

As the list above shows, all of the expressions for the months of the year consist of an ordinal number used as a modifier before the noun *buil* ‘month’. These expressions therefore have the literal meanings ‘the first month’, ‘the second month’, and so on.

The noun phrases below are further examples of how Palauan ordinal numbers can be used as modifiers:

- | | | |
|------|--------------------------|------------------|
| (37) | kot el chad | ‘first man’ |
| | ongeru el sils | ‘second day’ |
| | ongede el babii | ‘third pig’ |
| | ongeu a el cheldech duch | ‘fourth meeting’ |
| | ongeteruich el ngalek | ‘tenth child’ |

Ordinal Numbers Followed by Specifying Clauses

22.7.1. As we saw in 14.6.7, Palauan has a small number of special *verbs* that must always be followed by a *specifying clause* (see 14.6) introduced by the conjunction *el*. Such items (which, interestingly enough, do not have any English verbs as their equivalents) include *blechoel* ‘always’, *dirrek* ‘also’, and *ko* ‘just’. These special Palauan verbs are used in sentences like the following:

- | | | |
|------|-----------------------------------|--|
| (38) | a. Ak blechoel el meruul a kelir. | ‘I always prepare their food.’ |
| | b. A sechelik a dirrek el mong. | ‘My friend is also going.’ |
| | c. A ngalek a ko el mesubang. | ‘The child has just gotten (a chance) to study.’ |

Now, just like *blechoel*, *dirrek*, and *ko* above, the Palauan ordinal number *kot* ‘first’ can be followed by a specifying clause. In such cases, *kot* means something like ‘to do first’ or ‘to do (something) before/ahead of someone else’, and the specifying clause introduced by *el* designates the activity involved. Observe the examples below:

- | | | |
|------|--|---|
| (39) | a. Kom kot el mo omengur. | ‘You (pl.) go ahead and eat first.’ |
| | b. Ke ma kot el mo er a skuul, e ngak ekong. | ‘You (sg.) go on ahead to school, and then I’ll follow.’ |
| | c. Ak kot el remurt. | ‘I’ll be the first to run (in the race, etc.) (i.e., I’m runner Number 1).’ |

The word *ma* in (39b)—not to be confused with the *me a* (pronounced “ma”) that represents a contraction of the conjunction *me* ‘and’ and the independent word *a* that introduces a noun phrase—also means ‘first’. It can be used together with *kot*, as in (39b), or independently, as in the sentence below:

- | | | |
|------|------------------------------------|--|
| (40) | Ke ma mo er a skuul, e ngak ekong. | ‘You (sg.) go on ahead to school, and then I’ll follow.’ |
|------|------------------------------------|--|

In addition to *kot*, we occasionally see the other ordinal numbers being used with specifying clauses. Thus, with (39c), compare the following:

- (41) Ak ongeru/ongede el remurt. 'I'll be the second/third to run
(in the race, etc.) (i.e., I'm runner
Number 2/Number 3).'

When *kot* 'first' is followed by a specifying clause containing a *state verb*, the resulting meaning corresponds to English *-est* in words like *biggest*, *fastest*, *easiest*, etc., or to *most* in *most beautiful*, etc. In other words, *kot + el + state verb* indicates that someone or something possesses a particular quality in a higher degree than anyone or anything else being considered. This useful type of expression is illustrated in the sentences below:

- (42) a. A Satsko a kot el mellomes a bdelul el ngalek er a skuul. 'Satsko is the smartest pupil.'
b. Ng techa a kot el bekerurt? 'Who runs the fastest?'
c. A Oreor a kot el klou el beluu er Belau. 'Koror is the largest town in Palau.'

EXPRESSIONS WITH MULTIPLE MODIFIERS

22.8. In the sections above we have seen how words from different groups—demonstratives, numbers, state verbs, etc.—can be used as modifiers (always linked by the conjunction *el* to the following modified noun). To keep our discussion simple, we only gave examples in which the modified noun is preceded by a single modifier (e.g., *tia el hong* 'this book', *klou el blai* 'big house', etc.). As the examples below show, however, Palauan speakers often use a sequence of two or more modifiers before the modified noun:

- (43) tia el me el buil 'next month'
tia el mlo merek el rak 'last year'
tirka el teru el chad 'these two men'
tirke el tede el ungil el sensei 'those three good teachers'
ngka el kekere el babii 'this small pig'
aike el kloa el charm 'those four animals'
klde el mechetngaid el oluches 'three thin pencils'

If we analyze a three-modifier expression like *tirke el tede el ungil el sensei* 'those three good teachers', we discover that the usual order of multiple modifiers is *demonstrative—number—(state) verb*.

QUALIFYING WORDS

22.9. In the preceding sections we have examined a large number of expressions with the structure *Modifier + EL + Noun*, in which a modifier in the form of a demonstrative, number, state verb, etc., is linked by the conjunction *el* to a following noun. In this section we will take a quick look at another kind of modification that is structurally simpler because it does *not* involve the conjunction *el*. In this type of modification, a *qualifying word* like *kmal* 'very', *di* 'only, just', etc., appears immediately before a *verb*, whose meaning it qualifies or limits in some way. Thus, in the examples below, we show how the most common qualifying words in Palauan are used in sentences:

(44) *kmal* 'very, often'

- | | |
|--|----------------------------------|
| a. Ng <i>kmal</i> ungil a rrellem. | 'What you've made is very good.' |
| b. Ng <i>kmal</i> mle mekngit a eanged. | 'The weather was very poor.' |
| c. A ngelekek a <i>kmal</i> diak losuub. | 'My child hardly ever studies.' |

(45) *di* 'only, just'

- | | |
|--|---|
| a. A dengua er ngak a <i>di</i> osisiu. | 'My telephone (number) is just the same (as before).' |
| b. A sechelik a mlo er a Oreor <i>el di</i> mo milil. | 'My friend went to Koror just to fool around.' |
| c. Ngara uchul me ng <i>di</i> diak mosuub? | 'Why is it that you just don't ever study?' |
| d. Ak <i>di</i> milenguui a tekoi er a Siabal er a elii. | 'All I did yesterday was read Japanese.' |
| e. Ng <i>di</i> ngar er kau. | 'It's simply up to you (sg.).' |

(46) *dirk* 'still'

- | | |
|--|---------------------------------|
| a. Ng <i>dirk</i> ngar er ngii a kall? | 'Is there still any food left?' |
| b. A tolechoi a <i>dirk</i> mechiuaiu. | 'The baby is still sleeping.' |

(47) *locha* 'perhaps, maybe'

- | | |
|--|--|
| a. Ak <i>locha</i> mo er a Beliliou er a klukuk. | 'Perhaps I'll go to Peleliu tomorrow.' |
| b. Te <i>locha</i> mla mo smecher. | 'Perhaps they've gotten sick.' |

The qualifying word *di* 'only, just' can also precede nouns, as shown in the following examples:

- (48) a. Aki di ngalek er a skuul. 'We (excl.) are just students.'
 b. A Helen a menga a di iasai. 'Helen eats vegetables only.'

SUMMARY OF MODIFIER CONSTRUCTIONS IN PALAUAN

22.10. The various Palauan modifier constructions that we have discussed in this and previous lessons are summarized below:

Modifier Constructions

(49) Type of Modifier	Example
a. State verb	beches el blai telemall el bilas
Idiomatic expression: state verb + <i>reng</i>	ungil a rengul el chad
b. Transitive action verb	mengitakl el ngalek
c. Question word	ngara el tekoi tela el klok
d. Noun	di telkib el kall
e. Demonstrative word	tia el klalo ngke el chad
Demonstrative word + intransitive action verb	tia el me el rak
f. Number word	chimo el kluk teruich el chad
Ordinal number	kot el ungil
g. Qualifying word (directly precedes verb or noun without <i>el</i>)	kmal ungil di ngalek

LIST OF TERMS

22.11. The most important terms relating to modifiers in Palauan are listed below:

- **State Verb**
- **Modifier**
- **Conjunction *el***
- **(Intransitive or Transitive) Action Verb**
- **Question Word**
- **Demonstrative**
- **(Four) Categories of Distance**
- **Number (Word)**
- **Number Morpheme**
- **Major (vs. Minor) Number Set**
- **Ordinal Number**
- **Specifying Clause**
- **Multiple Modifiers**
- **Qualifying Word**

22.12. MODIFIERS IN PALAUAN: STUDY QUESTIONS

1. Define each of the terms listed in 22.11 and give an example (or set of examples) where appropriate. Be sure that each of your definitions indicates how the particular term relates to the topic of modifiers in Palauan.
2. What is the structure of Palauan modifier constructions, and how do they differ from relative clauses?
3. In addition to marking a modifier construction, what other uses does the conjunction *el* have in Palauan grammar?
4. How can Palauan idiomatic expressions with *reng* be used as modifiers?
5. In addition to state verbs, what other types of Palauan verbs can be used in modifier constructions?
6. Which Palauan question words are sometimes found in modifier constructions?
7. What are the three major factors which speakers must take into account in order to use Palauan demonstratives correctly?
8. What are the four categories of distance that we must distinguish when using demonstratives, and what phonetic form does the morpheme for each distance category take?
9. What are the similarities and differences between the demonstratives referring to human beings and those referring to nonliving things? Refer specifically to the internal structure of demonstrative words.
10. Which Palauan demonstrative words are particularly difficult to analyze?
11. How do Palauan demonstratives referring to animals represent an unusual mixture of other forms?
12. How can demonstrative words be used as modifiers?
13. What are the major differences between number words designating units of time (Set I) and number words designating human beings (Set II)?
14. How many major number sets are there in Palauan, and what categories of items are they used to count?
15. How do we count from 11 to 19 in the major number sets of Palauan?
16. How can number words be used as modifiers?
17. What is the internal structure of Palauan number words used to count animals and various nonliving things (Set III)?

18. Explain how Palauan speakers count numbers above twenty.
19. Give a brief survey, together with examples, of the minor number sets of Palauan.
20. What is the form and meaning of ordinal numbers, and how are they used in various phrases and sentences?
21. Under what circumstances would we write a Palauan sentence with multiple modifiers? Give a clear example and analyze each of the multiple modifiers in detail.
22. What are the grammatical characteristics of Palauan qualifying words?

22.13. MODIFIERS IN PALAUAN: EXERCISES

1. For each of the state verbs below, write an interesting Palauan sentence in which the state verb is used as a modifier. Then, translate your sentence into English.

klebokel	mechuu	bekureor
dechudech	becheleleu	chetuul
chetngaid	beketekoi	mechesa
sekool	sekerael	beralm
mekreos	seleseb	chesech

2. For each of the nouns below, provide the correct set of demonstrative words that would be used as modifiers. You should have a total of eight forms for each noun: four categories of distance in the singular, and four categories of distance in the plural.

Example: klalo: tia/aika el klalo, tie/aile el klalo, etc.

kahol	sidosia
tolechoi	oluches
kerrekar	ius
sechal	kangkodang
babii	mesil

3. Count each of the nouns below from 1 to 10, using the correct set of number words as modifiers.

Example: rak: ta el rak, eru el rak, ede el rak, eua el rak, etc.

oles	charm
ngalek	rubak
buil	sandei
belochel	dellomel
chemang	buk

4. Give the correct modifier expression when counting the indicated number of items for each noun below.

Example: (20) *chad*: lluich el chad

(38) delmerab

(70) blai

(25) kahol

(42) chad er a Siabal

(16) tolechoi

(4000) ngikel

(100) kerrekarak

(11) sikang

(500) kluk

(18) kerruk

5. Using examples different from those given in (44-49) of 22.9, write interesting Palauan sentences containing the qualifying words *kmal*, *di*, *dirk*, and *locha*. Translate each of your sentences into correct English.

23

CONNECTING WORDS IN PALAUAN

INTRODUCTION

- 23.1.** In earlier lessons we have already observed many examples of Palauan *complex sentences* formed by joining two simpler sentences (clauses) with such words as *me* 'and (so)', *e* 'and (then)', and *e le* 'because'. These items are called **connecting words** precisely because they connect two simpler sentences into one and express a particular relationship between the ideas represented in each.

In English grammar, connecting words such as *and*, *or*, *because*, etc., are usually called *conjunctions* (from the verb *conjoin*, which means "connect"). This term, which is equivalent to *connecting word*, has sometimes been used earlier in this textbook to refer to Palauan words such as *me*, *e*, and *e le* (which is actually an expression consisting of *e* and a second word *le*, whose origin is unclear). Making use of our new term *connecting word*, we will now review the functions of *me*, *e*, and *e le* that we have already covered in previous lessons.

Review of Reason and Result Clauses:

E Le and Me

- 23.1.1.** Lesson 20 was in large part devoted to examining the structure of Palauan sentences containing *reason* and *result clauses*. Thus, in 20.2 we noted that depending on the connecting word used, two independent sentences like (1a–b) below can be joined in different ways to derive the complex sentences (2a–b):

- | | | |
|-----|---|--|
| (1) | a. Ng dimlak kbo er a skuul. | 'I didn't go to school.' |
| | b. Ak mle smecher. | 'I was sick.' |
| (2) | a. Ng dimlak kbo er a skuul e le ak
mle smecher. | 'I didn't go to school because I was
sick.' |
| | b. Ak mle smecher me ng dimlak kbo
er a skuul. | 'I was sick, so I didn't go to school.' |

In (2a) the connecting word *e le* 'because' joins the *reason clause* to the preceding clause, while in (2b) the connecting word *me* 'and (so)' joins the *result clause* to the preceding clause. In other words, any clause introduced by *e le* expresses a *reason* or

cause for the event, state, etc., of the preceding clause, while any clause introduced by *me* expresses a *result* or *effect* that follows from the event, state, etc., of the preceding clause. Whereas use of the connecting word *e le* is quite straightforward, there are many different constructions in which the connecting word *me* serves to introduce result clauses. To review these in detail, see 20.3 and 20.3.1–2, where you will find examples such as those below:

- | | | |
|-----|---|--|
| (3) | a. Ngara (uchul) me ke mlo er a Siabal? | ‘Why/for what reason did you go to Japan?’ |
| | b. Ke mleker a me ke rirebet er a cheldukl? | ‘How did you fall off the dock?’ |
| | c. A sensei a dilu er ngak me ak olengeseu er a mechas. | ‘The teacher told me to help the old woman.’ |

Review of Consequent Clauses: E

23.1.2. In Lesson 17 we studied the broad and complicated topic of prefix pronoun predicates in Palauan and looked at various types of constructions in which prefix pronouns occur. As part of that discussion, we examined different kinds of *conditional sentences* (see 17.2, 17.4, etc.), as illustrated by the examples below:

- | | | |
|-----|---|---|
| (4) | a. A lengar er ngii a ududek, e ak mo er a Guam. | ‘If I had money, (then) I’d go to Guam.’ |
| | b. A lsekum ng ungil a eanged, e te mo er a chei. | ‘If the weather’s good, (then) they’ll go fishing.’ |

In each of the sentences above, we have a *condition clause* introduced by *a* ‘if’ or *a lsekum* ‘if’ followed by a *consequent clause* introduced by the connecting word *e* ‘and (then)’. The consequent clause marked by *e* indicates an event (or state) that could take place *only if* the event (or state) of the preceding condition clause were true. In (4a), for instance, the consequent clause *e ak mo er a Guam* ‘(then) I’d go to Guam’ describes an event that could occur only if the condition indicated by the preceding clause were met—namely, *a lengar er ngii a ududek* ‘if I had money’.

Review of Preposing with Time Clauses and Time Words: E

23.1.3. As noted in 20.5, when a *time clause* gets *preposed* to sentence-initial position and therefore switches places with the accompanying independent clause, the switched independent clause (now in second position) must be introduced by the connecting word *e* ‘and (then)’. This grammatical process is observed in the sentence pairs below:

- (5) a. Ak kilie er a blil a Tony er se er a kbo er a Guam. 'I lived at Tony's place when I went to Guam.'
- b. Se er a kbo er a Guam, e ak kilie er a blil a Tony. 'When I went to Guam, I lived at Tony's place.'
- (6) a. A Droteo a melamech a dekoool se el losuub. 'Droteo smokes cigarettes whenever he studies.'
- b. Se el losuub, e a Droteo a melamech a dekoool. 'Whenever Droteo studies, he smokes cigarettes.'

While (5a) and (6a) show an independent clause followed by a time clause, the corresponding sentences (5b) and (6b) have a structure in which a time clause in sentence-initial position is joined to the following independent clause by the connecting word *e*. In a similar way, the connecting word *e* must also be inserted when a *time word* (or expression) such as *klukuk* 'tomorrow' or *eim el klok* 'five o'clock' has been optionally preposed (see Note 5 of 20.5), as the following sentence pairs illustrate:

- (7) a. Ng me er a blik er a klukuk. 'He's coming to my house tomorrow.'
- b. A klukuk e ng me er a blik. 'Tomorrow he's coming to my house.'
- (8) a. A resechelim a mirrael er a eim el klok. 'Your friends left at five o'clock.'
- b. A eim el klok e a resechelim a mirrael. 'At five o'clock your friends left.'

FURTHER USES OF ME

23.2. In (2b) above we have already seen that the connecting word *me* is used to relate a *result clause* to a preceding independent clause and that in such cases *me* corresponds to English 'and so' (or simply 'so'). As we will now see, the connecting word *me* can also function to join two independent clauses that are both parallel in structure and present information of more or less equal importance. In this usage, *me* merely establishes a rather loose connection between the parallel events, states, etc., described by the two separate clauses and therefore corresponds to English 'and' (rather than 'so' or 'and so'). Observe the following sentences:

- (9) a. A Merikel a klou el beluu, me a Belau a kekere el beluu. 'America is a big country, and Palau is a small country.'
- b. A bilek a bechelelu, me a bilel a Tony a bekerkard. 'My shirt is white, and Tony's shirt is red.'
- c. A Droteo a ngalek er a skuul, me a Toki a sensei. 'Droteo is a student, and Toki is a teacher.'

- | | |
|--|---|
| d. A mechas a mo er a sers, me a rubak a mo er a chei. | 'The old woman is going to (work in) the garden, and the old man is going fishing.' |
| e. Ak meriik er a mekesokes, me a Satsko a melemed er a ulaol. | 'I sweep the yard, and Satsko mops the floor.' |

In the examples of (9) above, it is easy to recognize that the two independent clauses connected by *me* 'and' not only are parallel in structure but also convey similar kinds of information. The two clauses of (9b), for example, each consist of a *subject noun phrase* (*bilek* 'my shirt' and *bilel a Tony* 'Tony's shirt') followed by a *state verb* (*becheleleu* 'white' and *beker kard* 'red'), and they each give information about the color of someone's clothes. Similarly, the independent clauses of (9e) each contain a *subject noun phrase* (*ak* 'I' and *Satsko*), a *transitive action verb* in the imperfective form (*meriik* 'to sweep' and *melemed* 'to mop'), and an *object noun phrase* marked with the specifying word *er* (*mekesokes* 'yard' and *ulaol* 'floor'), and both of them describe household activities that their subjects engage in. Can you also see that the remaining examples of (9) contain clauses that exhibit a parallel structure and convey parallel types of information?

The connecting word *me* 'and' also occurs rather often in *imperative sentences*, which are used to give orders or commands (see 17.7). In each of the examples below, the first clause contains the imperative form *bo* 'go' (from *mo* 'to go'), while the second clause contains a (transitive or intransitive) action verb in the imperative form. Such sentences are commands for someone to go to a particular place and carry out a given action:

- | | |
|--|--|
| (10) a. Bo er a bita me mlengir a oles. | 'Go next door and borrow a knife.' |
| b. Bo er a blil a Toki me mcheteklii a ngalek. | 'Go to Toki's house and carry the child back.' |
| c. Bo er a blim me bo bad. | 'Go home and go to sleep.' |

In (10c) *mo bad* 'to go to sleep' is a rather slangy idiomatic expression that means, literally, 'become (like) a rock'.

THE EXPRESSION ME A LECHUB

- 23.3. The connecting word *me* can combine with the words *a lechub* to form *me a lechub*, an expression corresponding to English 'or'. Just like *e le* 'because', the internal structure of *me a lechub* 'or' is hard to analyze, although *a lechub* itself might be a "fossilized" condition clause (where *a* 'if' is followed by a predicate marked with the prefix pronoun *le-*). For this reason, it is easier to consider *me a lechub* (just like *e le*) as a single unit. When *me a lechub* connects two clauses, the second one is usually introduced by the connecting word *e* (which reinforces our speculation that *a lechub* might be a condition clause, because condition clauses are always followed by a consequent clause introduced by *e*—see 17.2). Note the following examples:

- | | | |
|---------|--|---|
| (11) a. | A resechal a mo er a che me a lechub e te mo meliich a lius. | ‘The men (either) go fishing, or they go make copra.’ |
| b. | Ke mo er a katsudo me a lechub e ke mo er a party? | ‘Are you (sg.) going to the movies, or are you going to the party?’ |
| c. | Kom merael me a lechub e kom di kiei? | ‘Are you (pl.) leaving, or will you stay?’ |

As (11a–c) illustrate, the two clauses connected by *me a lechub* ‘or’ indicate *alternative* courses of action that the speaker is describing or asking about. Thus, in (11a) the speaker informs us that on any given occasion the sentence subject (*resechal* ‘men’) will carry out one activity or the other (fishing or copra making), but not both. Similarly, in (11b) the questioner expects that the person addressed will choose one of the two alternative activities described—i.e., he will either go to the movies or he will go to the party.

