refers to dogs. This is an example which shows that a gen
meaning of a word can be changed into a specific one.

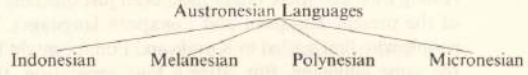
On the other hand, the meaning of a word can be char
from something specific to something general. The word *s*
for example, meant 'black dirt'. From this word a transitive
sroali 'to apply black dirt to' is derived. The transitive verb
used when black dirt was applied to a certain object suc
canoes. Since painting was introduced, the meaning of
transitive verb has become more general. Now it means to
not only with black dirt but also with any other painting mat

POSITION OF KUSAIEAN AMONG MICRONESIAN LANGUA

13.4 In the world there are hundreds of languages, which are in
major groups as Indo-European, Ural-Altaic, Austronesian
The Austronesian group covers a wide area from Madag
in the west to Hawaii and Easter Island in the east. The

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tronesian group is subdivided into four groups, as shown in the following diagram.



Sumatran, Javanese, Balinese, and many other languages belong to the Indonesian group. Many languages in the New Hebrides, New Guinea, and New Caledonia belong to the Melanesian group. Languages such as Hawaiian, Samoan, Tongan, and Tahitian belong to the Polynesian group. Trukese, Woleaian, Ulithian, Ponapean, Marshallese and many other languages belong to the Micronesian language group.

The Micronesian group is subdivided into nuclear and non-nuclear Micronesian languages. Chamorro, Palauan, and Yapese are close to the Indonesian group linguistically. The Nukuoro and Kapingamarangi languages are close to Polynesian; they belong to the non-nuclear Micronesian languages. The nuclear Micronesian languages are Trukese, Woleaian, Marshallese, and Ponapean.

Since so little was known until recently about Kusaiean, linguists have not been sure where to put Kusaiean in the subgrouping of the Micronesian languages. In the sections to follow Kusaiean will compared with Ponapean, whose status as a nuclear Micronesian language is unquestioned, in order to show that Kusaiean belongs to the nuclear Micronesian language group.

Comparison of Kusaiean with Ponapean

13.4.1 In 13.2 we saw that there are dialectal variations in Kusaiean. Suppose that Maclwem were completely separated from the other villages such as Leluh, Tahfuhnsahk and Utwac, and that there were no communication between Maclwem and the other villages for a long time, say a few thousand years. After such a long separation, it is likely that the Kusaiean spoken in Maclwem would have changed in a certain direction while the Kusaiean spoken in the other villages would have changed in some other directions. As a result, the people of Maclwem might not be able to communicate with the people of the other villages. Some aspects of Kusaiean would no doubt remain the same, but other aspects would have changed a great deal.

When Kusaiean and Ponapean are compared closely, it seems that the two languages came from a common language. A long time ago there might have been just one language instead of the present Kusaiean and Ponapean languages. That is, the people who first settled in Kusaie and Ponape might have spoken the same language. But, after a long separation, the language spoken on Kusaie has changed in one direction and the language spoken in Ponape has changed in a different direction. Since there are no written records, there is no knowing exactly when the split took place and whether the hypothesis is correct. However, there are some ways, as we shall note, by which the genetic relationship of some languages can be determined.

Cognates

13.4.1.1 One of the ways by which linguists try to determine the genetic relationship of languages is related to the number of **cognates**, words that are believed to have been derived from a common language because they are similar in their phonetic shape and have a common meaning. For example, the word 'to sleep' is *mutul* in Kusaiean and *meir* in Ponapean. Comparing the two forms, we can notice among other things that there is a *t* in Kusaiean but not in the Ponapean word. We can assume that in the parent language (which is often called **proto-language**) there was a *t* in the word meaning 'to sleep'. The *t* has been retained in Kusaiean but has been lost in Ponapean. From this initial observation, we can expect to find some additional cognates in which Kusaiean retains *t* but Ponapean does not. The following cognates bear out our assumption.

Kusaiean	*Ponapean*	*Gloss*
nuht	nei	'to adopt'
tu	uh	'to stand'
pahtpaht	peipei	'to float', 'to drift'
wot	wei	'hence'

The number for 'four', to take another example, is *ahng* in Kusaiean and *epeng* in Ponapean. When two the forms are compared, we find that there is a *p* in the Ponapean word but not in the Kusaiean word. It can be assumed that in the proto-language there was a *p* in the number 'four' that was lost in Kusaiean but retained in Ponapean. The following additional words show this change.