ADDITIONAL USES OF E: SEQUENTIAL TIME

- 23.4. As seen in 23.1.2 above, the connecting word *e* is used in Palauan *conditional sentences* to introduce the *consequent clause*. Because the consequent clause indicates an event, state, etc., that can come about *only if* the event, state, etc., of the preceding condition clause has occurred, the actual time of the consequent clause will necessarily *follow* that of the condition clause. Therefore, the connecting word *e* has a strong *temporal* meaning and corresponds to English ‘and then’ or even ‘and afterwards’. This temporal sense of *e* is reflected in the complex sentences below, which are not conditional sentences like (4a–b), but simply sentences in which one event is asserted to occur after another. Here, we can say that *e* has a *sequential* function because the clause that it introduces always *follows* the preceding clause in real time:

- | | | |
|---------|--|---|
| (12) a. | A Toki a me e mengetmokl er a blai. | ‘Toki comes and (then) cleans the house.’ |
| b. | A mechas a meruul er a kall e merael. | ‘The old woman makes the food and (then) leaves.’ |
| c. | Ak mo luchesii a babier e mo send er ngii. | ‘I will write the letter and (then) send it off.’ |

Although the clause introduced by *e* ‘and then’ in (12a–c) contains no overtly expressed subject, speakers automatically interpret this clause as having a subject identical to that of the preceding clause. Thus, a sentence like (12b) seems to be a condensed form of the following:

- | | | |
|------|---|--|
| (13) | A mechas a meruul er a kall, e a mechas a merael. | ‘The old woman makes the food, and (then) the old woman leaves.’ |
|------|---|--|

While this sentence, with the subject *mechas* in both clauses, is not ungrammatical, most Palauan speakers would transform it into (12b) by deleting the repeated occurrence of *mechas* in the second clause. This process of deletion is only possible, of course, because the subject *mechas* of the second clause is *identical* to that of the first clause. In other words, in sentences like (12a–c) a single subject in the first clause is sufficient for the proper interpretation.

In the sentences below, which happen to involve past time, we also observe the sequential function of *e*. In each situation described, the event of the second clause (introduced by *e*) followed the event of the first clause at a particular point of time in the past:

- | | | |
|---------|---|---|
| (14) a. | Ak dilsengii a ngikel e chiltur. | 'I cut up the fish and (then) smoked it.' |
| b. | A Droteo a dilsechii a mlai e
chilsberberii. | 'Droteo carved the canoe and (then)
painted it.' |
| c. | A Toki a ulemengur e mirrael. | 'Toki had dinner and (then) left.' |
| d. | Ng mirrael a sensei, e ak mlo
mechiuaiu. | 'The teacher left, and (then) I went
to sleep.' |

In (14a–c) the subject of the clause introduced by *e* has been deleted because it is identical to that of the first clause (just as in 12a–c above). In (14d), however, the subject of the second clause (*ak* 'I') cannot be deleted because it is not identical to the subject of the preceding clause (*ng...sensei* 'the teacher').

In all the examples of (14) above, each clause contains a verb in the *past* tense—e.g., in (14a), *dilsengii* and *chiltur* (which are both perfective forms with the infixed past tense marker *-il-*). Now, it is also possible to have sentences like (14a–d) in which the verb of the first clause is in the past tense, but the verb of the second clause introduced by *e* is actually in the *present* tense form. Thus, with (14a–d) compare the following, which for many Palauan speakers are identical in meaning:

- | | | |
|---------|--|---|
| (15) a. | Ak dilsengii a ngikel e chotur. | 'I cut up the fish and (then) smoked it.' |
| b. | A Droteo a dilsechii a mlai e
chosberberii. | 'Droteo carved the canoe and (then)
painted it.' |
| c. | A Toki a ulemengur e merael. | 'Toki had dinner and (then) left.' |
| d. | Ng mirrael a sensei, e ak mo
mechiuaiu. | 'The teacher left, and (then) I went
to sleep.' |

Even though the verb of the second clause in (15a–d) is in the present tense form, any speaker of Palauan knows that it still refers to an event in the past. This is because the past tense meaning of the verb in the first clause is automatically assigned to the "neutral, tenseless" verb form in the second clause. Can you recall another type of Palauan complex sentence in which exactly the same kind of mental "processing" occurs?

Note 1: While many Palauan speakers find no difference in meaning between the sentences of (14) (with the tense sequence *past—past*) vs. those of (15) (with the tense sequence *past—present*), other speakers do seem to make a distinction between them. For these speakers, only the tense sequence *past—past* of (14) involves a sequence of two completed past events, while the tense sequence *past—present* of (15) indicates a completed past event followed by a present ongoing event whose future completion is expected or assumed. Thus, (14b) and (15b) above, repeated here for clarity, would have the different meanings indicated:

- | | | |
|-------|---|--|
| (14b) | A Droteo a dilsechii a mlai e
chilsberberii. | ‘Droteo carved the canoe and (then)
painted it.’ |
| (15b) | A Droteo a dilsechii a mlai e
chosberberii. | ‘Droteo carved the canoe and now he’s
painting it (with the aim of complet-
ing the project).’ |

Use of *E* for Simultaneous Time

23.4.1. In (12–15) above we looked at sentences in which the connecting word *e* ‘and then’ indicates a *sequential* time relationship between the two clauses that it joins. Therefore, in all of those sentences, the clause introduced by *e* designates an event, state, etc., that occurs (or occurred) *after* the event, state, etc., of the preceding clause.

As we will now see below, the Palauan connecting word *e* is not restricted to just indicating a sequential time relationship. In fact, it also occurs quite commonly to indicate a *simultaneous* time relationship, in which case it corresponds to English ‘while’ or ‘and (at the same time)’ rather than ‘and then’. Thus, in the examples below, the first clause and the clause introduced by *e* each designate particular events, states, etc., that are (or were) happening at the same time (i.e., simultaneously):

- | | | |
|------|---|---|
| (16) | a. A Droteo a milluches a babier, e
a Toki a milechiuaiu er a ulaol. | ‘Droteo was writing letters and/while
Toki was sleeping on the floor.’ |
| | b. Ak milenguiu a hong, e a sechelik
a mirruul a kall. | ‘I was reading books and/while my
friend was making food.’ |
| | c. Ak millim a kohi e mesuub. | ‘I was drinking coffee while studying.’ |
| | d. Ngara me ke di dechor e omengur? | ‘Why are you standing up while
eating?’ |
| | e. Ke omengur e mangedecheduch? | ‘(Why) are you eating and talking at
the same time?’ |
| | f. A Droteo a chad er a omenged e
chad er a sers. | ‘Droteo is both a fisherman and a
farmer.’ |

- g. Ng kmal smecher a rubak e metkung. 'The old man is very sick and is about to die.'

In (16a–b) the clauses joined by *e* have different subjects, which of course are overtly expressed, while in (16c–g) the subject of the clause introduced by *e* has been deleted because it is identical to that of the first clause. Do you notice anything interesting about the verb forms in (16c)?

Use of *E* for Contrast

23.4.2. In addition to its use for both sequential and simultaneous time, as seen in 23.4 and 23.4.1 above, the connecting word *e* can be used to express a fairly strong *contrast* between the ideas of the two clauses that it joins. This sense of contrast is very clear in the examples below, where *e* is equivalent to English 'but':

- (17) a. A malk a beot a cheral, e a ngais a meringel a cheral. 'Chickens are cheap, but eggs are expensive.'
- b. A chad er a Merikel a metongakl, e a bechil a kekedeb. 'The American is tall, but his wife is short.'
- c. A sils a ngmasech er a chongos e mo ngmelt er a ngebard. 'The sun rises in the east and/but sets in the west.'

The sentences of (17) are similar to those of (9) above in that the two clauses joined by *e* are parallel in structure. Note that the clause subjects are different in (17a–b), but identical in (17c), where *sils* 'sun' has been omitted from the clause introduced by *e*.

The Expression *E Ng Di*

23.4.3. The connecting word *e* occurs together with the words *ng di* to form *e ng di*, an expression corresponding to English 'but'. Though written as three words and having a literal meaning something like 'and it's just that...', the expression *e ng di* is best considered as a single unit that is used to connect two clauses that are in strong *contrast* with each other. The expression *e ng di* 'but' can substitute for *e* alone in the examples of (17); in addition, it can be used in sentences like the following:

- (18) a. Ng mle soal a Toki el mo er a Guam, e ng di ng mla mo diak a ududel. 'Toki wanted to go to Guam, but her money ran out.'
- b. Ak mlo er a party, e ng di a resehelik a dimlak lsebechir el mong. 'I went to the party, but my friends couldn't go.'
- c. Ak ileko er a blim er a kesus, e ng di ke mle dibus. 'I went to your house last night, but you were out.'

COORDINATE NOUN PHRASES

- 23.5. As we have already seen on many occasions, when two or more nouns or pronouns (more correctly, noun phrases) are joined by the connecting word *me*, we get a *coordinate noun phrase* such as *kau me tir* 'you (sg.) and they', *Droteo me a Toki* 'Droteo and Toki', and so on. Since *coordinate* means 'equal in status or rank', it is proper to use this term for such noun phrases, because each of the items joined by *me* in a coordinate noun phrase functions equally in the sentence. Thus, in the example below, where the coordinate noun phrase *Droteo me a Toki* occurs in *sentence subject* position, each of the nouns connected by *me* serves as subject of the verb *mirruul*:

(19) A Droteo me a Toki a mirruul a kall. 'Droteo and Toki were preparing food.'

Because both *Droteo* and *Toki* serve equally as sentence subject in (19), many linguists would propose that this sentence is a kind of "condensed" structure derived from an original sentence that contains two separate *clauses* joined by *me*. In such a sentence, given below as (20), both clauses would share an identical predicate (*mirruul a kall*) but would have different subjects (*Droteo* vs. *Toki*):

(20) A Droteo a mirruul a kall, me a Toki 'Droteo was preparing food, and Toki
a mirruul a kall. was preparing food.'

Though grammatical, (20) is rather awkward (just like its English equivalent) because each clause contains the same sequence *mirruul a kall* as predicate. For this reason, Palauan speakers normally transform (20) into the shortened, condensed sentence of (19). When this transformation takes place, the non-identical elements in the clauses of (20)—namely, the subjects *Droteo* and *Toki*—are combined into a *coordinate noun phrase* (*Droteo me a Toki*) functioning as sentence subject. At the same time, of course, only a single occurrence of the shared predicate (*mirruul a kall* 'was preparing food') appears after the coordinate noun phrase subject of (19).

Distribution of Coordinate Noun Phrases

- 23.5.1. Because coordinate noun phrases are a type of noun phrase, they of course have the same distributional features as other noun phrases. Thus, while a coordinate noun phrase occurs as sentence subject in (19), a coordinate noun phrase functions as *sentence object* in the example below:

(21) A rengalek er a skuul a ousbech 'The pupils need paper and pencils.'
a babier me a oluches.

In the sentence above, each member of the coordinate noun phrase *babier me a oluches* 'paper and pencils' functions as object of the transitive verb *ousbech* 'to need'. Therefore, just as (19) above was derived from (20), (21) would most likely be derived from (22) below:

- (22) A rengalek er a skuul a ousbech a babier, me a rengalek er a skuul a ousbech a oluches. 'The pupils need paper, and the pupils need pencils.'

Again, because (22) is very awkward due to the repeated elements (this time, the shared subject *rengalek er a skuul* and the shared verb *ousbech*), nearly all Palauan speakers would automatically transform it into (21). During this process of transformation, the only different elements in the clauses of (22)—namely, the object noun phrases *babier* 'paper' and *oluches* 'pencils'—are condensed into a single coordinate noun phrase (*babier me a oluches* 'paper and pencils') serving as sentence object. Since the same subject-verb sequence (*a rengalek er a skuul a ousbech* 'the pupils need') occurs in each clause of (22), this sequence appears only once in the shortened sentence of (21).

The sentences below further illustrate coordinate noun phrases functioning as *sentence subject*:

- (23) a. A rengalek er a skuul me a resensei er tir a mlo er a Guam. 'The students and their teachers went to Guam.'
- b. A blil a Toki me a blil a Satsko a milseseb. 'Toki's house and Satsko's house burned down.'
- c. Kau me ngak a mo er a chei. 'You (sg.) and I will go fishing.'
- d. A Tony me ngak a mlo er a party. 'Tony and I went to the party.'
- e. Ng techa me techa a ulebengkem el mo er a Merikel? 'Who (pl.) went with you to America?'
- f. Ngara me a ngara a chomoruul el kirel a ocheraol? 'What things are you making for the money-raising party?'

In (23c–d) the coordinate noun phrase contains one or two *emphatic pronouns* (see 4.4.4 for further discussion and examples), and in (23e–f) two occurrences of the same *question word* (*techa* 'who?' and *ngara* 'what?') are joined by *me* to form a coordinate noun phrase (see 18.9 for further discussion and examples).

In the examples below, we see further sentences like (21), in which coordinate a noun phrase functions as *sentence object*:

- (24) a. Ak mla menga a diokang me a ngikel me a chemang. 'I've eaten tapioca, fish, and crab.'
- b. Elii, e ak milsa a Droteo me a Toki me a Hermana. 'Yesterday I saw Droteo, Toki, and Hermana.'
- c. Ak milsterir a rengalek er a skuul me a resensei er tir. 'I saw the students and their teachers.'

Although the coordinate noun phrases that function as sentence objects in (24b–c) both involve groups of individuals and are therefore *plural*, the form of the preceding *perfective verb* (*milsa* vs. *milsterir*) is determined by whether the immediately following noun—i.e., the first member of the coordinate noun phrase—is itself singular or plural. Thus, *milsa* ‘saw him/her/it’ (with third person *singular* object pronoun *-a*) is required in (24b) because the first member of the coordinate noun phrase (*Droteo*) is *singular*, while *milsterir* ‘saw them’ (with third person human *plural* object pronoun *-terir*) must occur in (24c) because the first member of the coordinate noun phrase (*rengalek er a skuul* ‘students’) is *plural*.

Finally, the sentences below illustrate how coordinate noun phrases can occur in the third major distributional “slot” commonly filled by noun phrases—namely, following *er* in a *relational phrase*:

- (25) a. Tia a delmerab er a Droteo me a Toki. ‘This is Droteo and Toki’s room.’
 b. Ak mlo mangedub er a Ala Moana me a Waikiki. ‘I went swimming at Ala Moana and Waikiki.’
 c. Kom mlo er ker me ker? ‘What places did you (pl.) go to?’
 d. Ng mlo er a kelebus er oingara me oingarang? ‘On what occasions did he go to jail?’

In each of the examples above, can you identify the type of relational phrase involved? Note also that the relational phrases of (25c–d) contain coordinate noun phrases in which two identical *question words* are joined together (compare 23e–f above, and see 18.9).

Coordinate Noun Phrases and Preposing

23.5.2. In 15.1, 15.2, and 15.2.2, we observed the various ways in which Palauan *post-predicate* coordinate noun phrase subjects can be affected by the process of *preposing*. To review these already familiar processes here, we will simply go through a single example containing a reciprocal verb and its coordinate (compound) subject. Thus, observe the basic sentence below, in which the reciprocal verb *kausechele* ‘be friends with each other’ has a *double subject* consisting of the *pre-predicate non-emphatic pronoun* *te* ‘they’ and the *post-predicate expansion* *Droteo me a Toki*, which happens to be a coordinate noun phrase:

- (26) Te kausechele a Droteo me a Toki. ‘Droteo and Toki are friends with each other.’

To derive additional sentences from (26), we can apply the process of preposing to the post-predicate subject *Droteo me a Toki* in two ways. First, we can prepose the *entire* (coordinate noun phrase) subject to pre-predicate position, where it replaces the original non-emphatic pronoun *te*:

- (27) A Droteo me a Toki a kausechelei. 'Droteo and Toki [**topic**]
—they're friends with each other.'

Second, we have the option of preposing only the *first* member of the coordinate noun phrase (i.e., *Droteo*), resulting in the sentence below:

- (28) A Droteo a kausechele ngii me a Toki. 'Droteo [**topic**]
—he's friends with Toki.'

In this example, *Droteo* alone has been moved to pre-predicate position, where it replaces *te*; furthermore, the *pronoun trace ngii* (i.e., the third person singular *emphatic pronoun*) remains in the grammatical position that the preposed noun *Droteo* previously occupied. The end result is a *coordinate noun phrase* in post-predicate position that consists of an emphatic pronoun (*ngii*) joined by *me* to a full noun (*Toki*).

Coordinate Noun Phrases With *Me A Lechub*

23.5.3. As we saw in 23.3 above, the expression *me a lechub* 'or' is often used to connect two full clauses. This expression can also join two nouns (or noun phrases) as well, resulting in a coordinate noun phrase of the form *A me a lechub B* 'A or B'. This usage is illustrated in the examples below:

- (29) a. A Tony me a lechub a Satsko a mo er a Guam. 'Either Tony or Satsko (but not both) is going to Guam.'
- b. Ng techa a ungil el sensei? 'Who's a better teacher—(is it) Toki or Droteo?'
- Ng Toki me a lechub a Droteo?

LIST OF TERMS

23.6. We list below the important terms covered in this lesson that relate to the topic of connecting words in Palauan:

- **Complex Sentence**
- **Connecting Word (Conjunction)**
- **Reason Clause**
- **Result Clause**
- **Consequent Clause**
- **Preposing of Time Clauses (or Time Words)**
- **Sequential Time**
- **Simultaneous Time**
- **Contrast**
- **Coordinate Noun Phrase**
- **Preposing of Coordinate Noun Phrases**

23.7. CONNECTING WORDS IN PALAUAN: STUDY QUESTIONS

1. Define each of the terms in 23.6 above, giving an example or illustration where possible. Be sure to indicate how the particular term applies to the topic of connecting words in Palauan.
2. What are the various connecting words and expressions in Palauan, together with their English equivalents?
3. What Palauan connecting words serve to introduce reason clauses and result clauses? Give examples of each.
4. What is a consequent clause, and which Palauan connecting word serves to introduce it? Give a clear example.
5. What Palauan connecting word appears when time clauses and time words are preposed? Illustrate each type with a clear example.
6. Illustrate the use of *me* as a connecting word that joins the following elements:
 - (a) two independent clauses which are parallel in structure and present information of equal importance
 - (b) two imperative clauses, the first containing the verb form *bo* 'go' and the second containing a transitive or intransitive action verb
7. What is the meaning and function of the expression *me a lechub*?
8. Illustrate with full sentence examples how the connecting word *e* is used to indicate sequential time in sentences that involve (a) the present tense and (b) the past tense.
9. Why is it acceptable for Palauan clauses introduced by *e* to be "subjectless"?
10. Why is it acceptable for Palauan clauses introduced by *e* to have a verb in the (neutral) present tense form, even though they designate events that took place in the past?
11. Illustrate with full sentence examples how the connecting word *e* is used to indicate simultaneous time in sentences that involve (a) the present tense and (b) the past tense.
12. Give two clear examples each of how *e* and *e ng di* are used for contrast.
13. What is the internal structure and external distribution of Palauan coordinate noun phrases? Give examples to show the three major distributional "slots" in which coordinate noun phrases can occur.

14. Provide two examples of coordinate noun phrases that contain identical question words joined by *me*, and use each of these coordinate noun phrases in a full sentence.
15. How do the processes of preposing apply to a coordinate noun phrase functioning as sentence subject in post-predicate position? Illustrate the two major processes with clear examples.
16. Show with a good example how the expression *me a lechub* can connect nouns (noun phrases) rather than full clauses.

23.8. CONNECTING WORDS IN PALAUAN: EXERCISES

1. Create a complex sentence by adding a clause of the indicated type to the first clause provided. Make sure you use the correct connecting word. Then, translate each entire complex sentence into idiomatic English.
 - a. Ng dimlak kbo er a skuul,...
(Add a **reason clause**)
 - b. Ng kmal mle mekngit a eanged er a elii,...
(Add a **result clause**)
 - c. A kudenge a tekoi er a Siabal,...
(Add a **consequent clause**)
 - d. A lebla er ngii a ududel a Satsko,...
(Add a **consequent clause**)
 - e. Ulekum ak kau,...
(Add a **consequent clause**)
2. Rewrite each of the sentences below by preposing the italicized portion. Be sure to make all necessary grammatical changes.
 - a. Ak kilie er a blil a Toki *er se er a kbo er a Merikel*.
 - b. Te mlo er a mubi a Tony *me a sec helil*.
 - c. Te blechoel el kautoketok a Droteo me a Satsko.
 - d. Te mo mesuub er a Hawaii a *lengar er ngii a ududir*.
 - e. Aki mo er a che *er a eai el klok er a tutau*.
3. Write three original sentences on the model of (9a–e) of 23.2 in which the connecting word *me* 'and' joins two independent clauses that are not only parallel in structure but also present similar types of information. Then, translate your sentences into idiomatic English.

4. Write three original sentences on the model of (10a–c) of 23.2 in which the connecting word *me* 'and' joins two clauses in an imperative sentence. The verb of the first clause should be *bo* 'go'. Then, translate your sentences into idiomatic English.
5. Write two original sentences each in which the connecting expression *me a lechub* 'or' is used to join (a) two independent clauses and (b) two nouns (noun phrases). Then, translate your sentences into idiomatic English.
6. Write three original sentences each in which the connecting word *e* is used to indicate (a) sequential time and (b) simultaneous time. Then, translate your sentences into correct English, being careful to use 'and then' or 'and afterwards' for sequential time and 'while' or 'and at the same time' for simultaneous time.
7. Write three original sentences in which the connecting expression *e ng di* is used to express contrast, and then translate your sentences into idiomatic English.
8. For each of the italicized noun phrases in the sentences below, substitute a *coordinate noun phrase* of your own choosing:
 - a. Tia a sidosia er a *resechelik*.
 - b. A *rengalek* er a *skuul* a sorir el mesuub a ochur.
 - c. A rechad er a Siabal a menga a *beras*.
 - d. Te blechoel el kaucheraro a *rechad* er a *Lukilei*.
 - e. Ngara uchul me ng dimlak leme a *rubak*?

24

THE IMPACT OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES ON PALAUAN

INTRODUCTION: BRIEF MODERN HISTORY OF PALAU

- 24.0.** As you may know from your Palauan history class, Palau has been governed by four different foreign countries during the last one hundred years. These countries have exerted varying degrees of influence on the culture of Palau as well as on the Palauan language.

The first Westerner to view the Palau Islands was the Spanish explorer Ruy López de Villalobos, who in 1543 named them the Arrecifos Islands (related to the Spanish word for “reef”). It is also said that the English explorer Sir Francis Drake visited Palau in 1579. In 1686 the Kingdom of Spain took control of Palau and gradually introduced certain European ideas, especially those related to Christianity (Catholicism, in particular). The presence of Spanish culture lasted until Spain’s defeat in the Spanish-American War. After that defeat, Spain sold Palau in 1899 (together with other Spanish possessions in the Caroline Islands) to Germany. Germany governed Palau briefly until the truce that terminated World War I in 1918.

After World War I, an international organization called the League of Nations granted permission to Japan to govern the Caroline Islands, including Palau, under certain conditions. This permission (technically called a mandate) limited Japan’s activities in the islands and prohibited military development. As Japan continued to pursue its empire-building motives, it withdrew from the League of Nations in 1935 but did not give up its control over Palau and the other mandated islands.

Totally disregarding the terms of the mandate, Japan put Palau and other islands in the Carolines to its own military and economic use. Koror, the principal town of Palau, was made the capital of all the Caroline Islands; and Peleliu (Beleliou) and Angaur (Ngeaur), southwest of Koror, were heavily fortified. Japan’s defeat in World War II (with terrible battles in Beleliou and Angaur, whose reminders you can still see) marked the end of its control over Palau and the Carolines, and on July 19, 1947, the United Nations granted to the United States the right to govern Palau (and other parts of Micronesia). This arrangement, called the Trust Territory of the Pacific, lasted until

some time ago, when certain areas such as the Marshall Islands and the Federated States of Micronesia became independent. Although the last two decades of Palauan politics have been very complicated and full of changes, Palau today still maintains certain aspects of its Trust Territory status.

The presence in Palau of four different alien languages—three from Europe and one from Asia—has certainly had a big impact on the Palauan language itself. Large numbers of words borrowed from Spanish, German, Japanese, and English are used frequently in everyday Palauan speech. As we might expect, most of these *loanwords* represent names for items or ideas originally foreign to Palauan culture. However, quite a few foreign loanwords have come into competition with or even replaced original native words.

Many loanwords from the four languages listed above have been “Palauanized” to some extent—that is, their pronunciation has often been made to conform to the Palauan sound system, they have been subjected to the complex word-formation (derivational) processes found among Palauan nouns and verbs, and they have even been introduced into certain characteristic Palauan grammatical constructions. In addition, though many loanwords have been taken into Palauan without any change in meaning from that in the original language, quite a few others show a rather wide variety of meaning changes and meaning distortion.

Judging from a purely statistical count of loanwords and from the overall application of “Palauanization”, we can conclude that the influence of the Japanese language on Palauan has been the most pervasive, even though Japan had control over Palau for less than thirty years. From the same viewpoints, English comes in second and will certainly continue to have a strong impact on Palauan, while Spanish and German, respectively, show a much weaker influence. The overwhelming influence of Japanese on Palauan is partly due to the fact that Japan introduced the Japanese educational system in Palau, and many people learned how to speak, read, and write fluent Japanese. If you go to the villages of Babeldaob even today, you can find certain *rubak* who can still speak Japanese and write with pre-war Japanese characters!

EFFECT OF LOANWORDS ON THE PALAUAN SOUND SYSTEM

- 24.1. In general, the influx of many foreign words into Palauan has had surprisingly little effect on the sound system of the language. In other words, we observe that loanwords from foreign languages are usually modified or distorted to conform with the sounds

and sound combinations (e.g., consonant or vowel clusters) of Palauan. Often, too, these loanwords undergo phonetic processes such as vowel (or vowel cluster) weakening just as if they were original Palauan stems.

The inventory of Palauan sounds and sound combinations has increased only slightly under the influence of sounds from foreign languages. Most obvious is the appearance of the consonant H (pronounced like “h” of *house* in words of Japanese or English origin), the consonant cluster TS (pronounced like “ts” of *hats* and corresponding to the Japanese or English sounds “ts” or “ch” of *church*), and the sound represented in Palauan spelling by the letter Z (which is usually pronounced like “dz” and corresponds to the Japanese or English sound “j” as in *Jack*).

While older loanwords from Spanish, German, and Japanese have been almost totally absorbed into the Palauan sound system, the more recent borrowings from English do not show the same degree of Palauanization. This is due, first, to the fact that English loanwords represent the newest wave of foreign “intruders” into Palauan and have not been around long enough to get fully absorbed. A second factor, however, is also very important: since so many people in Palau now speak English so well and therefore know the correct pronunciation of a given English word, they often preserve that English-style pronunciation even when the word is used within a Palauan conversation. As you know, it is not at all uncommon to hear people speaking Palauan fluently, but interspersed with certain perfectly-pronounced English words such as “government”, “constitution”, “computer program”, and so on.

In order to illustrate how Palauan reinterprets foreign borrowings in terms of the native sound system, we will now re-examine certain aspects of Palauan consonant and vowel sounds below. Our specific purpose will be to show the range of Palauan sounds (both native and acquired) that occur in loanwords. When necessary, we will make some reference to the sound systems of the contributing languages. Before reading the sections below, you may wish to do a quick review of Lesson One (“How to Spell Palauan”), which provides a basic introduction to the sounds and spelling of Palauan.

USE OF PALAUAN CONSONANTS IN LOANWORDS

- 24.2. Palauan has ten major consonant sounds that are used both in words of native origin and words borrowed from foreign languages. These sounds are listed in the chart below (which we repeat from 1.2.12):

(1)

PALAUAN CONSONANTS

<i>Letter</i>	<i>Pronunciation</i>
B	Eng. "b" or "p"
T	Eng. "t"
D	Eng. "d" or "th" as in both <i>then</i> and <i>thin</i>
K	Eng. "k" or "g"
CH	light explosion of air in throat caused by releasing vocal cords
S	Eng. "s"
M	Eng. "m"
NG	Eng. "ng" as in <i>sing</i> ; Eng. "n"; rarely, "m"
L	Eng. "l"
R	Jp. tapped "r" as in <i>arai</i> ; Eng. tapped "r" spelled <i>tt</i> or <i>dd</i> in <i>matter</i> , <i>ladder</i>

As we will see below, since Palauan has a rather restricted system of consonants, certain consonant sounds in borrowed words get quite distorted when they are "matched" to the closest native Palauan pronunciation.

B and M in Loanwords

24.2.1. When the sounds "b", "p", and "m" occur in words borrowed from foreign languages, they are represented in Palauan by the letters B and M. The borrowing of M is very straightforward, as indicated below (note the abbreviations Sp., Ger., Jp., and Eng. for the four languages that have contributed vocabulary to Palauan):

(2)	<i>Loan Source</i>	<i>Palauan</i>
Sp.	maíz 'corn'	mais
	medalla 'religious medal'	medalia
Ger.	Maschine 'machine, motor'	mesil
	Turm 'tower'	turm 'steeple'
Jp.	mado 'window'	mado
	maguro 'tuna'	manguro
Eng.	movie	mubi
	rum	rrom 'liquor'

Note 1: For Spanish, German, and English, the *loan source*—i.e., the word in the original language—is given in the modern spelling system of that language. In Spanish, an accented vowel such as *í* simply means that the syllable containing that vowel is stressed.

For Japanese, we use the Western-style spelling system (“Romanization”) that is found in Kenkyuusha’s *New Japanese-English Dictionary* (edited by Koh Masuda, 4th edition, Tokyo, 1974). This system presents a phonetic spelling of Japanese syllables using the equivalent letters from the English alphabet. Thus, we represent various consonant-initial syllables from Japanese as *sha*, *shi*, *shu*, *sho*, *cha*, *chi*, *chu*, *cho*, *tsu*, *ja*, *ji*, *ju*, *jo*, and so on.

Differing somewhat from the system used in the Kenkyuusha dictionary, we indicate all Japanese long vowels with a double letter (similar to our method in Palauan). Thus, in certain Japanese words we will find OO for *long O*, UU for *long U*, etc. Just like Palauan, double consonants in Japanese are spelled double (e.g., TT, PP, etc.). Finally, in our Romanization of Japanese, the letter N stands for a syllable-final consonant that changes its pronunciation depending on the pronunciation of the immediately following consonant. Thus, Japanese *shinpai* ‘worry’ sounds like “shimpai” with an M before the P, *kankei* ‘relationship’ sounds like “kangkei” with an NG before the K, and *sensei* ‘teacher’ simply sounds like “sensei”, with a regular N pronunciation before the S.

In word-final position, Japanese N sounds something like “ng” (but not as strong as word-final “ng” in English *sing*), as in *hon* ‘book’, which sounds like “hong”.

Note 2: For all loan source words that come from Spanish, German, and Japanese, we give the meaning in the original native language. If that meaning has not changed in Palauan, nothing is indicated after the Palauan equivalent. Thus, for example, Palauan *mais* maintains the same meaning as the original Spanish *matz* ‘corn’, and *mesil* means the same in Palauan as the original German *Maschine* ‘machine’. If, however, there has been some change of meaning, it will be indicated with the Palauan word. Thus, while *Turm* is a general word in German referring to any kind of tower, Palauan *turm* now specifically refers to a church steeple. Just the opposite type of meaning shift occurs when we observe that English *rum*, a specific type of liquor, has taken on the general meaning of any type of liquor in Palauan *rrom*.

When the sounds “b” and “p” (and even “f” and “v”) occur in the loan source, they are “Palauanized” and pronounced according to the rules for the letter B described in 1.2.1. These pronunciation rules for B are reviewed below:

- (3) a. At the beginning of a word (i.e., word-initially) before an L or any vowel, B is pronounced like English “b”: *blai* ‘house’, *beot* ‘easy’, etc.
- b. Inside a word (i.e., word-internally) between two vowels, B is also just like English “b”: *rubak* ‘old man’.
- c. Right next to another consonant (except L) anywhere in the word, B is pronounced like English “p”: *btar* ‘swing’ (sounds like “ptar”), *tbak* ‘my saliva’ (sounds like “tpak”), etc.
- d. At the very end of a word (i.e., word-finally) after a vowel, B is also pronounced like English “p”: *tub* ‘saliva’ (sounds like “tup”).

Here are some fairly long lists of borrowed words from Spanish, German, Japanese, and English in which the loan source contains any of the consonant sounds “b”, “p”, “f”, or “v”. In all cases, these sounds will be spelled with the Palauan letter B:

(4)	<i>Spanish</i>	
	<i>Loan Source</i>	<i>Palauan</i>
	padre ‘priest’	badre
	Pascua ‘Easter’	Baskua
	plato ‘plate, dish’	belatong
	purgatorio ‘purgatory’	burkatorio
	trompeta ‘trumpet, bugle’	trombetang
	bandera ‘flag, banner’	bangderang
	barril ‘barrel’	barrill
	Biblia ‘Bible’	Biblia
	botella ‘bottle’	butiliang
	diablo ‘devil’	diablong
	calabaza ‘pumpkin’	kal(e)basang
	calabozo ‘dungeon, cell’	kelebus ‘jail, prison’
	sábado ‘Saturday’	sebadong
	cebolla(s) ‘onions’	sebulias
	farol ‘lantern’	baror ‘table lamp’
	virhén ‘virgin’	birhen

Note 3: In the Palauan form *barrill*, the final L of Spanish *barril* has been unexpectedly lengthened. In addition, note that the Spanish plural form *cebollas* has been reinterpreted in Palauan as a singular. Another interesting example is the Palauan word *bostol* 'apostle' from Spanish *apóstol*. Perhaps Palauan speakers analyzed the Spanish loan source as *a + postol*, thinking that *a* was the independent Palauan word that marks all nouns and that *postol* was the actual form in Spanish. One final example of interest is the Palauan noun *Sebangiol* 'Spain', which comes from the Spanish adjective *español* 'Spanish'. In this word, the initial vowel E of the Spanish form has been dropped and a *weak E* has been inserted between S and B of the Palauan word, probably to avoid a rather rare Palauan word-initial consonant cluster SB-.

(5)	<i>German</i>		<i>Palauan</i>
	<i>Loan Source</i>		<i>Palauan</i>
	Papier 'paper, document'		babier 'paper, letter, book'
	Post 'post office'		bost
	Kapitän 'captain'		kabitei
	Lampe 'lamp, lantern'		lambei
	Schlips 'necktie'		slibs
	Brief 'letter'		berib
	Bild 'picture'		bilt 'holy picture'
	Schraube 'screw'		seraub
	Tafel 'blackboard'		taber
	Fenster 'window'		bengster
	Grammophon 'phonograph'		karmobol
	Maschinengewehr 'machine gun'		mesilkebie
	auswendig 'by heart'		chausbengdik 'to memorize'

Note 4: In German spelling, W stands for the sound "v". Thus, in the last two examples, we see that the "v" of *Gewehr* ("gever") becomes B in Palauan *kebie*, and similarly the "v" of *auswendig* ("ausvendik") becomes B in Palauan *chausbengdik*.

(6)	<i>Loan Source</i>	<i>Japanese</i>	<i>Palauan</i>
	bunpoo 'grammar'		bumbo
	denpoo 'telegram'		dembo
	hinpyookai 'exhibition, fair'		himbiokai
	kenpei 'military police'		kembei 'police'
	senpuuki 'electric fan'		sembuki
	bara 'rose'		bara
	bengoshi 'lawyer'		bengngos
	bun 'minute, part'		bung
	ashiba 'scaffolding'		chasiba
	dobu 'ditch'		dobu
	kyabu 'carburetor'		kiab

Note 5: The Japanese word *kyabu*, which is an abbreviation of the longer word *kyaburetaa*, is itself a loanword in Japanese that comes from English *carburetor*. Quite a large number of Palauan loanword items can be traced through Japanese, from which they were directly borrowed, back to their ultimate English source. We can easily identify such items because their pronunciation had already been "Japanized" before it was Palauanized:

- a. Pal. and Jp. *bando* 'belt' from Eng. *band*
- b. Pal. *berangu* 'spark plug' and Jp. *puragu* 'plug' from Eng. *plug*
- c. Pal. and Jp. *kanaria* 'canary' from Eng. *canary*
- d. Pal. and Jp. *masku* 'mask' from Eng. *mask*
- e. Pal. *merikengko* 'flour' and Jp. *merikenko* 'flour' from Eng. *American* + Jp. *ko* 'powder'
- f. Pal. *ranninggu* 'athletic shirt' and Jp. *ranningu* 'athletic shirt' from Eng. *running (shirt)*
- g. Pal. *razieta* 'radiator' and Jp. *rajietaa* 'radiator' from Eng. *radiator*

However, in other cases, it is very hard to determine whether a given loanword in Palauan was borrowed from Japanese (which at some earlier point had borrowed it from English) or directly from its original English source. A few words in this group are given here:

continued on next page

Note 5 continued

- h. Pal. *batteri* from Jp. *batterii* or Eng. *battery*
- i. Pal. *chea* from Jp. *ea* or Eng. *air*
- j. Pal. *dainamo* from Jp. *dainamo* or Eng. *dynamo*
- k. Pal. *saireng* from Jp. *sairen* or Eng. *siren*

(7)	<i>English</i>	
	<i>Loan Source</i>	<i>Palauan</i>
	pipe	baeb
	piston	bistong
	present	bresengt
	aspirin	chasbering
	hospital	osbitar
	company	kombalii
	sheep	sib
	box	baks
	beer	biang
	bishop	bisob
	club	klab
	table	tebel
	flour	blauang 'bread'
	office	obis
	softball	sabtblol
	valve	barb
	veranda	berangdang
	glove	kurob
	navy	neibi
	shovel	sebel

To summarize what we have said above, when any foreign word containing the sounds "b", "p", "f", or "v" is borrowed into Palauan, those sounds are pronounced as the proper phonetic variant of Palauan B, as indicated in the rules of (3). Thus, even though *padre* 'priest' of (4) begins with a "p" sound in Spanish, this sound is spelled B and pronounced "b" in Palauan *badre*, in accordance with rule (3a). In addition, a

word like *Brief* of (5) ends with an “f” sound in German, but when borrowed into Palauan as *berib*, this “f” is spelled B and pronounced “p” (i.e., “berip”) in accordance with rule (3d).

There are, of course, a few exceptions to the summary statement we have just made above. Thus, in several loanwords from English, the sound “f” is not changed into Palauan B but instead remains as “f”. Palauan words showing this “innovative” pronunciation are spelled with the letter F, as in *fengda* ‘fender’ and *taifun* ‘typhoon’ (which is also unusual because the final sound in Palauan is “n” rather than the expected “ng”). In addition, both “p” sounds of Spanish *Papa* ‘Pope’ are also pronounced “p” in Palauan (even though “b” would be expected in these positions—see rules 3a–b above). To highlight this irregularity, we have chosen to spell this word with the letter P in Palauan—namely, *Papa*. Finally, a double P sound in a Japanese word like *nappa* ‘greens (a kind of vegetable)’ is maintained as such and spelled PP in the Palauan form *nappa*.

T and D in Loanwords

24.2.2. When the sounds “t” and “d” occur in words borrowed from foreign languages, they are usually represented, respectively, as Palauan T and D. As noted in 1.2.2, Palauan T is pronounced almost like English “t”, regardless of whether it is in word-initial, word-internal, or word-final position (with the additional feature of a strong puff of air in word-final position—see *Note 4* of 1.2.2). By contrast, Palauan D is pronounced in various ways, according to the rules below (see 1.2.3):

- (8) a. Word-initially before a vowel, word-internally, and word-finally, D is pronounced like the English “th” of words like *the*, *then*, and *that*: *daob* ‘ocean’, *medal* ‘his/her face’, *bad* ‘stone’. In addition, many Palauan speakers pronounce word-initial D before a vowel just like English “d” of *day*.
- b. Word-initially before a consonant (i.e., as part of certain consonant clusters), D is pronounced either like the English “th” of words like *thin*, *thought*, and *thrill*, or simply like a weak “t”: *dmak* ‘together’, *dngod* ‘tattoo’.

The rules given above for pronouncing Palauan T and D will apply regularly in the various loanwords below. Note also that double T (spelled TT) is allowed in a few loanwords from Japanese:

(9)	Spanish	
	<i>Loan Source</i>	<i>Palauan</i>
	adiós ‘good-bye’	adios
	diablo ‘devil’	diablong
	sandía ‘type of watermelon’	sangdiang
	soldado ‘soldier’	soldau

Note 6: The loss in Palauan of the second D of Spanish *soldado* is probably due to the fact that a Spanish D between vowels is so weak as to seem inaudible to non-native speakers.

(10)	<i>German</i>	
	<i>Loan Source</i>	<i>Palauan</i>
	Turm 'tower'	turm 'steeple'
	Post 'post office'	bost
	Rad ("rat") 'bicycle'	rrat
	Schwester 'nun, sister'	suester

Note 7: Although spelled with a D in German, the final sound of *Rad* 'bicycle' is actually pronounced like "t" by German speakers. Therefore, this word was heard by Palauans as "rat" and spelled accordingly with a final T. A similar feature is found for German *Bild* 'picture' listed in (5) above. Because this word is actually pronounced "bilt" in German, the same pronunciation was maintained in Palauan *bilt* 'holy picture'. Going back to German *Rad* vs. Palauan *rrat*, note that the very strong (guttural) German word-initial R has been adopted into Palauan as a double R (spelled RR).

(11)	<i>Japanese</i>	
	<i>Loan Source</i>	<i>Palauan</i>
	tane 'seed'	tane
	ten 'point, grade'	teng
	tosen 'ferry boat'	toseng
	bentoo 'box lunch'	bento
	amate iru '(be) left over, plenty'	chamatter
	dai 'platform'	dai
	doitsu 'Germany'	Dois
	bakudan 'bomb'	bakudang

(12)	<i>English</i>	
	<i>Loan Source</i>	<i>Palauan</i>
	bucket	baket
	court	kort
	store	stoang
	time	taem
	dance	dangs
	bid	bid 'auction'
	(re)bound	bangd

Note 8: A small number of exceptional cases appear among English loanwords where English word-final (or sometimes word-initial) “d” is reinterpreted as Palauan T (rather than D). For example, we find Pal. *bet* from Eng. *bed*, Pal. *kat* from Eng. (*playing*) *card*, Pal. *kolt* from Eng. *gold*, Pal. *rot* from Eng. *rod*, and Pal. *toktang* from Eng. *doctor*. Two other unusual examples are Pal. *bos* from Eng. *boat* (where Eng. “t” has become Pal. S) and Pal. *ballas* from Eng. *ballast* (where the Eng. word-final consonant cluster has been simplified).