Kusaiean	*Ponapean*	*Gloss*
eni	pene	'together'
ohu	pou	'cold'
ye	pah	'under'
iyac	ipa	nominalizing suffix

The word *usruk* 'to shake' corresponds to the Ponapean word *itik*. In this pair of words the Kusaiean *sr* [ṣ] sound corresponds to Ponapean *t* [t]. Observe the following additional cognates which show the *sr–t* correspondence.

Kusaiean	*Ponapean*	*Gloss*
pihsrpihsr	pitipit	'quick'
pahsrpahsr	pitapat	'flat'
puhsrahk	pitakatak	'bit', 'slop'
fasr	pweht	'coral lime'
kisrihk	kitik	'rat', 'mouse'
sroalsroal	toantoal	'black'
lasrfol	letepwel	'a fish'

In the preceding paragraphs we observed some cognates and found that Kusaiean and Ponapean cognates are not exactly the same. However, to a great extent they can be related to each other systematically. The author has collected about 400 Kusaiean-Ponapean cognates which are presented below.

The following spelling symbols are used in Ponapean.

Spelling Symbols	*Phonetic Values*	*Spelling Symbols*	*Phonetic Values*
a	[a]	i	[i] or [y]
u	[u]	e	[e] or [ɛ]
p	[p]	oa	[ɔ]

h marks that preceding vowels are long.

w	[w]	p	[p]
pw	[pw]	m	[m]
d	[t]	t	[t]
l	[l]	r	[r]
n	[n]	s	[s]
k	[k]		

A list of putative cognates of Kusaiean and Ponapean follows.

Kusaiean	*Ponapean*	*Gloss*
-ack	-da	'up'
-i	-i	transitivizing suffix
-kihn	-ki	instrumental suffix
-lah	-la	a suffix
-oht	wei	'to the speaker'
-um	ihmw	'house'
-yac, -i	-di	'down'
a	ah	conjunction
ac	a	'a fish'
ac	adih	'bile'
acir	angeir	'south'
acl	alu	'to march' (k), 'to walk' (p)
acng	ong	a suffix
acni	kendip	'spit'
acsr	ahd	'current'
acyac	a	'centipede'
ah	o	determiner
ahk-	ka-	causative prefix
ahkmuhsral	kamoatoar	'to grease'
ahkos, ahk	ok	'to light'
ah*luh*luhl	lal	'to sing'
ahluht	alis	'beard'
ahng	oang	'tumeric'
ahng	pahng	'four'
ahng	epeng	'four'
ahrosros	pwaloslos	'loose'
ahruhk	arihk	'to mix'
ahtro	kutoahr	'egg'
ahwowo	pwohpwoh	'baby'
akihlen	kilel	'to notice'
alken	alkenken	'diligent' (k), 'flattering' (p)
an	ien	determiner
apihs	apid	'to sting'
aramas	aramas	'people'
atuck	metek	'pain'
e	ahi	'fire'
e	ete	'name'
el	ihr	'he'
el	el	'to rub'
em	dam	'outrigger boom'

Kusaiean	*Ponapean*	*Gloss*
ema	neme	'taste'
emsac	amwise	'mosquito'
emwem	mem	'sweet'
enenuh	anahne	'to need'
eng	ahng	'air, wind'
engwah	enge	'spur'
engyeng	engieng	'windy'
enuh	ini	'pole'
epang	pali-*epeng*	'south'
esam	taman	'to remember'
esyac	eh	'liver'
etuh	ese	'to know'
fahr	pwoahr	'cavity'
fahsr	pas	'to come'
fahsuc	oahs	'thatch'
fak	pwehk	'bat'
fak	pwetik	'twin'
fas	pes	'normal'
fasr	pweht	'coral'
fasrfasr	pwetepwet	'white'
fihf	pwuhpw	'a fish'
fihkar	pwuker	'pebble'
fihlis	pelis	'a trunk'
fihsracsr	pitak	'soft'
fin	pohn	'top of'
fiyohyoh	pwudowado	'sweaty'
fo	pwoh	'smell'
fohk	pek	'dirt'
fohn	pwon	'whole'
foko	epwiki	'hundred'
fokoi	pwuke	'to knot'
folfol	mpulapwul	'blue' (k), 'pink' (p)
fong	pwohng	'night'
fuhluhng	pwalang	'to split'
fuht	pwuhs	'navel'
ful	pwihl	'paste'
fulus	pwilis	'to paste'
fure	pirer	'to turn'
ik	ik-	'fish'
ikihl	wikid	'to turn'