S in Loanwords

24.2.3. When the sound “s” occurs in words borrowed from other languages, it will be pronounced and spelled as Palauan S, which has no variants and closely resembles English “s”:

(13)	<i>Loan Source</i>	<i>Palauan</i>
Sp.	Dios ‘God’	dios
	cruz ‘cross’	kerus
	gracia ‘grace’	krasia
	santo ‘saint’	sangto
Ger.	Fenster ‘window’	bengster
Jp.	sao ‘pole, rod’	sao ‘fishing pole’
	sensei ‘teacher’	sensei
	sumi ‘charcoal’	sumi
	bussooge ‘hibiscus’	bussonge
Eng.	school	skuul
	sauce	sos
	police	bulis

When Japanese words containing the sound “z” in the syllables *za*, *zu*, *ze*, and *zo* are borrowed into Palauan, this “z” is often pronounced and spelled as Palauan S, since Palauan itself has no original “z” sound. While some older Palauan speakers who know Japanese still maintain the “z” pronunciation in Palauan, almost everyone else uses “s” in the words below:

(14)

	Japanese	
	<i>Loan Source</i>	<i>Palauan</i>
	zuga ‘drawing, picture’	sunga
	zubon ‘pants, trousers’	subong
	zurui ‘sly, foxy’	surui
	zoori ‘rubber thongs’	sori
	zeitaku ‘luxurious’	seitak
	haizara ‘ashtray’	haisara
	kanzume ‘canned goods’	kansume
	kizu ‘injury, scar’	kisu

A small number of English loanwords containing the “z” sound also show a change to Palauan S—e.g., Pal. *bresengt* from Eng. *present* (pronounced in Eng. like “prezent”), Pal. *hos* from Eng. *hose* (“hoz”), and Pal. *kiis* from Eng. *keys* (“kiz”). This last example is quite interesting because *kiis* is used in Palauan as a singular word although its English loan source is obviously plural.

Because the native sound system of Palauan does not have a sound like the “sh” of English *ship*, Palauan substitutes the nearest phonetic equivalent—namely, S. As indicated in the examples below, this “sh” sound is spelled *sh* in English and *sch* in German, and it also occurs in the Japanese syllables *sha*, *shi*, *shu*, and *sho*:

(15)

	<i>Loan Source</i>	<i>Palauan</i>
Ger.	Schrank ‘cupboard, shelf’	serangk
	Schraube ‘screw’	seraub
	Schlips ‘necktie’	slibs
	Maschine ‘machine’	mesil
Jp.	shashin ‘photo’	siasing
	shina ‘China’	Sina
	shoobai ‘business’	siobai
	shuukan ‘custom, habit’	siukang
	shiken ‘test, exam’	skeng
	basho ‘place, locality’	basio

	haisha 'dentist'	haisia
	mushiba 'cavity'	mushiba
Eng.	shovel	sebel
	sheep	sib
	bishop	bisob
	Marshall (Islands)	marsial

Note 9: In the first two examples from German, Palauan inserts a weak E between the consonants S and R in order to prevent the unacceptable consonant cluster SR. Oddly enough, in the next example—Ger. *Schlips* vs. Pal. *slibs*—Palauan allows the word-initial consonant cluster SL, even though it never occurs in native Palauan words. Note, further, that except for Jp. *shiken* vs. Pal. *skeng*, all Japanese syllables starting with the “sh” sound become SI in Palauan. Finally, because the original Japanese pronunciation of *shiken* involves a nearly silent vowel between the “sh” and the “k” sounds (i.e., in Japanese it sounds like “shkeng”), the Palauan equivalent *skeng* also shows no vowel.

Appearance of TS and Z in Palauan

24.2.3.1. Many loanwords have come into Palauan that have their source in Japanese words containing the sounds “ch” as in *church* and “j” as in *just*. The influence of “ch”, which occurs in the Japanese syllables *cha*, *chi*, *chu*, and *cho*, is important in Palauan because it has resulted in the use of a new consonant cluster TS (pronounced like “ts” of English *cats*) that never before occurred in Palauan. This new consonant cluster, a combination of the native Palauan consonants T and S, is shown in the examples below:

(16)	<i>Japanese</i>	
	<i>Loan Source</i>	<i>Palauan</i>
	chooshi 'condition, state'	tsios
	chuubu '(inner) tube'	tsiub(u)
	chuii (suru) 'be careful'	tsiui
	bakuchi 'gambling'	bakutsi
	ochiru 'fall, fail (exam)'	otsir
	denchi 'battery'	dents(i)
	kimochi 'feeling'	kimots
	machi 'town, city'	mats(i) 'capital, main town'
	kechi 'stingy'	kets
	moochoo 'appendix'	motsio 'appendicitis'

Note 10: Except at the end of a word, all Japanese syllables starting with the “ch” sound become TSI in Palauan. Because the Japanese vowel I is almost silent word-finally after the “ch” sound, this vowel is usually optionally or obligatorily dropped in the Palauan equivalents (e.g., *dents* or *dentsi*, *kimots*, *kets*, and so on).

There are also a few English words with “ch” that have been borrowed into Palauan with the expected “ts” sound: Eng. *chocolate* and Pal. *tsiokholet* (note the double K), Eng. (*beer*) *chaser* and Pal. *tesa*, Eng. *chewing gum* and Pal. *tsuingam*, and so on. Many younger speakers with a good knowledge of English, however, will simply repeat “ch” when pronouncing these words in a Palauan context.

The influence of the sound “j”, found in the Japanese syllables *ja*, *ji*, *ju*, and *jo*, is also important in Palauan because it has resulted in the development of an entirely new consonant Z, which is pronounced something like the “dz” of English *fads*. Recall that the “z” sound of Japanese (and English) is taken into Palauan as “s” (see the examples of 14 above), which seems to indicate that the Palauan sound system has no place for “z”. Yet this very same “z” sound (spelled Z in the examples below) is in fact introduced as the equivalent of Japanese “j”!

(17)	<i>Japanese</i>	
	<i>Loan Source</i>	<i>Palauan</i>
	jakki ‘(car) jack’	ziakki
	juu ‘gun, rifle’	ziu
	neji ‘screw’	nezi
	aji ‘flavor, taste’	chazi
	benjo ‘toilet’	benzio
	daijoobu ‘all right, OK’	daiziob

Note 11: All Japanese syllables starting with the “j” sound become ZI in Palauan. Note that because the Japanese vowel I is *not* silent word-finally after the “j” sound (in contrast with what we observed in *Note 10* above), it is always maintained in this position in the Palauan equivalents.

In (16) above, we saw examples in which the “ch” sound of Japanese becomes “ts” (also spelled TS) in Palauan. Since Japanese itself also contains the sound “ts” (exclusively in the syllable TSU), it is not surprising that this sound too is directly adopted into Palauan as TS. This is illustrated in the examples below:

(18)	<i>Japanese</i>	
	<i>Loan Source</i>	<i>Palauan</i>
	tsubame 'barn swallow'	tsubame
	tsunami 'tidal wave'	tsunami
	himitsu 'secret'	himits
	katsuo 'bonito'	katsuo
	nimotsu 'baggage'	nimots
	dokuritsu (suru) 'become independent'	dokurits 'independent'
	utsusu 'take (photo of)'	chuts(i)us

Note 12: The vowel U of the Japanese syllable TSU is nearly silent in word-final position. For this reason, Palauan equivalents such as *himits*, *nimots*, etc., do not keep the U either.

A few English words containing the "ts" sound are also taken into Palauan with "ts": Eng. *outs* (in baseball) and Pal. *chauts* or Eng. *doughnuts* and Pal. *donats* (note that in both cases, Palauan has reinterpreted the English plural form as a singular).

In the very complex area of loanwords that we are discussing here, it is not unusual to find a number of glaring exceptions or irregularities. Thus, for example, we find a certain number of cases in which the loan source has the sounds "ch" or "j", but instead of adopting these as the expected TS or Z, Palauan has changed them into the simpler native sound "s". This can be seen in such words as Pal. *kusarang* (from Sp. *cuchara* 'spoon'), Pal. *suklatei* 'cocoa tree' (from Sp. *chocolate* 'chocolate'), Pal. *sidosia* (from Jp. *jidoosha* 'auto'), Pal. *sikang* (from Jp. *jikan* 'hour'), Pal. *iings* (from Eng. *inch* or *hinge*), and Pal. *mases* 'match (sg.)' (from Eng. *matches*). Another interesting exception is Jp. *doitsu* 'Germany', in which the original "ts" pronunciation of Japanese is not maintained in Palauan, but simplified to "s" in Pal. *Dois*.

K in Loanwords

24.2.4. When the sounds "k" and "g" occur in words borrowed from other languages, they become the proper phonetic variant of the Palauan letter K. Thus, as noted in 1.2.4, Palauan K follows the pronunciation rules below:

(19) a. Word-initially and word-finally, K sounds like the "k" of English *Kathy* or *clock* (with the additional feature of a strong puff of air in word-final position—see Note 7 of 1.2.4): *klou* 'big', *brak* 'taro', etc.

- b. Between vowels within a word, K is pronounced like English “g”: *mekeald* ‘hot’, *rekas* ‘mosquito’, etc.
- c. Within a word next to another consonant, K is normally pronounced “k”: *lotkii* ‘remembers it’, *milkolk* ‘dark’, etc.

The following examples show loanwords from Spanish, German, Japanese, and English that contain a “k” or “g” sound in the original language (with the “k” sound often represented by C or CK in Spanish and English spelling):

(20)	<i>Loan Source</i>	<i>Palauan</i>
Sp.	carro ‘pushcart, wagon’	karrong
	católico ‘Catholic’	katolik
	Pascua ‘Easter’	baskua
	manteca ‘lard’	mangtekang
	gracia ‘grace’	krasia
Ger.	iglesia ‘church’	ikelesia
	Kapitän ‘captain’	kabitei
	Mark ‘mark (unit of money)’	mak ‘fifty cents’
	Schrank ‘cupboard, shelf’	serangk
Jp.	Gummi ‘rubber’	kumi
	kai ‘shell’	kai
	kakine ‘fence’	kakine
	garasu ‘glass’	karas
	ginkoo ‘bank’	kingko
Eng.	gomen ‘pardon me’	komeng
	clock	klok ‘clock, o’clock’
	cake	keik
	tank	tangk
	guitar	kita
	glove	kurob
	bucket	baket

N and NG in Loanwords

24.2.5. When the sounds “n” and “ng” occur in words borrowed from other languages, they are taken into Palauan in a wide variety of ways, all of which we will examine in the sections below. First of all, recall that the actual sound “n” is itself very restricted in native Palauan words, since it occurs only as a variant of NG before the small group of consonants T, D, S, and R (see 1.2.8), as in *ng til* ‘it’s her purse’ (sounds like “ntil”), *ngduul* ‘mangrove clam’ (sounds like “nduul”), *iungs* ‘island’ (sounds like “iuns”), and *ongraol* ‘starchy food’ (sounds like “onraol”). In almost all other situations, Palauan NG is pronounced like the “ng” of English *sing*, as in *ngau* ‘fire’, *ongos* ‘east’, and *meleng* ‘to borrow’. All of these details will be reviewed thoroughly in 24.2.5.2 below.

Because the “n” sound is therefore quite marginal within the Palauan phonetic system, it is not surprising that it was avoided altogether when early loanwords containing “n” were adopted into Palauan from Spanish and German. Thus, when the words below were taken into Palauan, the “n” (or “ny” represented by Spanish ñ) was reinterpreted as the consonant L:

(21)	Loan Source	Palauan
Sp.	cajón ‘box, chest’	kahol ‘wooden box, coffin’
	cañón ‘cannon’	kaliol
	campana ‘bell’	kambalang
	Marianas ‘Marianas Islands’	Marialas
Ger.	Maschine ‘machine’	mesil
	Grammophon ‘phonograph’	karmobol

Spread of the “n” Sound in Palauan

24.2.5.1. In contrast with the “n” → L change illustrated above, we can also find a few examples of loanwords from Spanish in which an “n” sound preceding a vowel (or occurring in word-final position) was adopted as “n” in Palauan as well. Thus, we can observe the beginning of a trend in which the Palauan sound system gradually “accepted” the “n” sound in certain environments—most importantly, directly before a vowel—beyond the original very limited environment preceding the consonants T, D, S, and R. When spelling words of this “innovating” type, we will use the letter N alone (rather than NG), as in Pal. *keristiano* (from Sp. *cristiano* ‘Christian’), Pal. *komunion* (from Sp. *comuni6n* ‘Holy Communion’), and Pal. *korona* (from Sp. *corona* ‘crown’).

With the large influx of Japanese vocabulary during the Japanese times, the “n” sound before vowels became more firmly established as a possible Palauan articulation, and this situation has continued unchanged through the present period of borrowings

from English. In the list below, we observe loanwords from Japanese and English in which “n” before a vowel in the original language has been adopted directly into Palauan and spelled with N alone:

(22)	<i>Loan Source</i>	<i>Palauan</i>
Jp.	nasu ‘eggplant’	nas
	nikibi ‘pimple, acne’	nikibi
	negi ‘green onion’	nengi
	nori ‘glue, paste, starch’	nori
	okane ‘money’	okane
	tane ‘seed’	tane
	abunai ‘dangerous’	chabunai
Eng.	navy	neibi
	nurse	nurs
	gardenia	kadenia
	tennis	tenis

You will notice that because of borrowings like those above, Palauan now has a contrast between the “ng” and “n” sounds in certain positions of the word. Thus, for example, the native Palauan word *ngas* ‘ironwood (a type of tree)’, spelled with NG and pronounced “ngas”, must be differentiated from the borrowed word *nas* ‘eggplant’, spelled with N alone and pronounced “nas”.

Note 13: Although most English words with “n” before a vowel are borrowed into Palauan with “n” as well, as shown in (22) above, a few indeed follow the earlier pattern in which “n” is reinterpreted as Palauan L, as in Pal. *lambang* (from Eng. *number*), Pal. *kombalii* (from Eng. *company*), and Pal. *Lukilei* (from Eng. *New Guinea*).

Review of Phonetic Variants of NG

24.2.5.2. In most cases, when the sounds “n” and “ng” occur in words borrowed from other languages, they become the proper phonetic variant of the Palauan consonant NG. Although we have already touched upon the phonetic features of NG above and in 1.2.8, it will be useful to summarize the relevant ones below:

- (23) a. Before a vowel word-initially or word-internally, NG sounds like “ng”: *ngau* ‘fire’, *ungil* ‘good’.
- b. Word-finally, NG also sounds like “ng”: *rekung* ‘land crab’.

- c. Before the consonants T, D, S, and R, NG sounds like “n” (see the examples in the first paragraph of 24.2.5 above).
- d. Before any consonant other than T, D, S, and R (i.e., before K, L, CH, and M), NG exhibits the more usual “ng” pronunciation: *ngklem* ‘your name’, *nglatech* ‘cleaned’, *Ngchesar* (village in E. Babeldaob), *ngmasech* ‘to climb, rise’.

If the loan source itself contains an “n” sound before sounds like “t”, “d”, “s”, and “r” (and even “ch” of *church* or “j” of *just*), then the Palauan equivalent maintains the “n” pronunciation as well, in accordance with rule (23c) above. As a result of the way our rules for spelling Palauan have developed, this “n” pronunciation is spelled NG in borrowings from Spanish, German, and English, *but spelled only as N in loanwords from Japanese!* Although we may decide to eliminate this confusion and further revise Palauan spelling in the future (some Palauans are already using N alone in words from English), you should keep this difference in mind when examining the loanwords below:

(24)	<i>Loan Source</i>	<i>Palauan</i>
Sp.	bandera ‘flag, banner’	bangderang
	manta ‘black cloth’	mangtang ‘woolen blanket, cotton’
	santo ‘(male) saint’	sangto
Ger.	Fenster ‘window’	bengster
	auswendig ‘by heart’	chausbengdik ‘to memorize’
Eng.	pound	bongd
	dance	dangs
	inch, hinge	iings
	ground	kurangd ‘playground’
	Sunday	sangdei ‘Sunday, week’
Jp.	bentoo ‘box lunch’	bento
	denchi ‘battery’	dents(i)
	ensoku ‘picnic, outing’	ensok
	mondai ‘problem’	mondai
	sensei ‘teacher’	sensei
	ninjin ‘carrot’	ninzin ‘type of sweet potato’

If the loan source contains an “ng” sound (spelled N in German and English and in the Japanese Romanization system we are using!) before the sound “k”, then the Palauan equivalent will maintain the “ng” pronunciation of NG, in accordance with rule (23d) above. In all the examples below, the “ngk” pronunciation for the letters NGK is very natural in Palauan:

(25)	<i>Loan Source</i>	<i>Palauan</i>
Ger.	Geschenk 'gift'	sengk 'gift on child's first birthday'
	Schrank 'cupboard, shelf'	serangk
Jp.	denki 'electricity'	dengki
	hankachi 'handkerchief'	hangkats
	hoosenka 'garden balsam'	hosengka
	kankei 'relationship'	kangkei
	kankoodan 'tourist group'	kangkodang 'tourist'
	katorisenko 'mosquito coil'	katorisengko
Eng.	bank	bangk
	monkey (card game)	mongkii
	soft drink	sobdringk
	tank	tangk
	trunk	torangk

Note 14: In borrowing the German word *Geschenk*, Palauans omitted the first syllable *ge-* and gave the word a specialized meaning. A further example worth mentioning here is English *sunglasses*, which has been borrowed into Palauan as *sangklas* (with loss of the English plural ending). Even though the word is pronounced with an "n" sound in English—i.e., *sun* still keeps its independence as part of the compound word *sunglasses*—in Palauan the equivalent sound is pronounced "ng" because of the directly following K.

Word-final NG in Loanwords

24.2.5.3. As indicated in *Note 1* of 24.2.1 above, the sound that we represent by word-final N in our Romanization system of Japanese is something like "ng" but not as strong as the word-final "ng" of English *sing*. If the Japanese loan source contains this word-final N, it is always borrowed into Palauan as word-final NG, pronounced "ng" in accordance with rule (23b) above. Here is a group of typical examples:

(26)	<i>Japanese</i>	
	<i>Loan Source</i>	<i>Palauan</i>
	barikan 'hair clippers'	barikang
	byooin 'hospital'	bioing
	botan 'button'	botang
	bun 'minute, part'	bung
	daikon 'radish'	daikong
	yoochien 'kindergarten'	iotsieng

sen 'line, wire'	seng
udon 'noodles'	udong
kaaten 'curtain'	kateng

Note that because Jp. *bun* 'minute, part' gets borrowed into Palauan as *bung*, with word-final NG, this word will sound the same as the native Palauan word *bung* 'flower'.

If a loan source from English has a word-final "n" sound (always spelled N), then it will also be borrowed into Palauan with word-final NG ("ng"), as in the examples below:

(27)	<i>English</i>	
	<i>Loan Source</i>	<i>Palauan</i>
	piston	bistong
	aspirin	chasbering
	drum (can)	deromukang 'water drum'
	home run	homrang
	sign	saing

In the examples of (26) and (27) above, we have seen that Palauan word-final NG often comes from a similar word-final consonant in the Japanese or English loan source. In addition, we find many cases in which Palauan *adds* word-final NG even when the loan source has no such word-final consonant and in fact ends in a vowel (or, for English, the consonant R). This added NG occurs in particular when the loan source is Spanish or English, as indicated in the lists below:

(28)	<i>Loan Source</i>	<i>Palauan</i>
Sp.	bandera 'flag, banner'	bangderang
	plato 'dish, plate'	belatong
	botella 'bottle'	butiliang
	diablo 'devil'	diablong
	martillo 'hammer'	martiliong
	Misa 'Mass'	Misang
Eng.	veranda	berangdang
	beer	biang
	flour	blauang 'bread'
	master	mastang
	store	stoang
	doctor	toktang
	number	lambang

Most of the English loan source words of (28) end in an “r” sound, which is lost in Palauan and replaced by word-final NG. A few exceptional cases exist in which Palauan does *not* add a word-final NG—e.g., Pal. *boteto* (from Eng. *potato*) and Pal. *tsesa* (from Eng. *chaser*).

As we have already seen, many Japanese loan source words end in the vowels A, O, and U, but unlike the Spanish and English examples of (28) above, the Palauan equivalent does *not* add a word-final NG. Thus, we have examples like Pal. *bara* (from Jp. *bara* ‘rose’), Pal. *kita* (from Jp. *gita* ‘guitar’), Pal. *mado* (from Jp. *mado* ‘window’), Pal. *basio* (from Jp. *basho* ‘place’), Pal. *dobu* (from Jp. *dobu* ‘ditch’), and so on. A few exceptions can be found in which the Palauan word indeed adds NG—e.g., Pal. *kamang* ‘(arm) twisted or crippled’ (from Jp. *kama* ‘sickle, hook’).