Spelling	*Phonetic Spelling*	*Gloss*
il	io	'to turn'
il	*ir*la	'to enter'
ilil	idihd	'to grate'
ilul	uluhl	'pillow'
ilung	ulung	'to raise'
impuhl	impal	'coconut cloth'
in	en	'should'
inihm	lihm	'to bail'
ip	tip	'part'
irak	ilok	'to weave'
irong	irong	'to look'
isihk	isik	'to burn'
isong	iton	'to stick'
it	isuh	'seven'
itih	usuh	'star'
ituhng	idang	'to press'
ka	kehs	'hook'
kahluhk	kelihk	'a fishing'
kahp	kapakap	'bundle'
kahpuh	kahu/kapi	'bottom'
kahruhk	karahk	'to move'
kalkal	kehl	'fence'
kang	kang	'to eat'
kasr	kaht	'ant'
katkat	kidikid	'to cover'
kiaka	ki	'a mat'
kihm	kum	'a noise'
kihnis	kinih	'to pinch'
kihnuhul	kieil	'lizard'
kihrar	kirer	'to belch'
kihsrihk	kitik	'mouse'
kihtakat	kisakis	'to give'
kiyac	kie	classifier for 'mat' (k), 'mat' (p)
kiyuhf	kiepw	'spider lily'
koah	kode	'animal's horn'
koal	koale	'to twist'
koasrlong	katairong	'noisy'
koem	kodom	'to husk'
kohfkohf	kopokop	'to cough'
kohl	koahl	'grass skirt'

Kusaiean	*Ponapean*	*Gloss*
kohngtohk	kohntutuk	'to squat'
kolo	kihl	'skin'
kosro	kidi	'animal' (k), 'dog' (p)
kuhfa	kapu	'feast'
kuhlwacng	kalahngan	'kind'
kuhpwes	kohpwa	'basket'
kuhret	kored	'to scratch'
kuhruhn kuhrwacn	keren	'near, close'
kuhsrao	keteu	'sky' (k), 'rain' (p)
kuht	kiht	'we'
kun	kun	'blind'
kwe	kai	'to move'
kwekwe	keke	'hard'
koet	kihs	'octopus'
lah	rah	'branch'
lahlfon	lampwon	'stupid'
lahp	lap	'big'
lakihn	lohk	'to spread'
laslas	rasras	'to saw'
lasrol	letepwel	'a fish'
leluh	leh	'lagoon'
li-	lih-	prefix for 'woman' (k), 'woman' (p)
liasr	liet	'ghost'
lih*kacsik*	kesik	'gun'
lihkihn	likin	'outside of'
lihkihn tuhpah	likin sap	'cheek'
lihm	lim	'to fold'
lihp	lop	'to split'
lihs	lider	'to chase'
lihse	les	'to cut'
lihsr	ros	'none, depleted'
lihsrihng	leteng	'to flick'
lili	ri	'brother'
liyac	li-	'habit'
lo	lo	'a seat in a canoe'
loal	loal	'deep'
loaloa	loahloa	'a beam'

Kusaiean	*Ponapean*	*Gloss*
loang	loahng	'fly'
loat	roahs	'whale'
loes	reirei	'long'
loh	*loh*di	'caught'
loh	loh	'tongue'
lohng	rong	'to hear'
lohsr	rot	'dark'
lucng	lahng	'sky'
luhlahp	lapalap	'large'
luhm	limau	'five'
luhmah	lamalam	'to think'
luhnglucng	rengireng	'to warm by a fire'
lum	lihmw	'a seaweed'
luo	riau	'two'
lut	lus	'surprised'
lwen	rahn	'day'
ma	ma	'thing'
mah	mo	'to heal'
mah	mah	'old'
mahlwem	maram	'moon'
mahn	moahl	'barren'
mahng	moange	'head'
mahr	mahr	'preserved breadfruit'
mahtol	moasul	'thick'
meoa	madau	'ocean'
mihlkuhn	manokeh-la	'to forget'
mihnini	menipinip	'thin'
mihs	mwele	'calm'
mokmok	mwekmwek	'arrow-root'
motin	mwowih-di	'heavy'
moul	mour	'alive'
muh	pwe	'to discuss'
muh	me	'a conjunction'
muh	mah	'to yawn'
muhlahlah	marara	'light'
muhna	manad	'tamed'
muhnahs	mand	'tamed'
muhnan	inihn	'to cook'
muhsroal	moatoar	'greasy'
muht	met	'full'