Word-Internal NG and NGNG

24.2.5.4. In certain dialects of Japanese, including the standard dialect spoken in the capital city of Tokyo, an original “g” sound is pronounced as “ng” between vowels (i.e., intervocalically). Thus, for speakers from Tokyo, a Japanese word like *maguro* ‘tuna’ has the pronunciation “manguro”. Since the standard dialect was used by government officials and taught in the Palau schools during the Japanese times, it is not surprising that most Japanese loanwords with intervocalic “ng” (from an original “g”) are also pronounced (and spelled) this way in Palauan. Some typical examples are given in the list below:

(29)	<i>Japanese</i>	
	<i>Loan Source</i>	<i>Palauan</i>
	maguro ‘tuna’	manguro
	agaru ‘to rise, increase’	changar
	doogu ‘tool’	dongu
	yanagi ‘willow’	ianangi
	maegami ‘bangs’	maingami
	saigo ‘last time’	saingo
	tamago ‘egg’	tamango
	negi ‘green onion’	nengi

Another phonetic feature of the standard dialect of Japanese is that when a syllable ending in N is followed by another syllable beginning with G, the original combination “n” + “g” is pronounced like a long “ng” sound. Thus, in Tokyo dialect, a word like *bangoo* ‘number’ (with a two-syllable structure *ban* + *goo*) sounds very much like “bangngoo”. Such words are adopted into Palauan with a similar long “ng” pronunciation and spelled as double NG (i.e., NGNG), as in the examples below:

(30)	<i>Japanese</i>	
	<i>Loan Source</i>	<i>Palauan</i>
	bangoo 'number'	bangngo
	bengoshi 'lawyer'	bengngos
	kangofu 'nurse'	kangngob
	ringo 'apple'	ringngo
	songai '(financial) loss'	songngai

CH in Loanwords

24.2.6. As noted in 1.2.5, the letters CH are used as a single unit in the Palauan spelling system to indicate a rather special consonant sound. This sound is produced by closing the vocal cords against each other for a brief instant and then releasing them. When the vocal cords are released, we hear a light explosion of air in the throat. Although CH is not as easy to hear (especially for foreigners!) as other Palauan consonants, it is still a very important unit in the Palauan sound system. It does not show any phonetic variation and can appear word-initially, word-internally, and word-finally, as in *charm* 'animal', *chisel* 'news of him/her', *meched*, 'shallow', *dechor* 'standing', *taoch* 'mangrove channel', *buch* 'spouse', and so on.

None of the languages contributing loanwords to Palauan has a sound similar to Palauan CH as part of its regular sound system. However, in both Japanese and English, speakers often pronounce vowel-initial words with a CH-like sound at the beginning, especially when speaking forcefully or when uttering words in isolation. Most Japanese and English loan source words in this category have been borrowed into Palauan with an added word-initial CH, as indicated in the examples below:

(31)	<i>Loan Source</i>	<i>Palauan</i>
Jp.	aburasashi 'oil can'	chaburasasi
	abunai 'dangerous'	chabunai
	eisei 'sanitation'	chaisei
	imi 'meaning'	chimi
	oto 'noise, sound'	choto
	uri 'melon, cucumber'	churi 'muskmelon'
	usui '(liquid) weak'	chusui
Eng.	ambulance	chambelangs
	air	chea
	ice	chais
	okra	chokura

Note that because English *ice* gets borrowed into Palauan as *chais*, with word-initial CH, this word will sound the same as the native Palauan word *chais* ‘news’. Recall that the presence of word-initial CH can be verified for each Palauan word above by putting it into a short sentence after *ng* ‘he, she, it’ (see 1.2.5.b). Thus, if we make a short sentence like *Ng chabunai* ‘it’s dangerous’ and pronounce it carefully, we will see that the word-initial CH of *chabunai* causes the preceding *ng* to be pronounced as a totally separate syllable (NG-CHA-BU-NAI).

There are a few exceptions to the pattern of (31) above in which Palauan does *not* add a word-initial CH to loanwords that begin with a vowel. Some examples are Pal. *ensok* (from Jp. *ensoku* ‘picnic, outing’), Pal. *okane* (from Jp. *okane* ‘money’), Pal. *usangi* (from Jp. *usagi* ‘rabbit’), Pal. *obis* (from Eng. *office*), and Pal. *osbitar* (from Eng. *hospital*).

The Japanese syllables WA, YA, YU, and YO, which begin in Japanese with the “gliding” sounds “w” and “y”, are adopted into Palauan as the vowel clusters (diphthongs) UA, IA, IU, and IO. Whenever Palauan has developed a word-initial U or I from this source, there will never be an additional word-initial CH. A few typical examples are Pal. *uata* (from Jp. *wata* ‘cotton’), Pal. *uatasibune* (from Jp. *watashibune* ‘ferry boat’), Pal. *iakiu* (from Jp. *yakyuu* ‘baseball’), Pal. *iasai* (from Jp. *yasai* ‘vegetables’), Pal. *iaksok* (from Jp. *yakusoku* ‘promise’), and Pal. *iotei* (from Jp. *yotei* ‘plan, schedule’).

L and R in Loanwords

24.2.7. As indicated in 1.2.9, the Palauan letter L is used to represent a sound that is very close to English “l” as in *land*. Palauan L has no phonetic variation and is used word-initially (*laok* ‘fat’), word-internally (*melai* ‘to take’), and word-finally (*rael* ‘road’). Double L is also used in Palauan for a long L pronunciation, as in *llach* ‘law’ and *kall* ‘food’ (see 1.2.9.1).

As we saw in 1.2.10, the Palauan letter R represents a sound that is very similar to the “tapping r” sound of Japanese (as in Jp. *ringo* ‘apple’, *karai* ‘spicy’, etc.). It is also phonetically very close to the same type of “tapping r” pronunciation that occurs in American English, where it is spelled, for example, as single or double T in words like *water* and *matter*. Palauan R has no phonetic variation and is used word-initially (*rakt* ‘sickness’), word-internally (*beras* ‘rice’), and word-finally (*kar* ‘medicine’). In addition, double R is used in Palauan for a rather long “r” sound that has the qualities of a trill or buzz (see 1.2.10.1).

In spite of the fact that L and R must be carefully kept apart in the native Palauan sound system because if interchanged they would result in a different word (e.g., *lisel* ‘its coconut tree’ vs. *risel* ‘its root’), these two sounds are often confused and substituted for each other in loanwords. This rather “unstable” relationship between L and R is even found to some extent in the native sound system because we have certain pairs of words in which some speakers use L, while others use R (e.g., *merredel* or *merreder*

'leader' and *iikl* or *iikr* 'outside'). In addition, a basic "l" sound is always changed to "r" under certain circumstances: thus, for example, the L of the past tense infix *-il-* must always be changed to R if an accompanying intransitive verb stem also contains an R (e.g., *riros* 'drowned' from *remos* 'to drown', *rirebet* 'fell' from *ruebet* 'to fall', *mirrael* 'travelled' from *merael* 'to travel', and so on).

While there are a few examples in which "r" of the contributing language is taken into Palauan as "l" (e.g., Pal. *sukal* from Sp. *azucár* 'sugar', in which the original Spanish word seems to have been reanalyzed in Palauan as *a* + *zucár*, just like what happened to Sp. *apóstol* as described in Note 3 of 24.2.1), in the greatest number of cases "l" has been borrowed into Palauan as "r". Note the examples below:

(32)	<i>Loan Source</i>	<i>Palauan</i>
	Sp. <i>azucár</i> 'sugar'	<i>sukal</i>
	<i>faról</i> 'lantern'	<i>baror</i> 'table lamp'
	<i>sal</i> 'salt'	<i>sar</i>
	Ger. <i>Tafel</i> 'blackboard'	<i>taber</i>
	<i>Papier</i> 'paper, document'	<i>babier</i> — <i>babelngel</i> '(his) paper, letter, book'
	Eng. <i>valve</i>	<i>barb</i>
	<i>belt</i>	<i>bert</i> 'fan belt'
	<i>ball</i> (in baseball)	<i>bor</i>
	<i>helmet</i>	<i>hermet</i>
	<i>hospital</i>	<i>osbitar</i>
	<i>hotel</i>	<i>hoter</i>
	<i>keel</i>	<i>kir</i>
	<i>glove</i>	<i>kurob</i>

Note that while Pal. *babier* maintains the "r" of the original Ger. *Papier*, its possessed forms *babelngel*, *babelngel*, etc., show the change from "r" to "l" (in addition to shortening of the original vowel cluster IE). As expected, there is some variation in the Palauan words above—e.g., some speakers say *kil* instead of *kir*.

Interestingly enough, when words are borrowed into Palauan from Japanese, which only has a (tapping) "r" sound, but no "l", there is never any distortion from "r" to "l". In other words, the "r" sound of Japanese is maintained in such Palauan words as *chiro* (from Jp. *iro* 'color'), *nori* (from Jp. *nori* 'paste'), and so on.

Even though Palauan R occurs word-finally as well as before other consonants in various native words (e.g., *ngor* 'mouth', *skors* 'cane', *dart* 'one hundred', etc.), when "r" occurs in these positions in certain loan source words, it is often lost. Thus, Ger. *Mark* 'mark (unit of money)' becomes Pal. *mak* 'fifty cents'. In addition, we saw in the English

examples of (28) that R is lost word-finally and replaced by Palauan NG, as in Pal. *stoang* from Eng. *store*). Here are more examples of the loss of English “r”:

(33)

<i>English</i>	<i>Palauan</i>
<i>Loan Source</i>	
carcinoma	kasinoma ‘cancer’
card	kat ‘playing cards’
market	makit
horse	uos

The double consonants LL and RR in loanwords also reveal some distortions. Thus, Sp. *barril* ‘barrel’ shows a lengthening of the “l” in Pal. *barrill*, although in this very same example the long (trilled) “r” of Spanish has been taken into Palauan consistently as RR (a similar case is Pal. *karrong* from Sp. *carro* ‘pushcart, wagon’). However, in Pal. *rrat* (from Ger. *Rad* ‘bicycle’) and Pal. *rrom* ‘liquor’ (from Eng. *rum*), we observe an unexpected doubling of the R (although there may be a possible explanation for the German case—see Note 7 in 24.2.2 above).

Appearance of H in Palauan

24.2.8. As we observed in 24.2.3.1 above, the Palauan sound system did not originally have such sounds as Z and TS (a consonant cluster) but acquired them quite recently under the influence of loanwords from foreign languages (especially, Japanese and English). In exactly the same way, Palauan has adopted the “h” sound (spelled H) from certain foreign languages, even though this pronunciation was never part of the original Palauan sound system (except in one or two very unusual words such as *hngob*, an interjection used to draw attention to an unpleasant smell).

As early as the eighteenth century, Palauan borrowed a few Spanish words that contained a sound similar to “h” (but pronounced with somewhat more friction). Spelled with g or j in Spanish, this sound now occurs in Palauan as H:

(34)

<i>Spanish</i>	<i>Palauan</i>
<i>Loan Source</i>	
virgén ‘virgin’	birhen
ángel ‘angel’	changhel
Jesús ‘Jesus’	Hesus
cajón ‘box, chest’	kahol ‘wooden box, coffin’

It was not until the large influx of Japanese vocabulary, however, that H became well established as a unit within the Palauan sound system. In Japanese, the syllables HA, HI, HE, and HO begin with a sound similar to the English “h” of *hill* (although for many speakers of Japanese the “h” of HI is phonetically more complex). In the Japanese

syllable HU, the “h” usually sounds more like an “f”, not as strong as the English “f” sound and more like the sound of blowing out a candle. For this reason, HU is often spelled *FU* when Romanizing Japanese, a practice that we will follow below. When the Japanese loan source contains HA, HI, FU, HE, or HO, the corresponding Palauan equivalent will use H. For almost all speakers of Palauan, Japanese FU is now pronounced “hu”, although some older Palauans who learned Japanese thoroughly still may maintain the Japanese-style “fu” pronunciation.

(35)		<i>Japanese</i>	
	<i>Loan Source</i>		<i>Palauan</i>
HA	haizara ‘ashtray’		haisara
	hanafuda ‘Jp. card game’		hanahuda
	hashi ‘chopsticks’		hasi
	hantai ‘opposite’		hantai
	harau ‘pay (for)’		harau
HI	hinpyookai ‘exhibition, fair’		himbiokai
	himitsu ‘secret’		himits
	koohii ‘coffee’		kohi
FU	ifukuro ‘paunch of stomach’		chihukuro
	furansu ‘France’		Hurans
	fuusen ‘balloon’		huseng
	fuutoo ‘envelope’		huto
	futsuu ‘common, usual’		hutsu
	mafuraa ‘muffler, scarf’		mahura
HE	henji ‘answer, reply’		henzi
	heya ‘room’		heia
HO	hokori ‘dust’		hokori
	hon ‘book’		hong
	hontoo ‘main island’		honto ‘Babeldaob’
	mahoobin ‘thermos bottle’		mahobing
	mihon ‘sample’		mihong

Only one notable exception exists to the pattern above: thus, in Pal. *kangngob* (from Jp. *kangofu* ‘nurse’), we observe that the “h” of Japanese FU has been taken into Palauan as B rather than H.

Once H became a fairly common sound of Palauan because of the many loanwords from Japanese, this sound was easily adopted in certain English words as well. Note the examples below:

(36)

	<i>English</i>		<i>Palauan</i>
	<i>Loan Source</i>		
	helmet		hermet
	home run		homrang
	hose		hos
	hotel		hoter

In a few cases, however, word-initial “h” of English has been lost in the Palauan equivalent—e.g., Pal. *iings* (from Eng. *hinge*), Pal. *osbitar* (from Eng. *hospital*), and Pal. *uos* (from Eng. *horse*).

Summary of Consonants in Loanwords

- 24.2.9. To summarize what we have observed in all the sections above, we can see that Palauan not only uses its original, native consonant sounds in the pronunciation of loanwords but has also developed some new sounds to accommodate certain patterns of pronunciation in the four languages from which it has borrowed. The phonetic system found within loanwords is therefore richer than that used in native words. Thus, in addition to the original sounds represented by the letters B, M, T, D, S, K, NG, CH, L, and R, through the acquisition of loanwords Palauan has developed new sounds represented by Z, TS (a consonant cluster), H, and F, and has given more independent status to sounds such as N and P (which were previously just variants of other major sound units).

USE OF PALAUAN VOWELS IN LOANWORDS, FULL E VS. WEAK E, STRESSED VS. UNSTRESSED SYLLABLES

- 24.3. Palauan has five major vowel sounds that are used both in words of native origin and words borrowed from foreign languages. These sounds are listed in the chart below (which we repeat from 1.3.8):

(37)

PALAUAN VOWELS		
<i>Letter</i>		<i>Pronunciation</i>
A		Eng. “a” as in <i>car</i>
E	Full E:	Eng. “e” as in <i>red</i>
	Weak E:	Eng. “e” as in <i>the</i>
I		Eng. “ee” as in <i>see</i> Jp. “i” as in <i>himitsu</i>
O		Eng. “o” as in <i>home</i>
U		Eng. “u” as in <i>tube</i>

Recall that in native Palauan words, *weak E* occurs only in *unstressed* syllables, as in *rekas* ‘mosquito’ (re-KAS), *mecherocher* ‘salty’ (me-che-RO-cher), etc. By contrast, *full E* usually occurs in *stressed* syllables, as in *meched* ‘shallow’ (me-CHED), *mengelebed* ‘to hit’ (me-nge-LE-bed), etc., although it can also occur in unstressed syllables as well. Thus, in *elolem* ‘six’ (e-LO-lem) and several other number words, the first E is full even though it is unstressed. In addition, in the possessed form *temel* ‘his/her/its time’ (te-MEL), the first E is full even though unstressed because it has been derived by the process of *vowel cluster weakening* from the original diphthong AE found in the independent noun stem *taem* ‘time’. You should go back to 1.3.2 now if you need to review any of the issues relating to Palauan *full E* vs. *weak E*.

The vowels of loanwords are taken into Palauan according to the following general principle: a full vowel in the contributing language is normally pronounced in Palauan as the phonetically closest Palauan full vowel A, E, I, O, or U, except that when it happens to fall in an *unstressed* syllable of the Palauan word, it is likely to be reduced to Palauan *weak E*. To take a couple of preliminary examples, we note first that Sp. *padre* ‘priest’ contains the full vowel A, which is maintained as a full A in Pal. *badre* because it is in the stressed syllable (BA-dre). By contrast, although Ger. *Maschine* ‘machine’ contains the full vowel A, this vowel is reduced to weak E in the Palauan equivalent *mesil* (me-SIL) because it now falls in an *unstressed* syllable. Interestingly enough, the final E of *Maschine* is itself weak and unstressed in the German loan source word and is therefore totally lost in its Palauan counterpart.

Although our analysis would turn out to be rather complicated, we could probably develop a set of rules to predict which syllable will get stressed in any *native* Palauan (multisyllabic) word. When we observe the occurrence of stress in *loanwords*, however, we cannot find any consistent patterns to predict the position of the stressed syllable, except perhaps that there is a tendency for stress to be placed on the word-final syllable. In particular, if a given syllable is stressed in the loan source word, it will not necessarily turn out to be the stressed syllable of the Palauan equivalent. A striking example of this is Sp. *sábado* ‘Saturday’ (with the first syllable stressed and even marked with an accent in Spanish spelling), which is taken into Palauan as *sebadong* (se-ba-DONG), where the stress has been shifted to the final syllable and the original full A of Spanish, now unstressed, has been reduced to weak E!

Vowels in Loanwords from Spanish and Japanese

- 24.3.1.** Both Spanish and Japanese happen to have, like Palauan, a rather simple system of five full vowels (A, E, I, O, and U). Unlike Palauan, however, they have no reduced vowel like weak E that occurs in unstressed syllables. Because there is no “conflict” with the Palauan vowel system, the vowels in loanwords from Spanish and Japanese are usually adopted into Palauan with no phonetic modification, as you can verify from the great majority of examples in (4), (6), (9), (11), etc., above.

Only rarely do we find a loanword from Spanish in which the original vowel has been interpreted differently in Palauan. A few cases of such distortion are listed below:

(38)	<i>Spanish</i>	
	<i>Loan Source</i>	<i>Palauan</i>
	botella 'bottle'	butiliang
	cebollas 'onions'	sebulias 'onion'
	chocolate 'chocolate'	suklatei 'cocoa tree'

In the examples above, you can find three cases of the vowel change Sp. O → Pal. U, and one example of the change Sp. E → Pal. I.

At the end of 24.3 above, we compared Pal. *sebadong* with Sp. *sábado* and noted that the full A of the Spanish loan source was reduced to a weak E in the Palauan form (se-ba-DONG), where the stress has shifted to the word-final syllable. A few similar examples can be found in Pal. *kelebus* (ke-le-BUS) from Sp. *calabozo* 'jail, prison' (where, in addition to other changes, the two full vowels A of the Spanish word have become weak E when unstressed in Palauan) and in Pal. *trombetang* (trom-be-TANG) from Sp. *trompeta* 'trumpet, bugle' (where the original full E of the Spanish word has been reduced to weak E when unstressed in Palauan). In contrast with the Spanish examples, there is *never* a case in which a full vowel of the Japanese loan source word is reduced to weak E in an unstressed syllable of the corresponding Palauan form. This very interesting phonetic feature can be seen in all the examples from Japanese given above—e.g., Pal. *nori* and Jp. *nori* 'paste', Pal. *mado* and Jp. *mado* 'window', and so on.

Vowels in Loanwords from German and English

24.3.2. Although the vowel system of German is much more complex than that of Palauan (with at least double the number of vowels), the actual amount of phonetic distortion in the vowels of borrowed words is surprisingly small. Part of this is due to the fact that we have only a very limited number of words that were borrowed from German in the first place, perhaps twenty-five at most. Thus, in most cases the German loan source word has the same vowel as its Palauan equivalent, which can be seen clearly in the examples of (5) in 24.2.1 above (e.g., Pal. *bost* from Ger. *Post* 'post office', Pal. *slibs* from Ger. *Schlips* 'necktie', Pal. *bengster* from Ger. *Fenster* 'window', etc.). In a few cases, as noted earlier, a full vowel of the original German word gets reduced to a weak E when unstressed in the Palauan equivalent—e.g., Pal. *mesil* (me-SIL) from Ger. *Maschine* 'machine'.

Like German, the English vowel system is also quite complex, with a relatively large number of single vowels (up to a dozen) in some dialects, as well as several diphthongs (e.g. "aw" as in *cow*, "ay" as in *buy*, and "oy" as in *boy*). When the English vowel system is "interpreted" into the simpler vowel system of Palauan, numerous changes

and distortions take place, and we find quite a large number of exceptions and irregularities. The major modifications that we will discuss below all involve particular English vowels that have no direct Palauan phonetic equivalents. Such vowels—i.e., the “open a” sound of *bad* or *cat*, the “uh” sound of *but* or *come*, and the “open o” sound of *bought* or *law*—are adopted into Palauan as the Palauan vowel with the closest features of articulation.

The English “open a” sound of *bad* or *cat* is almost always borrowed as Palauan A, as the list below indicates:

(39)	<i>English</i>	
	<i>Loan Source</i>	<i>Palauan</i>
	band	bangd
	valve	barb
	dance	dangs
	stamp	stamb

Only in one unusual case is English “open a” taken into Palauan as E—i.e., Pal. *bek* from Eng. *bag*.

The English “uh” sound of *but* or *come* (which in English always occurs in a stressed syllable) is taken into Palauan either as A or O (both of which have some phonetic similarities with the original English sound). Examples of this phonetic change are given below:

(40)	<i>English</i>	
	<i>Loan Source</i>	<i>Palauan</i>
	bucket	baket
	doughnuts	donats
	club	klab
	pump	bomb
	cup	kob
	rum	rrom ‘liquor’

An unusual exception to the pattern of (40) is Pal. *sebel* from Eng. *shovel*, in which the original “uh” sound of the English word has been changed to (stressed) full E in the Palauan equivalent.

The English “open o” sound is also borrowed into Palauan as O, as in the examples below:

(41)	ball	bor
	sauce	sos
	horse	uos

In the last example, the *r* of Eng. *horse* is lost, and word-initial *h* is reinterpreted in Palauan as the vowel *U*.