Kusaiean	*Ponanean*	*Gloss*
muhta	mahs	'eye'
muhta	mwohd	'to sit'
muhtuhn	mwoahn	'front of'
muhtweng	mwohdeng	'to stand'
mulut	mwoalus	'charcoal'
mutul	meir	'to sleep'
mwel	*mahr*di	'to die'
mwemwelihl	mwahiei	'to sob'
mwenmwen	manman	'magic'
mwesr	maht	'black head'
mweun	mahwin	'to fight'
ne	neh	'leg'
nga	ngehi	'I'
ngalis	ngalis	'to bite'
ngihrngihr	ngirngir	'noisy'
nguhn	ngen	'spirit'
nihm	nim	'to drink'
ninac	ihn	'mother'
ninac	nohno	'mother'
noak	nohk	'midrib'
nu	nih	'coconut'
nuht	nei	'to adopt'
nukum	lukom	'to wrap'
nwek	naik	'a net'
nwenwe	nahna	'pile of rocks'
oak	wahr	'canoe'
oal	ewel	'eight'
oal	waluh	'eight'
oan	wen	'to lie'
oek	wadek	'to count'
ohkohnkohn	koakone	'to fix'
ohl	dohl	'hill'
ohsrihksrihk	ahtiktik	'narrow'
ohtohn	osen	'thorn'
ohu	pou	'cold'
okahrkahr	mwakelekel	'messy' (k), 'clean' (p)
walwal	mwarmwar	'to wear'
ono	wini	'medicine'
on	wene	'six'
on	weneu	'six'

Kusaiean	*Ponapean*	*Gloss*
onoi	wini	'to medicate'
op	ohp	'a plant'
orek	wiawi	'to do'
osrwac	wete	'to eat raw'
owo	omwiomw	'to wash'
pac	pil	'also'
pacl	par	'time'
pahko	pako	'shark'
pahpahl	palpal	'a fish'
pahlweng	peleng	'a bird'
pahngon	pangin	'to call'
pahnuh	pone	'a tree'
paho	peh	'hand'
pahpah	pahpa	'father'
pahsrpahsr	patapat	'flat'
pahtpaht	peipei	'adrift'
pahtpaht	poatopoat	'permanent'
paki	pwakih	'to split'
panne	pone	'a tree'
pat	pahd	'hole'
pe	mpe	'side'
pihn	pin	'to wrap'
pihnes	pinapin	'to patch'
pihr	pir	'to beat'
pihraki	pireki	'to braid'
pihsre	pirap	'to steal'
pihsrihk	pit	'to flick'
pihsrpihsr	pitipit	'quick'
pihtuhtuh	ahpada	'pregnant'
po	pwou	'pole'
poh	mwou	'callous'
poht	pos	'exploding sound'
karongo	karoange	'to listen'
powac	mwa	'a crab'
puhk	pihk	'sand'
puhs	pahs	'more than enough'
puhsrahk	pitakatak	'bit'
pulohl	pwoaloal	'bubble'
puok	pok	'to hit'
pwacnacng	apehne	'to cause'

Kusaiean	*Ponapean*	*Gloss*
pwacr	peren	'happy'
pwacye	pwa	'true'
pweng	pwou	'a fishing'
rahkihn	rauk	'to empty'
rangrang	oangoang	'yellow'
rarrar	rerrer	'to shake'
ruckruck	rek	'clustery'
sa	se	'to shout'
sahk	tuke	'tree'
saholucng	sahrong	'ridge pole'
sal	sar	'to skin'
sar	sar	'to face'
sar	sohr	'to disappear'
sauk	saik	'to catch'
se	tei	'to tear'
se-	se-	negative prefix
sucu	sou	'family'
sik	sihk	'a bird'
sikacl	sokon	'crutches'
sikuhl	sikel	'to tiptoe'
sipihk	sepe	'to chop'
sirengreng	sirang	'kinky'
siyuhk	idek	'to ask'
sra	teh	'leaf'
srah	nta	'blood'
sralahp	tehlap	'wide'
srasr	rar	'crack'
sri	tih	'bone'
srihksrihk	tikitik	'small'
sroalsroal	toantoal	'black'
srwacl	isol	'famine'
sucl	sahl	'string'
sucng	sing	'to fart'
suh-	sa-	negative prefix
sul	dil	'torch'
sule	pihl	'to choose'
tak	dak	'to rise'
taptap	dapdap	'to guggle'
taun	saun	'to start'
tawi	sawi	'a fish'