In the English vowel system, we have certain pairs of contrasting vowels whose members are pronounced in the same general position within the mouth but show a distinction between so-called “tense” (strong) vs. “lax” (weak) articulation. Thus, the “tense *I*” of *beat* contrasts with the “lax *I*” of *bit*. In a similar way, we have a contrast between the “tense *E*” of *bait* vs. the “lax *E*” of *bet*, and the “tense *U*” of *pool* and the “lax *E*” of *pull*. The English spelling system unfortunately makes it rather hard for us to identify these contrasting pairs, since the “tense” vowels are often spelled in two-letter combinations (e.g., *ea*, *ai*, *oo*, etc.).

In any case, since Palauan does not have a phonetic contrast between tense vs. lax vowels, but in fact has only one vowel in any given position, the English tense vs. lax distinction gets “neutralized” when Palauan adopts English loanwords. Thus, as the lists below indicate, both English *tense I* and *lax I* simply become Palauan *I* (phonetically tense in Palauan), both English *tense E* and *lax E* become Palauan *E* (phonetically lax in Palauan), and both English *tense U* and *lax U* become Palauan *U* (phonetically tense in Palauan):

(42)	<i>English</i>	
a.	Eng. <i>tense I</i> and <i>lax I</i> → Pal. <i>I</i>	
	<i>Loan Source</i>	<i>Palauan</i>
	sheep	sib
	keel	kil
	bid	bid
	piston	bistong
b.	Eng. <i>tense E</i> and <i>lax E</i> → Pal. <i>E</i>	
	save	seb
	chaser	tsesa
	bed	bet
	tennis	tenis
c.	Eng. <i>tense U</i> and <i>lax U</i> → Pal. <i>U</i>	
	pool	bul
	room	rum
	puss	bus

In addition to the patterns illustrated in (42) above, some English tense vowels become long vowels or diphthongs in Palauan—e.g., Pal. *kiis* from Eng. *keys*, Pal. *skuul* from Eng. *school*, Pal. *teib* from Eng. *tape*, and Pal. *keik* from Eng. *cake*. Furthermore, some full vowels or diphthongs of the English loan source are reduced to Palauan weak E in unstressed syllables, as in Pal. *chambelangs* from Eng. *ambulance*, and Pal. *chasbering* from Eng. *aspirin*.

The English diphthongs “aw” (as in *cow*) and “ay” (as in *buy*) are adopted into Palauan quite unpredictably. In some cases, English “aw” remains a diphthong (vowel cluster) in Palauan (e.g., Pal. *sausab* from Eng. *soursop*), while in others it becomes the single full vowel A (e.g., Pal. *kurangd* from Eng. *ground*) or O (e.g., Pal. *bongd* from Eng. *pound*). English “ay” is pronounced either as a similar diphthong (vowel cluster) in Palauan (e.g., Pal. *chais* from Eng. *ice*) or as the diphthong AE (e.g., Pal. *baeb* from Eng. *pipe*).

A few unusual Palauan interpretations of English vowels are probably due to “spelling pronunciations”. Thus, in Pal. *bokket* from Eng. *pocket*, the Palauan vowel O seems to come from the name of the English letter O (“oh”) rather than its actual pronunciation in the word *pocket*, where it sounds like the “a” of *car*. Similar examples include Pal. *klok* (with O) from Eng. *clock* (where the vowel sounds like the “a” of *car*), and Pal. *bisob* (with O) from Eng. *bishop* (where the corresponding vowel is an unstressed weak E). Finally, Pal. *diakon* from Eng. *deacon* shows that Palauan has interpreted the English spelling *ea* as a phonetic diphthong (IA), even though the *ea* of *deacon* represents the single tense vowel I.

Appearance of Added Weak E in Loanwords

- 24.3.3. In a small number of loanwords from Spanish, German, and English, the Palauan form shows a *weak E* added between two consonants that form a cluster in the contributing language. Since KR, SR, and DR are not possible as word-initial consonant clusters in Palauan, it is natural that a “buffer” vowel such as weak E would be inserted in the Palauan form to avoid an otherwise unacceptable sequence of consonants. Thus, Spanish words with the initial consonant cluster “kr” (spelled *cr* in Spanish) are taken into Palauan as “ker” (with weak E), as in Pal. *keristiano* from Sp. *cristiano* ‘Christian’ and Pal. *kerus* from Sp. *cruz* ‘cross’. Similarly, German words with the initial consonant cluster “shr” (spelled *schr* in German) are interpreted in Palauan as “ser” (with weak E and “s” instead of “sh”), as in Pal. *serangk* from Ger. *Schrank* ‘cupboard, shelf’ and Pal. *seraub* from Ger. *Schraube* ‘screw’. Finally, word-initial “dr” of English becomes “der” in Palauan, as in Pal. *deromukang* from Eng. *drum* (*can*).

In some unusual cases, Palauan inserts an extra weak E even when it is not necessary to separate the consonants of a given cluster. Thus, even though consonant clusters such as KL, SB, and BR are totally acceptable within native Palauan words, an extra weak E has been unpredictably inserted in such words as Pal. *ikelesia* from Sp. *iglesia*

'church', Pal. *Sebangiol* 'Spain' from Sp. *español* 'Spanish', and Pal. *berib* from Ger. *Brief* 'letter'.

Omitted Vowels from Japanese

24.3.4. As we have seen in some earlier examples, one interesting characteristic of Japanese pronunciation is that the vowels I and U are greatly reduced—i.e., pronounced just as a light whisper or even totally lost—under certain complicated phonetic conditions. Thus, when I and U occur between such Japanese consonant sounds as “k”, “s”, “sh”, “h”, “ch”, and “ts”, or in *word-final* position following one of these consonants, they normally become almost totally silent. In the examples below, I and U are silent between the abovementioned consonants of the Japanese word (as indicated by the pronunciation given within parentheses), and because of this the vowel in question is also omitted from the Palauan counterpart:

(43)	<i>Japanese</i>	
	<i>Loan Source</i>	<i>Palauan</i>
	kuse (“kse”) ‘habit’	kse
	tsukemono (“tskemono”) ‘pickles’	(t)skemono
	bokusoo (“boksoo”) ‘grass, pasture’	bokso ‘elephant grass’
	rekishi (“rekshi”) ‘history’	reksi
	shitagi (“shtangi”) ‘underwear’	stangi ‘petticoat’
	shiken (“shkeng”) ‘test, exam’	skeng
	hikooki (“hkooki”) ‘airplane’	skoki

When the U of Jp. *tsukemono* is lost, the resulting Palauan form then begins with a cluster of *three* consonants TSK, which is optionally reduced to the simpler cluster SK by deleting the “t” sound. A similar example is Pal. (t)skareter from Jp. *tsukarete iru* ‘tired’. When the I of Jp. *hikooki* is lost, we get the resulting consonant cluster “hk”, which is reinterpreted in Palauan as SK. Similar examples are Pal. *skozio* from Jp. *hikoojoo* ‘airport’ and Pal. *skidas* from Jp. *hikidashi* ‘drawer’.

In the examples below, I and U are silent in Japanese when they occur in word-final position after the relevant consonant. As we might expect, the very same vowel is also absent in Palauan:

(44)	<i>Japanese</i>	
	<i>Loan Source</i>	<i>Palauan</i>
	bengoshi (“bengngosh”) ‘lawyer’	bengngos
	Doitsu (“doits”) ‘Germany’	Dois
	doku (“dok”) ‘poison’	dok

hachi (“hach”) ‘bee’	hats
himitsu (“himits”) ‘secret’	himits
kangofu (“kangngof”) ‘nurse’	kangngob
keikaku (“keikak”) ‘plan’	keikak
shokuminchi (“shokuminch”) ‘colony’	siokumins

In Pal. *siokumins* the “ch” sound of the Japanese loan source has changed to “ts”, and after the deletion of silent I, the word-final sequence NTS has been simplified to NS.

In a few Japanese loan source words, the vowels I and U are silent both between the relevant consonants *and* in word-final position. Thus, in the examples below, two original consonants are missing in the Palauan equivalent:

(45) mokuteki (“moktek”) ‘purpose’	moktek
shikaku (“shkak”) ‘square’	skak
yakusoku (“yaksok”) ‘promise’	iaksok

In most Palauan loanwords from Japanese, the vowel U is also deleted after R (usually, in word-final position). In addition, U is unpredictably deleted after a consonant like B in a small number of examples. Observe the words below:

(46)	<i>Japanese</i>		<i>Palauan</i>
	<i>Loan Source</i>		
	taoru ‘towel’		taor
	sarumechiiru (Jp. brand name)		sarmetsir ‘liniment’
	amate iru ‘left over, plenty’		chamatter
	kiite iru ‘effective’		kiter
	kotowaru ‘to refuse’		kotouar
	tebukuro ‘glove’		tebkuro
	daijoobu ‘all right, OK’		daiziob

Shortening of Long Japanese Vowels in Palauan

- 24.3.5. As we saw in 1.3.6, four out of the five native Palauan vowels can occur *double* (or long)—i.e., EE, II, OO, and UU. Not only are these double vowels greater in length (i.e., held longer when pronounced) but also they show some gliding features, involving sounds like English “y” or “w” (see Note 21 of 1.3.6 for more details). Thus, we have native Palauan words like *kmeed* ‘near’ (sounds like “kmeed” or “kmeyd”), *diil* ‘abdomen’ (sounds like “diil” or “diyl”), *dekool* ‘cigarette’ (sounds like “degool” or “degowl”), and *buuch* ‘betel nut’ (sounds like “buuch” or “buwch”).

As we noted after the examples of (42) in 24.3.2 above, some Palauan loanwords from English show long vowels as the equivalent of English tense vowels, as in Pal. *kiis* from Eng. *keys*. Given the fact that Palauan has long vowels both in native words and some words borrowed from English, it is very surprising that the Palauan sound system has shown total resistance to borrowing the long vowels of Japanese (spelled as double vowels in our Romanization of Japanese—see *Note 2* in 24.2.1 above). Thus, while Japanese has AA, EE, II, OO, and UU in addition to the corresponding short vowels, there is not a single case in which Palauan has adopted a Japanese long vowel. In all the examples seen in this lesson, a few of which we repeat below, Palauan has shortened every Japanese long vowel:

(47)	<i>Japanese</i>	
	<i>Loan Source</i>	<i>Palauan</i>
	sarumechiiru (Jp. brand name)	sarmetsir 'liniment'
	koohii 'coffee'	kohi
	kyuuri 'cucumber'	kiuri
	senpuuki 'electric fan'	sembuki
	kosui 'perfume'	kosui

LOANWORDS AND PATTERNS OF PALAUAN WORD STRUCTURE

- 24.4. Palauan has been surprisingly flexible in the extent to which it has allowed loanwords to be integrated into the language and participate in various derivational patterns characteristic of noun and verb formation. Words from various grammatical classes (parts of speech) in the contributing languages have been readily adopted into Palauan, often with interesting shifts of meaning, as optionally possessed nouns, state verbs of several types, action verbs (transitive and intransitive), and so on.

In the majority of cases, as expected, Palauan has borrowed a foreign word into the native part-of-speech category that most closely corresponds to the original class membership in the contributing language. Thus, most loanwords that are nouns in Spanish, German, Japanese, and English also function as nouns in Palauan. To take just one preliminary example, the loanword *sensei* 'teacher', a noun in Japanese, is also used as a noun in Palauan, where it shows the typical distributional features of nouns—i.e., it can occur in the positions of *sentence subject*, *sentence object*, or after the *relational word er* (see 2.3 and 2.3.1–5). Each of these positions is illustrated in the sentences below:

- (48) a. (1) Sentence subject in post-predicate position:
 Ng ungil a sensei. 'The teacher is good.'

(2) Sentence subject in pre-predicate position:

A sensei a ungil. 'The teacher (whom we've been
talking about)—she's good.'

b. Sentence object:

Ak milsa a sensei. 'I saw the teacher.'

c. After relational word *er* (as part of relational phrase):

Ng hong er a sensei. 'It's the teacher's book.'

Change of Part-of-Speech Category: Foreign Nouns to Palauan State Verbs

24.4.1. While most foreign nouns are borrowed into Palauan as nouns, a significant number are also adopted as *state verbs*. As opposed to *action verbs*, which designate actions, activities, or events involving an active participant, Palauan *state verbs* describe states, qualities, or conditions that temporarily or permanently characterize persons or things. Grammatically, action verbs can be distinguished from state verbs by the pattern of *past tense* formation. Action verbs take the past tense *infix -il-* (or *-l-*), as in *milengaus* 'was weaving' (cf. *mengaus* 'to weave'), *tilobed* 'came out' (cf. *tuobed* 'to come out'), and so on. By contrast, state verbs form the past tense with the auxiliary *mle* 'was, were', as in *mle ungil* 'was/were good' (cf. *ungil* 'good'), *mle cheroid* 'was/were far' (cf. *cheroid* 'far'), and so on. Palauan state verbs normally correspond to English adjectives and, as we will see below, to various classes of modifying words in Japanese, but not always: thus, for example, the Palauan state verb *medenge* 'to know' (past tense: *mle medenge* 'knew') has an English verb (*know*) as its nearest equivalent.

Most of the cases in which a foreign noun is borrowed into Palauan as a state verb come from Japanese. Because the part-of-speech category is changed, the meaning of the word will also be modified, but usually in a predictable manner. Thus, as the English translations for the Palauan state verbs of (49) indicate, the Palauan meaning is something like "characterized by/similar in appearance to [whatever the original Japanese noun refers to]". Here are some examples of rather commonly used Palauan *state verbs* that have their source in Japanese *nouns*:

(49)	<i>Japanese Noun</i>	<i>Palauan State Verb</i>
	baikin 'bacterium, germ'	baiking 'unsanitary, unhygienic'
	bozu 'Buddhist priest, monk, shaven head'	bozu '(head) completely shaved'
	asebo 'prickly heat, heat rash'	chasebo 'broken out in prickly heat'
	aji 'taste, flavor'	chazi 'tasty, flavorful'

haibyoo 'lung disease, TB'	haibio 'sick with TB'
hanbun 'half'	hambung 'half-witted, simple-minded'
kama 'sickle, hook'	kamang '(arm) crippled, twisted'
jiman 'pride, vanity'	simang 'vain, boastful'
tamanegi 'onion'	tamanengi '(head) completely shaved'
tamagogata 'ovoid figure'	tamangongata 'egg-shaped, oval'

Needless to say, because they are state verbs, all the Palauan words in (49) form their past tense with the auxiliary *mle*—e.g., *mle chazi* 'was tasty', *mle simang* 'was boastful', etc. In addition to being used in Palauan as state verbs, some of the items in (49) can also be used as nouns—e.g., *chazi* 'taste, flavor', *kamang* 'sickle', and *tamanengi* 'onion'. Note that Jp. *asebo* is a slang (informal) form for the more standard term *asemo* 'prickly heat'.

A few examples that follow the pattern of (49) involve nouns from Spanish and English, as indicated below:

(50)	Foreign Noun	Palauan State Verb
Sp.	diablo 'devil'	diablong 'terrible, awful'
	calabozo 'dungeon, cell'	kelebus 'jailed, in prison'
	martillo 'hammer'	martiliong 'ungraceful, clumsy'
Eng.	curve	kab 'curved'
	butterfly	baterflai '(person) fickle, prone to changing one's mind'
	you-drive (car)	iudoraibu '(woman) loose, fast'

All of the words in (50) except *baterflai* can also be used in Palauan as nouns. Note how the Palauan state verb *iudoraibu* involves a humorous shift in meaning from that of the original English noun.

Note 15: Several foreign loanwords illustrate additional types of shifts in part-of-speech membership resulting from the process of borrowing. For example, the two English *adjectives* *English* and *American* are the sources for the Palauan *nouns* *Inglis* 'England' and *Merikel* 'America' (which results from Palauan having reinterpreted the English loan source as *a* + *merican*, just like the case of Sp. *apóstol* described in Note 3 of 24.2.1 above). In addition, a few Japanese *nouns* have been adopted into Palauan as *intransitive verbs*, as in Pal. *chanzang* 'to add, do sums' from Jp. *anzan* 'mental arithmetic/calculation'. As a final example of interest, the German *adverb* *auswendig* 'by heart' is turned into a *transitive verb* in Palauan—i.e., *chausbengdik* 'to memorize, learn thoroughly'.

Correspondence Between Japanese Modifying Words And Palauan State Verbs

24.4.2. There are several major groups of modifying words in Japanese, all of which are borrowed into Palauan as *state verbs*. First of all, we have Japanese *adjectives* like *takai* 'expensive' and *usui* '(liquid) weak', which always end in *vowel + i* in the present tense and directly precede a modified noun (as in *usui kooonii* 'weak coffee'). Although Japanese adjectives change their form according to the tense (e.g., present *usui* 'is weak' vs. past *usukatta* 'was weak'), they are always borrowed as Palauan state verbs in their present tense form:

(51)	<i>Japanese Adjective</i>	<i>Palauan State Verb</i>
	<i>usui</i> '(liquid) weak'	<i>chusui</i>
	<i>koi</i> '(liquid) strong'	<i>koi</i>
	<i>takai</i> 'expensive'	<i>takai</i>
	<i>abunai</i> 'dangerous'	<i>chabunai</i>
	<i>komakai</i> 'detailed, thorough, stingy'	<i>komakai</i>
	<i>kusai</i> 'bad-smelling'	<i>ksai</i>
	<i>omoshiroi</i> 'interesting, funny'	<i>omosiroi</i>
	<i>sabishii</i> 'lonely'	<i>sabisi</i>
	<i>zurui</i> 'sly, foxy, sneaky'	<i>surui</i>

In addition to its function as a state verb, the Palauan word *omosiroi* can also be used as a noun meaning 'joke'.

Second, Japanese has a large group of modifying words that are called *nominal adjectives* because they work grammatically like nouns even though their meanings are more like adjectives. In particular, Japanese nominal adjectives do *not* change their form according to the tense, and when modifying a following noun they must be joined to it by the special linking words *na* and *no*. We therefore have two subclasses of Japanese nominal adjectives—the *NA-type*, using *na* as a linking word (e.g., *kantan* 'simple', as in *kantan na koto* 'simple matter'), and the *NO-type*, using *no* as a linking word (e.g., *futsuu* 'usual', as in *futsuu no koto* 'usual matter'). Japanese nominal adjectives of both types are taken into Palauan as state verbs, as shown in the examples below:

(52) <i>Japanese Nominal Adjective</i>	<i>Palauan State Verb</i>
<i>NA-type</i>	
kantan 'simple, brief'	kantang
bonkura 'dull, slow-witted'	bongkura
daijobu 'all right, OK'	daizjob
kechi 'miserly, stingy'	kets
zeitaku 'luxurious, high-class'	seitak
otenba 'pert, saucy'	chotemba '(woman) fast, loose, flirtatious'
iroiro 'various, diverse, miscellaneous'	chirochiro '(children of particular woman) fathered by different men, many- colored'
<i>NO-type</i>	
futsuu 'common, usual'	hutsu
osoroi '(clothes, etc.) of uniform style'	chosoroi
daitai 'general, main, rough'	daitai 'all right, OK'
hadaka 'naked'	hadaka 'barebreasted, naked'
hadashi 'barefooted'	hadasi
hantai 'opposite, dissenting'	hantai
katate '(with) one hand'	katate '(with) one hand, dexterous'
kichigai 'crazy, insane'	kitsingai

Note the unpredictable meaning distortion in the Palauan form *daitai* 'all right, OK'. This may have happened by "contamination" from the borrowed state verb *daizjob*, which has the same meaning and phonetically has the same first syllable (*dai-*).

In addition to the above, Japanese has many expressions describing a condition or state that consist of a verb in its connecting form (suffixed with *-te*) followed by the auxiliary verb *iru* 'to be, exist'. Like the adjectives described at the beginning of this section, such expressions directly precede the modified noun in Japanese—e.g., *tsukarete iru sensei* 'tired teacher' from *tsukarete iru* '(be) tired'. A few of these grammatically complex Japanese expressions have been borrowed into Palauan as state verbs. In the resulting Palauan forms, of course, the identity of the separate Japanese morphemes (e.g., verb stem *tsukare-*, suffix *-te*, auxiliary verb *iru*) has been obscured, and the Palauan form is considered a single unit:

(53)	<i>Japanese -TE IRU Expression</i>	<i>Palauan State Verb</i>
	tsukarete iru '(be) tired'	(t)skareter
	atte iru '(be) suitable, appropriate (for each other)'	chatter
	kankei shite iru '(be) related to, connected with'	kangkeister
	kiite iru '(be) effective'	kiter
	amate iru '(be) left over, plenty, more than enough'	chamatter

Interestingly enough, the Japanese negative equivalent of *atte iru*—i.e., *awanai* 'not suitable'—has also been borrowed into Palauan as the state verb *chauanai*, with the same meaning.

Note 16: A fairly minor source of Palauan state verbs is the class of Japanese intransitive action verbs. A few such verbs, all of which have the structure *noun stem + general action verb suru 'do'* in Japanese, have been taken into Palauan without *suru*:

<i>Japanese Intransitive Verb</i>	<i>Palauan State Verb</i>
dokuritsu (suru) 'become independent'	dokurits 'independent'
koshoo (suru) 'go out of order, break down'	kosio 'out of order, broken'
panku (suru) 'get punctured, blow out'	bangk '(tire) flat, punctured'

In addition to describing a *state*, the Palauan word *bangk* can sometimes be used as an intransitive *action verb* as well, in which case it means 'to go flat, get punctured, blow out'.