Kusaiean	*Ponapean*	*Gloss*
tawi	dawi	'to inspect'
tihl	suhr	'to sink'
tihng	teng	'tight'
tihngtihng	ting	'tight'
tikuhlkuhl	dipikelelkel	'to stumble'
titi	dihdi	'breast'
tohtoh	dau	'tired'
tol	esil	'three'
tolu	siluh	'three'
topuk	dopuk	'to buy'
tu	uh	'to stand'
tuh	dedei	'to sew'
tuh	toa	'to come'
tuh	sehu	'sugarcane'
tuhka	deke	'island'
tuhlihk	seri	'child'
tuhma	sahm	'father'
tuhng	seng	'to cry'
tuhp	tipwa	'to pick'
tuhp	dapw	'a container'
tuhpah	sepe	'cheek'
tihpuhl	sipal	'to pick'
tuk	suk	'to pound'
tun	dun	'bunch'
twe	sed	'salt water'
twem	saim	'to sharpen'
u	uh	'a fish trap'
u	pwihn	'group'
uf	uhpw	'drinking coconut'
uk	ouk	'to blow'
uk	ihk	'to blow'
um	ihm	'house'
um	uhmw	'earth oven'
umwuhn	umwuhn	'to bake'
unac	wine	'hair'
upac	apwal	'hard'
usr	uht	'banba'
usruk	itik	'to shake'
uswac*nwen*	nahn	'pus'
uti	idi	'to fetch water'

Kusaiean	*Ponapean*	*Gloss*
uti	ihd	'to fetch'
utuhk	take	'to carry'
utuhk	dak	'to carry'
wahluh	woar	'mouth'
wal	mwar	'a rank'
walwal	mwaramwar	'garland'
wangwes	mwangas	'coconut'
wel	arew*e*l*l*a	'crazy'
wet	mwahs	'worm'
wihkwihk	ekiek	'to hide'
wihte	mwus	'to vomit'
wo	mwahu	'good'
wo	wowow	'to bark'
won	mahn	'bird'
wuhn	wa	'to transport'
yac	ia	'where'
ye	pah	'below'
yihyih	duhdu	'to bathe'
yuh	iou	'delicious'
yuh	adu	'nine'

The large number of cognates can be a good indication that the two languages are closely related to each other. However, this alone cannot be a sufficient criterion for the determination of the genetic relationship of languages because one language can borrow a large number of words from another. Kusaiean, for instance, borrowed a large number of Japanese words. If we try to determine the genetic relationship of Kusaiean and Japanese, we may come up with a strange conclusion that the two languages are genetically related. So the evidence suggested by the number of the cognates must be supplemented by some other aspects concerned. In what follows, the bound morphemes of the two languages will be comaprd.

ound Morphemes

.4.1.2 *Causative Prefix.* The causative prefix is *ahk-* in Kusaiean and *ka-* in Ponapean. In both languages it is used to change adjectives or intransitive verbs into transitive verbs, as we can see in the following examples.

Kusaiean	*Ponapean*	*Gloss*
tohtoh	dau	'tired'
akh-tohtoh-ye	ka-dau	'to tire'
tihl	duh	'to sink'
ahk-tihl-ye	ka-duh	'to submerge'
acl 'to march'	alu	'to walk'
ahk-acl-ye	kahlu	'to lead'
mutul	mweir	'to sleep'
ahk-mutul-ye	ka-mair	'to put to sleep'
wo	mwahu	'good'
ahk-wo-ye	ka-mwahih	'to improve'
sar	sohr	'to disappear'
ahk-sar-ye	kasohreh-la	'to make disappear'
esam	taman	'to remember'
ahk-esam-ye	ka-taman	'to remind'

Negative Prefix. The negative prefix is *se-* in both Kusaiean and Ponapean. The prefix in both languages has alternating forms such as *so-* or *soh-* depending upon the following vowels. The prefix is attached to adjectives or intransitive verbs and the resulting prefixed words have negative meanings. Look at the following examples.

Kusaiean	*Ponapean*	*Gloss*
etuh	ese	'to know'
se-etuh	se-ese	'not to know'
kwac 'always'	ke	'easily'
se-kwac 'not always'	se-ke	'not easily'
oaru	owor	'trustworthy'
so-oaru	so-owor	'untrustworthy'

Directional Suffixes. The directional suffixes of Kusaiean and Ponapean are presented below:

Kusaiean	*Ponapean*	*Gloss*
lah	la	'away'
acng	ong	'to'
yac	di	'down'
ack	da	'up'
ma	do	'to the speaker'
oht	wei	'to the listener'
eni	pene	'together'

Kusaiean	*Ponapean*	*Gloss*
elihk	peseng	'apart'
	sang	'from', 'off'

In the two languages the uses of the directional suffixes are very similar. In the declarative sentences of Kusaiean and Ponapean the directional suffixes have the two semantic features of direction and terminus. When the directional suffixes are used with motion verbs, they denote physical change of location. When they are used with non-motion verbs, the directional suffixes come to have metaphorical senses and denote changes of state.