Borrowing of Transitive and Intransitive Action Verbs

24.4.3. Most transitive and intransitive action verbs from Japanese and English are borrowed into Palauan without any change in grammatical category. Thus, the examples of (54–55) below are very straightforward, with changes in meaning of most interest:

(54)	<i>Transitive Action Verbs</i>	
	<i>Japanese or English</i>	<i>Palauan</i>
	harau 'to pay for'	harau
	yakusoku (suru) 'to promise'	iaksok

kaburu 'to put on/wear (hat)'	kabur 'flip (person) over one's shoulder and throw down'
kensa (suru) 'to inspect, examine (medically)'	kensa
kotowaru 'to refuse'	kotouar
mawasu 'to turn, screw'	mauas
shimeru 'to close, strangle, choke'	simer 'strangle, choke, turn off (water, etc.)'
shiraberu 'examine, investigate'	siraber
chuii (suru) 'to watch out for, be careful'	tsiui 'watch out for (one's behavior), warn (person)'
o(en) (suru) 'to support, cheer'	o(i)eng 'to praise, honor, acclaim'
tsukamaeru 'to catch, seize, arrest'	(t)skamaer 'to face, corner, confront'
stop	stob
sign	saing 'sign (letter)'
bake	beik

Note 17: Quite a few of the Japanese transitive action verbs given above have the structure *noun stem + general action verb suru 'do'* in Japanese, but when borrowed into Palauan *suru* is lost (see Note 16 above). Note further that Palauan *iaksok* and *kensa* can also be used as nouns, with the original Japanese meanings. Finally, Palauan *saing* (which also shows an unusual stress pattern—namely, *sa-ING*) can also function as a noun with the original English meaning. In addition to its use as a *transitive verb*, *saing* also functions as an *intransitive verb* with the very specialized meaning 'to sign one's name as a pledge to abstain from liquor'.

(55)

Intransitive Action Verbs

<i>Japanese or English</i>	<i>Palauan</i>
bakuhatsu (suru) 'to explode, blow up'	bakuhats
ayamaru 'to apologize'	chaiamar
katsu 'to win'	kats
makeru 'to lose'	make
kawaru 'to change'	kauar '(condition of wind) change'
kizetsu (suru) 'to faint'	kisets
mawaru 'to turn, go around'	mauar

mookaru 'to make profit, gain'	mokar
shinpai (suru) 'to worry'	simbai
son (suru) 'to lose money, incur loss'	song
seikoo (suru) 'to succeed'	seiko
taoreru 'to fall, collapse'	taorer
drive	doraib 'to drive around (in a car)'
go ahead	kohei 'to go ahead, advance'

Note 18: In a pattern already familiar to us, quite a few of the Japanese intransitive action verbs of (55) show the structure *noun stem + general action verb suru* 'to do' in Japanese, with *suru* omitted in Palauan. Note that Palauan *kats* is also used as a noun meaning 'winner', and *make* is likewise used as a noun meaning 'loser'. Notice that Jp. *mawasu* 'to turn, screw' of (54) and Jp. *mawaru* 'to turn, go around' of (55) are related transitive-intransitive "partners" in Japanese.

As exceptions to the patterns of (54–55) above, a few Japanese *intransitive* verbs or expressions have been reinterpreted as Palauan *transitive* verbs. Thus, while Jp. *agaru* 'to rise, increase' is intransitive, Pal. *changar* has a transitive meaning—i.e., 'to promote (someone)'—in addition to some interesting intransitive meanings—i.e., '(salary, etc.) increase, (person) get excited, nervous'. To take another example, the intransitive Japanese expression *ki ga tsuku* 'to be aware of, attuned to' (as well as its negative equivalent *ki ga tsukanai* 'not be aware of, not be attuned to') is borrowed into Palauan as the transitive verb *kingatsku* 'to notice' (negative *kingatskanai* 'not notice').

LOANWORDS AS PALAUAN VERB STEMS

- 24.5. The internal structure of various classes of native Palauan words—in particular, nouns and verbs—is extremely varied and rich, with very well-developed systems of prefixes, infixes, and suffixes that are added to a given word stem. For example, as we saw in Lessons 5 and 6, Palauan transitive verbs occur in both imperfective and perfective forms, with each type composed of certain characteristic morphemes (meaning-bearing units) and the perfective forms involving a whole set of object pronoun suffixes (e.g., *-ak* of *cholebedak*, *-au* of *cholebedau*, *-ii* of *cholebedii*, and so on). In addition, we observed in later lessons that Palauan transitive verbs regularly have resulting state and expected state forms, and that many of them also have derived causative, reciprocal, and reduplicated forms.

Though you may wish to consult earlier lessons for certain details on the internal structure of Palauan verbs, the example below covers those points that will be important

in showing how loanwords can be used just like native verb stems. First of all, recall how a Palauan noun like *chelebed* 'whip, club, anything used to hit with' can be used as the stem for an entire group of related verb forms such as the following:

(56) *Verbs Derived from the Noun Stem chelebed*

- a. *Basic form:* Present: *mechelebed* 'gets hit'
Past: *milechelebed* 'got hit'

The basic form is derived by prefixing the verb marker *me-* to the stem *chelebed*. The past tense infix *-il-* is used to indicate the past tense.

- b. *Imperfective form:* Present: *mengelebed* 'hits, is hitting'
Past: *milengelebed* 'hit, was hitting'

The imperfective form is also prefixed with the verb marker *me-*. It is differentiated from the basic form because it has undergone the consonant alternation CH → NG. The past tense infix *-il-* is used to indicate the past tense.

- c. *Perfective forms:* Present: *cholebedak, cholebedau, cholebedii*, etc.
'hits me, you (sg.), him/her/it, etc.'
Past: *chillebedak, chillebedau, chillebedii*, etc.
'hit me, you (sg.), him/her/it, etc.'

The present tense perfective forms contain the verb marker *-o-* in the form of an infix. In the past tense, this marker is replaced by the past tense infix *-il-*. Perfective forms can be identified by the series of object pronoun suffixes *-ak, -au, -ii*, etc. attached to the stem.

- d. *Resulting state verb: chellebed* '(in a state resulting from having been) hit'

This form is derived by inserting the resulting state infix *-el-* after the initial consonant of the stem. A form like *chellebed* describes the state or condition that some person (or thing) is in as a result of having undergone the action of the verb.

- e. *Expected state verb: chelebedall* 'is/needs to be hit'

This form is derived by adding a suffix such as *-all* (*-el, -ull*, etc.) to the stem. A form like *chelebedall* indicates that the sentence subject (a person or thing) is expected or required to undergo the action of the verb.

A significant number of English loanwords have been Palauanized to the extent that they now serve as stems for an entire set of related verb forms such as those illustrated in (56) above. Five such stems of English origin are given in the examples below, which are presented in the same format as (56):

- (57) Noun stem: Pal. *kiis* from Eng. *keys*
- a. *Basic form:* Present: *mekiis* 'gets opened'
Past: *milekiis* 'got opened'
 - b. *Imperfective form:* Present: *mengiis* 'opens, is opening'
Past: *milengiis* 'opened, was opening'
 - c. *Perfective forms:* Present: *kiisii* 'opens it up'
Past: *kilisii* 'opened it up'
 - d. *Resulting state verb:* *kliis* '(in a state resulting from having been) opened'
 - e. *Expected state verb:* *kisall* 'is/needs to be opened'
- (58) Noun stem: Pal. *chasuart* from Eng. *asphalt*
- a. *Basic form:* Present: *mechesuart* 'gets asphalted'
Past: *milechesuart* 'got asphalted'
 - b. *Imperfective form:* Present: *mengesuart* 'puts asphalt on, is putting asphalt on'
Past: *milengesuart* 'put asphalt on, was putting asphalt on'
 - c. *Perfective forms:* Present: *chosuertii* 'asphalts it over'
chilsuertii 'asphalted it over'
 - d. *Resulting state verb:* *chelsuart* 'asphalted over'
 - e. *Expected state verb:* *chesuertall* 'is/needs to be asphalted'
- (59) Noun stem: Pal. *sebel* from Eng. *shovel*
- a. *Basic form:* Present: *mesebel* 'gets cleared of debris (by shoveling)'
Past: *milsebel*: 'got cleared of debris (by shoveling)'
 - b. *Imperfective form:* Present: *mesebel* 'shovels, removes dirt from'
Past: *milsebel* 'shoveled, removed dirt from'
 - c. *Perfective forms:* Present: *sobelii* 'shovels it out'
Past: *silebelii* 'shoveled it out'
 - d. *Resulting state verb:* *selebel* 'shoveled out, cleared of debris'
 - e. *Expected state verb:* [None observed]

The verb *mesebel* shows no consonant alternation, and therefore its basic and imperfective forms are identical.

- (60) Noun stem: Pal. *smengt* from Eng. *cement*
- a. *Basic form:* Present: *mesmengt* 'gets cemented'
Past: *milsmengt* 'got cemented'
 - b. *Imperfective form:* Present: *mesmengt* 'puts cement on, is putting cement on'
Past: *milsmengt* 'put cement on, was putting cement on'
 - c. *Perfective forms:* Present: *simengtii* 'cements it over'
Past: *silemengtii* 'cemented it over'
 - d. *Resulting state verb:* *selemengt* 'cemented over'
 - e. *Expected state verb:* *smengtall* 'is/needs to be cemented'

Like *mesebel* above, *mesmengt* also shows no consonant alternation, resulting in identical basic and imperfective forms.

- (61) Pal. *bomk* 'pump, small boat engine' from Eng. *pump*
- a. *Basic form:* Present: *obomk* 'gets pumped'
Past: *ulebomk* 'got pumped'
 - b. *Imperfective form:* Present: *omomk* 'pumps, is pumping'
Past: *ulemomk* 'pumped, was pumping'
 - c. *Perfective forms:* Present: *memkii* 'pumps it out'
Past: *milemkii* 'pumped it out'
 - d. *Resulting state form:* *blomk* 'pumped out'
 - e. *Expected state form:* *bemkall* 'is/needs to be pumped out'

Because the stem *bomk* begins with B, the verb marker prefix takes the form *o-*, which is replaced by *ule-* in the past tense. Note how the word-final consonant cluster MP of Eng. *pump* is adopted into Palauan as the unusual stem-final consonant cluster MK of *bomk*.

LOANWORDS AS PALAUAN NOUN STEMS

- 24.6. As we saw in Lesson 3, the great majority of Palauan nouns add suffixes to indicate the person (1st vs. 2nd vs. 3rd) and number (singular vs. plural) of the possessor. As indicated in 3.2.1 and 3.2.2, these *possessor suffixes* occur in four sets—the A-set, E-set, I-set, and U-set—depending on the characteristic vowel of the suffix in the three singular forms and in the first person plural inclusive form. A typical example from the E-set (which is the most common) is *charm* 'animal', whose possessed forms are given below:

(62) Possessed Forms of *charm* 'animal, pet'

chermek 'my animal'	chermed 'our (incl.) animal'
	chermam 'our (excl.) animal'
chermem 'your (sg.) animal'	chermiu 'your (pl.) animal'
chermel 'his/her animal'	chermir 'their (hum.) animal'

As we saw in 3.3 and 3.3.1–8, the possessed forms of Palauan nouns often show various types of *vowel weakening* in which a full vowel, double vowel, or vowel cluster occurring in the stressed syllable of the independent stem gets reduced in some way in the possessed form. This phonetic change occurs because the possessor suffixes themselves are always stressed, which means that any stressed full vowels, double vowels, or vowel clusters of the original stem automatically become unstressed in the possessed forms. Thus, for example, the full vowel A of the noun stem *charm* is reduced to a weak E in all the possessed forms given above (i.e., cherm-EK, cherm-EM, etc.). Other examples of vowel weakening involving the change from a single full vowel to a weak E are found in *reng* 'heart, spirit' (with full E) → *renguk*, *rengum*, etc. (with weak E), *chur* 'laughter' → *cherik*, *cherim*, etc., and similar examples. In the same way, vowel weakening can affect Palauan double vowels by shortening them to the corresponding single vowel (e.g., *oririk* 'broom' → *orikek*, *orikem*, etc.). Finally, vowel weakening also affects vowel clusters, usually by deleting one of the two vowels (e.g., *oach* 'leg' → *ochik*, *ochim*, etc.).

A significant number of loanword nouns, mostly from English, have been so assimilated into Palauan that they follow the pattern of noun possession seen for native nouns like *charm* 'animal' in (62) above. In every case, the possessor suffixes are from the E-set, and the patterns of vowel weakening apply regularly. Some typical examples are listed below, with the possessed noun given in the 3rd pers. sg. form only:

(63)	<i>Loan Source</i>	<i>Palauan Independent Noun</i>	<i>Palauan Possessed Noun</i>
Ger.	Schraube 'screw'	seraub	serubel
Jp.	taoru 'towel'	taor	torel
Eng.	box	baks	beksel
	dance	dangs	dengsel
	tank	tangk	tengkel
	shovel	sebel	sebelel
	keys	kiis	kisel
	school	skuul	skulel
	time	aem	temel
	pipe	baeb	bebel

If you pronounce all of the Palauan words in (63) carefully, you should have no trouble identifying the types of vowel weakening that have taken place. Single full vowels have been reduced to weak E in the possessed forms of *baks*, *dangs*, *tangk*, and *sebel*; double vowels have been shortened to single vowels in the possessed forms of *kiis* and *skuul*; and vowel clusters have been reduced to a single (full) vowel in the possessed forms of *seraub*, *taor*, *taem*, and *baeb*.

Many loanword nouns, especially vowel-final stems from Japanese, are accepted into the Palauan pattern of noun possession once they have been provided with a stem-final “buffer” syllable of the form *-leng-* or *-(e)ng-*. As seen in 3.3.9, quite a few native stems also exhibit a similar buffer—e.g., *bilas* ‘boat’ → *bilsengel*, *billum* ‘wrapped tapioca’ → *billemengel*, *uum* ‘kitchen’ → *umengel*, and so on. Note the following examples, with the Palauan possessed noun given in the third person singular only:

(64)	<i>Loan Source</i>	<i>Palauan Independent Noun</i>	<i>Palauan Possessed Noun</i>
Jp.	kama ‘sickle’	kamang	kamelengel
	bando ‘belt’	bando	bandelengel
	kata ‘shape’	kata	katelengel
	skaato ‘skirt’	skato	skatelengel
	zubon ‘pants’	subong	subelengel
	tama ‘ball’	tama	tamelengel
Eng.	bucket	baket	baketengel
	bamboo	bambuu	bambungel
	bag	bek	bekengel
	boat	bos	besengel
	book	buk	bukelengel
	cup	kob	kebengel
	matches	mases	masesengel
	soap	sob	sebengel

Can you identify the various types of vowel weakening that take place in the possessed forms of (64) above?

The borrowed nouns in (63) and (64) all fall into the category of *optionally possessed nouns* (see 3.5) because in addition to their possessed forms they also occur as independent words. Among borrowed noun stems, there are actually no examples of *obligatorily possessed nouns* like *obekul* ‘his older brother’, *bedengel* ‘its body, color’, etc., which must occur with a possessor pronoun suffix and have no independent stem (i.e., “obek” and “bedeng” are not separate forms in Palauan). While the examples of (63) and (64) illustrate that quite a few borrowed nouns have been totally Palauanized,

in fact the great majority of borrowed nouns remain in the *unpossessible* category (see 3.7)—i.e., they cannot take any possessor pronoun suffixes at all. Thus, in order to indicate possession with such nouns, we must employ a *possessor phrase* introduced by *er* (see 3.7.1), as in *sensei er ngak* 'my teacher', *sensei er hau* 'your (sg.) teacher', etc. Constructions of this type will be examined in more detail in 24.8.1 below.

LOANWORDS USED AS STEMS IN PALAUAN DERIVATIONAL PATTERNS; THE PREFIX OU-

- 24.7. Many words borrowed from other languages function rather freely as stems in a large variety of Palauan derivational patterns. Perhaps the prefix that occurs most frequently with foreign noun stems is *ou-* (see 6.3.3), which derives verbs that designate ownership of (use of, control over) a particular object or participation in some type of activity or interpersonal relationship. First of all, let us review how *ou-* is used with native noun stems, as shown in the examples below:

(65)	<i>Noun Stem</i>	<i>Derived Verb in ou-</i>
	blai 'house'	oublai 'own a house'
	charm 'animal, pet'	oucharm 'keep a pet'
	sers 'garden'	ousers 'keep a garden, do farming'
	sechelei 'friend'	ousechelei 'have (someone) as a friend'

The great majority of verbs in *ou-* formed with loanword stems are intransitive verbs derived from nouns. Some typical examples are given below:

(66)	<i>Loan Source</i>	<i>Palauan Noun</i>	<i>Palauan Intransitive Verb</i>
Ger.	Rad 'bicycle'	rrat	ourrat 'to have/own a bicycle'
Jp.	denwa 'telephone'	dengua	oudengua 'to have a telephone, make a telephone call'
	yakyuu 'baseball'	iakiu	ouiakiu 'to play baseball'
	shibai 'play'	sibai	ousibai 'to act in a play'
	jidoosha 'car'	sidosia	ousidosia 'to have/own a car'
	zuga 'picture'	sunga	ousunga 'to make a picture'
Eng.	basket (ball)	basket	oubasket 'to play basketball'
	card(s)	kat	oukat 'to play cards'
	store	stoang	oustoang 'to run/own a store'
	tape (recording)	teib	outeib 'to make/have a tape recording of'

Note 19: In addition to the above, Jp. *bakuchi* 'gambling' has been borrowed (with a meaning change) as Pal. *bakutsi* 'twenty-one (card game)'. As expected, the related Palauan intransitive verb *oubakutsi* means 'to play twenty-one'. Another interesting case is Jp. *ashi* 'foot', which actually does not occur as the expected independent noun "asi" in Palauan, even though the derived verb *ouasi* is frequently used and means 'to walk/go on foot (rather than use a vehicle)'.

In a few cases, a borrowed noun prefixed with *ou-* results in a Palauan transitive verb, as illustrated below:

(67)	<i>Loan Source</i>	<i>Palauan Noun</i>	<i>Palauan Transitive Verb</i>
Jp.	shirankao 'fake innocence'	sirangkao	ousirangkao 'to pretend that one is innocent'
	shiken 'test'	skeng	ouskeng 'to examine, give test to'
Eng.	dance	dangs	oudangs 'dance (some type of dance)'
	school	skuul	ouskuul 'to teach'

The Palauan verb *ousirangkao* is transitive because it takes a sentence object, as illustrated in the example below:

(68)	Ngara uchul me ke di ousirangkao er kau?	'Why are you pretending that you are innocent?/Why do you make it appear that you don't know anything?'
------	---	---

The Prefix *beke-*

24.7.1. Another commonly used Palauan prefix is *beke-* (see 7.5 and 7.5.1–4), which is found in state verbs that belong to two very different categories of meaning. First, when *beke-* is added to certain noun stems, we derive state verbs that indicate a habit or tendency to carry out a particular action. Thus, with native stems we have, for example, *beketekoi* 'talkative' from *tekoi* 'word, speech' and *bekesius* 'prone to swearing a lot, dirty-mouthed' from *sius* 'swearing'. A few borrowed noun stems can also be prefixed with *beke-* to give the connotation of a habit or tendency, as in Pal. *bekemongk* 'always complaining' (cf. Pal. *mongk* 'complaint' from Jp. *monku*) and Pal. *bekebet* 'prone to spending a lot of time in bed' (cf. Pal. *bet* from Eng. *bed*).

Second, *beke-* is also used with noun stems to derive state verbs that indicate a characteristic smell, as in the native words *bekecheluch* 'smelling of coconut oil' from *cheluch* 'coconut oil' and *bekengikel* 'smelling of fish' from *ngikel* 'fish'. A few foreign

nouns also appear with this meaning when prefixed with *beke-*, as in *bekekosui* ‘smelling of perfume’ (cf. Pal. *kosui* ‘perfume’ from Jp. *koosui*) and *bekekatuu* ‘smelling of a cat’ (cf. Pal. *katuu* from Sp. *gato*).

The Plural Prefix *re-*

- 24.7.2. As we observed in 2.5 and 2.5.1–3, the process of plural formation in Palauan is quite restricted, since the plural prefix *re-* (*r-* before a vowel) can only be added to a few groups of words, primarily noun stems referring to human beings. Thus, we have plural forms in the case of such native words as *chad* ‘person’—*rechad* ‘people’, *ngalek* ‘child’—*rengalek* ‘children’, *ekebil* ‘girl’—*rekebil* ‘girls’, and so forth. Loanword nouns referring to human beings can likewise be prefixed with *re-* to derive a plural form, as in *sensei* ‘teacher’—*resensei* ‘teachers’ (from Jp. *sensei*), *toktang* ‘doctor’—*retoktang* ‘doctors’ (from Eng. *doctor*), etc.

In addition, Palauan uses a special prefix consisting of the plural morpheme *re-* followed by another element *-chi-* to indicate nationalities, as in *Ruk* ‘Truk’—*rechiruk* ‘Trukese people’. This prefix can also accompany nonnative stems, as in *Dois* ‘Germany’—*rechidois* ‘Germans’ (from Jp. *doitsu*) and *Merikel* ‘America’—*rechimerikel* ‘Americans’ (from Eng. *American*).