For example, the directional suffix *-yac* in Kusaiean means 'down' when it is used with motion verbs such as *pahtok* 'to push', or *ul* 'to pull'. Look at the following sentences.

Nga pahtok-yac oak soko ah.
'I pushed down the canoe.'

Nga ul-yac nuknuk fohn luhk ah.
'I pulled down my shirt.'

The same directional suffix *-yac* denotes that something is in a state of submission, subjection, constraint, or inanimateness, all of which seem to be secondary extensions of the physical direction. Look at the following example sentences. Notice that the suffix *-yac* is used with non-motion verbs such as *sruok* 'to catch', *kali* 'to imprison' or *los* 'to tie'.

Nga sruok-yac won se.
'I caught a bird.'

Eltahl kali-yac mwet pihsrapasr sac.
'They imprisoned the robber.'

Sohn el los-yac infulwuhk.
'John bound my waist.'

The Ponapean directional suffix *-di* which is equivalent to the Kusaiean *-yac* means 'down' when it is used with motion verbs. When it is used with non-motion verbs as in the following examples, it denotes that something is in a state of submission, control, constraint, or confinement.

E pire-di pwot o.
'He tied the boat.'

E pwili-di sehr o.
'He fastened the chair.'

I kaloweh-di son pirak men.
'I caught the robber.'

Not only the Kusaiean suffix *-yac* and the Ponapean suffix *-di*, but the rest of the directional suffixes in the two languages denote both physical changes of location and metaphorical changes of state. The metaphorical meanings of each of the directional suffixes are very similar to each other in the two languages. (See 6.3 for the different meanings of the Kusaiean directional suffixes.)

Transitivizing Suffix. In both Kusiean and Ponapean, there is a suffix *-i* which changes nouns into transitive verbs. The derived transitive verbs generally mean 'to add something to', or 'to provide something with'. Look at the following examples.

Kusaiean	*Ponapean*	*Glosses*
suka	suka	'sugar'
suka-i	suka-i	'to add sugar to'
aes	ais	'ice'
aes-i	ais-i	'to put ice to'
em	dam	'outrigger'
em-i	dam-i	'to provide with outrigger'

Instrumental Suffix. The Kusaiean instrumental suffix *-kihn* is used to derive transitive verbs from nouns, adjectives or intransitive verbs. In Ponapean there is also an instrumental suffix *-ki* which has functions similar to the Kusaiean counterpart. In the sentences below the Ponapean *-ki* and the Kusaiean *-kihn* are used.

I inting-ki pei o. (Ponapean)
'I write with my hand.'

Nga sihm-kihn pouk. (Kusaiean)
'I write with my hand.'

Adjectivizing Suffix. In Kusaiean the suffix *-twen* changes certain transitive verbs into adjectives as in the following examples.

Transitive Verbs		*Derived Adjectives*	
lohng	'to hear'	lohngtwen	'good at hearing'
liye	'to see'	liyetwen	'good at seeing'
sruok	'to catch'	sruoktwen	'good at catching'

In Ponapean there is no such a suffix which changes transitive

verbs into adjectives. But there is a suffix which changes nouns into adjectives. The suffix is *-na* and the derived adjectives usually mean 'lots of . . .' Look at the following examples.

Nouns		*Derived Adjectives*	
pihl	'water'	pihl-en	'full of water'
pihk	'sand'	pihk-en	'full of sand'

However, there is no such suffix in Kusaiean.

To summarize: in the preceding paragraphs we compared the bound morphemes in Kusaiean and Ponapean. The number of bound morphemes is not exactly the same. But the number of bound morphemes shared by the two languages far exceeds that of bound morphemes that are not shared. In Kusaiean there is a passive suffix *-yuhk* which Ponapean does not have. In Ponapean there is an adjectivizing suffix *-na* which Kusaiean does not have. The functions of the bound morphemes are not exactly the same. But similarity far exceeds dissimilarity, thus lending evidence to our theory that the languages came from one parent language.

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