Additional Prefixes

- 24.7.3. Another prefix added to Palauan nouns is *kl(e)-* (see 8.5), which is used to derive abstract nouns with the meaning “the experience of being ...” or “the act of doing...” Thus, in addition to examples from the native vocabulary such as *chad* ‘person, human being’—*klechad* ‘human life, way of life’, we find cases based on loanword stems such as *sensei* ‘teacher’—*klensei* ‘the experience of being a teacher’ (from Jp. *sensei*) and *doraib* ‘drive’—*kledoraib* ‘the action of driving around in a car’ (from Eng. *drive*).

As one final example of the application of Palauan derivational patterns to foreign vocabulary, observe how the reciprocal prefix *kau-* (see Les. 10) can be added to loanword nouns to form related reciprocal verbs. Some interesting examples are *mondai* ‘problem’—*haumondai* ‘dispute, argue over’ (from Jp. *mondai*) and *musung* ‘cooperative enterprise’—*haumusung* ‘participate jointly in a cooperative enterprise’ (from Jp. *mujin* ‘mutual financial business’).

LOANWORDS AND PATTERNS OF PALAUAN GRAMMAR

- 24.8. By and large, the Palauan grammatical system has easily accepted the various classes of loanwords that have come into the language from foreign sources. Thus, as we saw in (48) of 24.4 above, there is no distinction between native vs. borrowed nouns in terms of their ability to function as sentence subject, sentence object, and in relational

phrases introduced by *er*. In the same way, adjectives and similar word classes from Japanese are readily adopted into Palauan as state verbs and as such show the expected grammatical features of state verbs—e.g., formation of the past tense with the auxiliary *mle* (see 24.4.2). In the sections below, we will examine two additional areas in which the grammatical system of Palauan has been especially flexible in dealing with loanwords.

Indicating Possession with Loanwords

- 24.8.1. As we mentioned in 24.6 above, native Palauan nouns fall into three classes with regard to the feature of possession. Thus, in addition to optionally possessed nouns (which occur in an independent form as well as with possessor suffixes—e.g., *charm* vs. *chermek*, *chermem*, etc.) and obligatorily possessed nouns (which have no independent form and *must* occur with possessor suffixes—e.g., *obekuk*, *obekum*, etc.), Palauan has a group of *unpossessible nouns* (see 3.7) that never take possessor suffixes at all. In order to express possession with such nouns (which mostly include proper nouns and nouns designating animals, plants, or parts of the natural environment), Palauan speakers use a special type of *noun phrase of possession* containing a *possessor phrase* introduced by *er* (see 3.7.1 if you need to review the details). Two typical examples of noun phrases of possession in which the first noun is unpossessible are *delmerab er ngak* ‘my room’ and *ius er Belau* ‘Palauan crocodile’; in both cases, the possessed noun is followed by a possessor phrase in which *er* introduces the noun or pronoun indicating the possessor.

While some loanword nouns have been assimilated into Palauan as optionally possessed nouns (see the examples in 63–64 of 24.6), most nouns of foreign origin actually fall into the unpossessible category. In fact, loanword nouns stand out statistically as the largest subgroup of unpossessible nouns in modern Palauan! Because of their status as unpossessible nouns, we cannot use possessor suffixes but must express the possessor by means of a possessor phrase introduced by *er*. Here are a few interesting examples:

- (69) a. *rosario er a Maria* ‘Maria’s rosary’ (from Sp. *rosario*)
 b. *babier er ngii* ‘his letter/paper’ (from Ger. *Papier* ‘paper’)
 c. *mesil er a dengki* ‘generator’ (i.e., ‘machine of electricity’) (from Ger. *Maschine* ‘machine’)
 d. *dongu er a kldaiksang* ‘carpentry tools’ (from Jp. *doogu*)
 e. *kotai er a ochur* ‘answer to the math problem’ (from Jp. *kotai*)
 f. *klok er ngak* ‘my clock/watch’ (from Eng. *clock*)
 g. *stoa er a Droteo* ‘Droteo’s store’ (from Eng. *store*)

Note 20: For certain speakers, the borrowed noun *babier* 'letter, paper' has been fully assimilated into the class of optionally possessed nouns, since these speakers use the forms *babilngek* 'my letter/paper', *babilngem* 'your (sg.) letter/paper', and so on. Note that in such expressions as (69c–d), both the first noun and the noun indicating the possessor happen to be borrowed words. Finally, in (69c), *kldaiksang* 'being a carpenter' is an abstract noun formed by prefixing *kl-* to the borrowed noun *daiksang* 'carpenter' (from Jp. *daiku* 'carpenter' + *san* 'Mr.'). See 24.7.3 above for additional examples of the prefix *kl(e)-*.

Borrowed Action Verbs in the Past Tense

- 24.8.2.** As observed at the beginning of 24.4.1 above, Palauan state verbs use the auxiliary *mle* 'was, were' to express the past tense, while action verbs (transitive and intransitive) take the infix past tense marker *-il-*. Use of the infix past tense marker *-il-* with action verbs derived from foreign stems is actually quite rare, since it is restricted to a very small number of items such as those listed in (57–61) of 24.5—namely, verbs like *mengiis* 'to open', *mengesuart* 'to put asphalt on', *mesebel* 'to shovel', *mesmengt* 'to cement', and *omomk* 'to pump'.

With the exception of these very interesting examples (in which Palauanization has led to basic, imperfective, and perfective forms containing the prefixed verb marker *me-* or *o-* or the infix verb marker *-o-*, in addition to resulting and expected state forms containing the same infixes and suffixes found in native words), transitive and intransitive action verbs of foreign origin (see 24.4.3 above) are completely "immune" to past tense formation with infix *-il-*. With *-il-* prevented, they instead use the native pattern for *state* verbs—namely, the auxiliary *mle*—since this pattern provides an alternative way of overtly marking the past tense. This usage is illustrated in the examples below, where we first give the verb of foreign origin and then provide an example of how it is used in a sentence designating the past tense. In the examples of (70) the borrowed action verb is transitive, while in those of (71) it is intransitive:

- (70) a. *harau* 'to pay (for)' (from Jp. *harau*)
 A sensei a mle harau er a blals. 'The teacher paid the fine.'
- b. *siraber* 'to examine, investigate' (from Jp. *shiraberu*)
 A bulis a mle siraber er tia el tekoi. 'The police investigated this matter.'
- c. *skamaer* 'to confront, face, corner' (from Jp. *tsukamaeru* 'to catch, seize, arrest')
 Ng techa a mle skamaer er kau? 'Who was it who cornered you?'
- (71) a. *bakuhats* 'to explode, blow up' (from Jp. *bakuhatsu [suru]*)
 Ng mle bakuhats a tangk. 'The tank(s) exploded.'

- b. *sengkio* 'to vote' (from Jp. *senkyo* [*suru*])
 A betok el chad a mle sengkio. 'A lot of people voted.'
- c. *saing* 'to sign name as pledge to abstain from liquor' (from Eng. *sign*)
 A Toki a mle saing er a kesus. 'Toki pledged last night to abstain from liquor.'

Needless to say, state verbs of foreign origin such as those presented in (49–53) of 24.4.1 and 24.4.2 above are identical to native state verbs in using the auxiliary *mle* for the past tense. Thus, we have, for instance, *ksai* 'foul-smelling'—*mle ksai* (from Jp. *kusai*), *kantang* 'simple'—*mle kantang* (from Jp. *kantan*), and so on. In addition, all Palauan state verbs take the auxiliary *mo* (past tense: *mlo*) to express a *change of state*, as in the native words *mekeald* 'hot'—*mlo mekeald* 'got hot', *ungil* 'good'—*mlo ungil* 'became good, improved', etc. The very same pattern is of course used with state verbs of foreign origin as well—e.g., *sabisi* 'lonely'—*mlo sabisi* 'got lonely' (from Jp. *sabishii*), *kitsingai* 'crazy, insane'—*mlo kitsingai* 'went crazy' (from Jp. *kichigai*), and so on.

LOANWORDS AND MEANING CHANGE IN PALAUAN

- 24.9. As we have seen in the examples so far given, the great majority of foreign words have been borrowed into Palauan with no change in their meaning. Nevertheless, there are still quite a few striking cases in which the original meaning of a loanword has been significantly modified. Though it is difficult to categorize the many types of meaning change that can occur when one language borrows words from another, we can nevertheless pinpoint the three major types of meaning change that are observed.

Narrowing

First of all, in a process of meaning change called *narrowing*, a loanword that has a rather general meaning in the contributing language comes to be used in the borrowing language to indicate a more specific member, subtype, or subclass of the original group or category described. Various types of narrowing are observed in the loanwords listed below:

(72)	<i>Loan Source</i>	<i>Palauan</i>
Ger.	Bild 'picture'	bilt 'holy picture'
	Turm 'tower'	turm 'church tower, steeple'
Jp.	bangoo 'number'	bangngo 'identification number, door number, number in batting order (baseball)'
	bokusoo 'grass, pasture'	bokso 'elephant grass (used as animal feed)'

	ainoko 'halfbreed child'	chainoko 'half-Japanese and half-Palauan'
	iroiro 'various, diverse, miscellaneous'	chirochiro 'many-colored, (children of particular woman) fathered by different men'
	ude 'arm'	chude 'biceps'
	eki 'liquid, fluid'	cheki 'battery acid'
	hake 'brush'	hake 'paint brush'
	hontoo 'main island'	honto 'Babeldaob'
	kankoodan 'tourist group'	kankodang '(individual) tourist'
	kansoku 'observation, survey'	kansok 'weather survey'
	machi 'town, city'	mats 'main town, capital'
	minatohan 'harbor area'	minatohang 'area of Koror between Neco Store and T-Dock'
	nappa 'greens'	nappa 'cabbage'
Eng.	blocks	blaks 'cement blocks'
	ground	kurangd 'playground'
	number	lambang 'identification number, telephone number'
	sauce	sos 'soya sauce'

In all of the examples above, it is easy to see how the original meaning of the loanword has been narrowed down to indicate a much more specific item. Thus, for example, while Jp. *bangoo* is a general word for "number", Pal. *bangngo* specifically indicates a number used for purposes of identification. As a very extreme case, Jp. *hontoo* refers to any main island, while its Palauan equivalent *honto* refers solely to Babeldaob, the largest island of Palau. A few of the words above are themselves unusual in Japanese: thus, *minatohan* is archaic (no longer used), and *nappa* is a dialect (i.e., non-standard) term.

In some interesting cases, the Palauan word not only preserves the more general meaning of the original item but also develops a more specialized meaning. A few examples are given below:

(73)	Loan Source	Palauan
	Ger. Gummi 'rubber'	kumi 'rubber; rubber band'
	Jp. bakudan 'bomb'	bakudang 'bomb; dynamite'
	kata 'shape, form'	kata 'shape, form; frame for weaving'
	Eng. pipe	baeb 'pipe; windpipe'

Widening

Second, in a process of meaning change called *widening* (or *expansion*), just the opposite of narrowing takes place. In other words, a term with a fairly specific (or specialized) meaning in the contributing language is borrowed into Palauan and given a wider, more general meaning, perhaps being used to refer to the entire class of which the original item is a part or member. Widening or expansion of meaning appears in loanwords such as the following:

(74)	<i>Loan Source</i>	<i>Palauan</i>
Jp.	baikin 'bacterium, germ'	baiking 'disease'
	booi 'page, waiter, porter, bellhop'	boi 'servant'
	bookuugoo 'dugout, air-raid shelter'	bokungo 'deep hole, pit'
	kenpei 'military police'	kembei 'police'
	rinbyoo 'gonorrhoea'	rimbio 'venereal disease'
Eng.	rum	rrom 'liquor'

All of the examples of widening given above are typified by the example of Eng. *rum*, a specific type of liquor, which as Pal. *rrom* refers to liquor in general (i.e., any type of liquor at all).

In certain cases, the Palauan word maintains the original specific meaning and, in addition, develops a more general meaning. Observe the examples below:

(75)	<i>Loan Source</i>	<i>Palauan</i>
Jp.	otsuri 'change (from purchase)'	otsuri 'change (from purchase); benefit, recompense'
	saidaa 'cider'	saidang 'cider; soft drink'
Eng.	buoy	boi 'buoy; property marker (on land)'
	Sunday	sandei 'Sunday; week'

Extension

Third, we have a process of meaning change called *extension* (or *shift*), which is rather different from both narrowing and widening. When extension occurs, a term originally representing one member of a given category or group is extended or shifted to refer to another co-member of that category or group. In addition, extension sometimes involves a rather imprecise shift of meaning from the original item to a referent having similar or related properties. The examples below illustrate cases of extension:

(76)	<i>Loan Source</i>	<i>Palauan</i>
Ger.	Mark 'mark (unit of currency)' schenken 'to give, send'	mak 'fifty cents (old value of one mark)' sengk 'gift on child's first birthday'
Jp.	budoo 'grape' denkibu 'Department of Electricity' han 'fief, feudal domain' moochoo 'appendix' ninjin 'carrot' sarumata 'shorts, trunks' toogan 'wax gourd'	budo 'Panama cherry' dengkibu 'power plant' hang 'hamlet' motsio 'appendicitis' ninzin 'type of sweet potato (with orange-colored inside)' sarumata 'panties' tongang 'squash'
Eng.	flour ball four	blauang 'bread' borhua 'walk (in baseball)'

As typical examples of extension, words indicating various fruits or vegetables in Japanese—e.g., *budoo*, *ninjin*, and *toogan*—are now used in Palauan to designate similar, but not identical, items of food. Also, while *denkibu* is the technical Japanese term for an administrative office—namely, the Department of Electricity—its Palauan counterpart refers to the power plant itself. Finally, when Eng. *flour* was adopted into Palauan as *blauang*, its meaning was shifted to indicate a food produced with flour—namely, bread.

In addition, there are a few cases in which the Palauan word not only maintains the original meaning but also develops one or more extended or shifted meanings, as seen in the examples below:

(77)	<i>Loan Source</i>	<i>Palauan</i>
Ger.	Papier 'paper, document'	babier 'paper, document; book; letter'
Jp.	tama 'ball, marble' tanjoobi 'birthday'	tama 'ball, marble; fried flour ball' tansiobi 'birthday; birthday party'
Eng.	clock soursop table trunk	klok 'clock; watch' sausab 'soursop; spade or heart in cards' tebel 'table; desk; chair' torangk 'trunk; suitcase'

Perhaps the most interesting example above is Pal. *sausab*, in which the meaning shift is based on a similarity between the shape of the soursop fruit and that of the heart and spade symbols in cards. To distinguish hearts from spades, the following terms are used: *bekerekard el sausab* 'heart (i.e., red soursop)' and *chedelekelek el sausab* 'spade (i.e., black soursop)'.

LIST OF TERMS

24.10. Below is a list of the most important terms used in this lesson. Whether new or previously introduced, they are all relevant to the topic of foreign borrowing in Palauan.

- **Loan Source**
- **Loanword**
- **Palauanization**
- **Full E vs. Weak E, Stressed vs. Unstressed Syllable**
- **Tense vs. Lax Articulation (for English vowels)**
- **Part-of-Speech Category**
- **Action Verb vs. State Verb**
- **Modifying Word (in Japanese)**
- **Palauan Verb Forms:**
 - Basic Form, Imperfective Form, Perfective Forms,**
 - Resulting State Form, Expected State Form**
- **(Optionally) Possessed Noun vs. Unpossessible Noun**
- **Noun Phrase of Possession, Possessor Phrase**
- **Processes of Vowel Weakening**
- **Prefix (used to derive nouns and verbs)**
- **Narrowing**
- **Widening**
- **Extension**

**24.11. THE IMPACT OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES ON PALAUAN:
STUDY QUESTIONS**

1. Define each of the terms given in 24.10 above, and illustrate with at least one clear example. Be sure that you indicate how the term you are defining is relevant to what we have studied in this lesson—namely, the impact of foreign languages on Palauan.
2. What four foreign countries and their languages have had a large influence on Palauan culture and language? During what periods of history did these countries have influence over Palau?
3. What single foreign language do you think has had the greatest impact on Palauan and why?
4. In what ways has the inventory of individual Palauan sounds and sound combinations been increased under the influence of sounds from other languages?
5. How do sounds like “m”, “b”, “p”, “f”, and “v” get adopted into Palauan from foreign languages?
6. Why is it sometimes difficult to tell whether a particular word in Palauan comes from Japanese or English?
7. What are the rules for pronouncing the sounds “t” and “d” when they are borrowed into Palauan from other languages?
8. What particular foreign sounds come to be pronounced as “s” (and spelled with the letter S) in Palauan?
9. What are the sources of the nonnative Palauan sounds “ts” and “z” (spelled TS and Z)?
10. What are the rules for pronouncing the sound “k” when it is borrowed into Palauan from foreign languages?
11. Distinguish between the Palauan sound “n” as part of the native sound system vs. the very same sound “n” when it occurs within borrowed words.
12. When the sound “ng” (spelled NG) occurs in a word that Palauan has borrowed from another language, does this definitely mean that its source also contained an original “ng” sound? Explain your answer with specific examples.
13. How have certain words taken into Palauan developed the sounds “ng” (spelled NG) or “ngng” (spelled NGNG) word-internally?
14. What is the major source of CH in Palauan loanwords?

15. Is it easy to predict how the sounds “l” and “r” will turn out when words containing them are borrowed into Palauan?
16. What are the possible sources of the nonnative Palauan sound “h” (spelled H)?
17. How does the Palauan vowel system compare with that of other languages such as Spanish, German, Japanese, and English?
18. What is the relationship between the contrast *stressed vs. unstressed syllable* and the contrast *full vs. weak E*? What often happens to a full vowel when the word containing it is borrowed into Palauan?
19. What is the distinction between “tense” vs. “lax” vowels in English? What happens to this distinction when English words are borrowed into Palauan? Illustrate clearly with several good examples.
20. Under what circumstances does an extra weak E often appear in a Palauan loanword?
21. Which Japanese vowels are often omitted when the word in which they occur is borrowed into Palauan? Is it possible to predict when such vowels will be omitted? Explain with clear examples.
22. What happens to long Japanese vowels during the process of borrowing into Palauan? Illustrate with several examples.
23. What part-of-speech categories do foreign nouns fall into when they are borrowed into Palauan? Give specific examples.
24. What types of Japanese modifying words and expressions become state verbs in Palauan? Provide clear examples of each.
25. What usually happens when Japanese or English transitive and intransitive action verbs are borrowed into Palauan? Illustrate with specific examples.
26. Illustrate with a full set of examples how particular loanwords have become stems in Palauan for an entire series of related verb forms.
27. Show how certain nouns from foreign languages have been totally Palauanized and now serve as the stems for optionally possessed nouns. What processes of vowel weakening can we observe in the possessed forms of these nouns?
28. Show with several clear examples how loanwords can function in Palauan in the following derivational patterns:
 - a. verbs derived with the prefix *ou-*
 - b. verbs derived with the prefix *beke-*
 - c. verbs derived with the prefix *kau-*

- d. nouns derived with the prefix *re-*
 e. nouns derived with the prefix *kl(e)-*
29. How do we express possession with foreign noun stems that have not been Palauanized—i.e., stems like *sensei* 'teacher' that cannot take possessor pronouns as suffixes?
30. How do we express the past tense with action verbs of foreign origin? Give clear examples of the two major patterns found.
31. What are the three major types of meaning change that can occur when words are taken into Palauan from foreign languages? Give a clear example of each type and explain how the meaning change operates in each case.

24.12. THE IMPACT OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES ON PALAUAN: EXERCISES

1. For each of the Palauan borrowed words below, consult the *NPED* to determine the loan source. Indicate the contributing language and the word as originally spelled in that language (using Romanization for Japanese). Then, in as much detail as possible, describe what phonetic changes took place when the loan source was borrowed into Palauan.

adios	bengster	Biskor	buraia
charuminium	deser	kse	bangkeik
bento	blangtanos	buts	chitabori
dolmers	kutsibeni	bastaor	berib
bomado	chaburabang	chundo	hall
nitske	bengngos	bioingsen	bumpo
chaikodetsiu	daingak	iotsieng	siasing
Siabal	siokumins	sotsungioski	suester
tebkuro	ziu	tsios	ziangkempo

2. For each of the Palauan borrowed words below, consult the *NPED* to determine the loan source. Indicate the contributing language and the word as originally spelled in that language (using Romanization for Japanese). Carefully compare the meaning of the word as originally used in Spanish, German, Japanese, or English with the meaning of its current Palauan counterpart. Then, in as much detail as possible, describe what type of meaning change must have occurred during the course of borrowing, making use of the technical terms *narrowing*, *widening*, and *extension*.

bar	huseng	chami	chanzeng
chikes	katate	kombalii	koziak
batrol	blauang	chazinomoto	chamt
chos	katsudo	komuteib	kudamono

bert	butiliang	changar	chea
iama	klas	kori	kumi
kungreng	kurob	minatobasi	namari
semmong	skarister	stangi	tansiobi

3. All of the Palauan nouns listed below are borrowed from foreign languages. For each word given, indicate whether the stem is optionally possessed or unpossessible. If optionally possessed, provide the possessed form with a third person singular possessor; if unpossessible, provide a noun phrase of possession using the third person singular emphatic pronoun *ngii*.

Examples: taem: optionally possessed: temel
sensei: unpossessible: sensei er ngii

bento	taor	klas	mado	nimots
skato	tama	makit	haisara	hermet
mats(i)	sausab	skidas	kiis	babier
kahol	kob	nezimauas	sarumata	sob
seraub	kai	kaisia	iasai	mihong
sebel	taib	mases	bos	katuu
kurob	mondai	singio	tsios	serangk

4. All of the Palauan state verbs given below have their origin in a foreign word or expression. Use each item in an interesting, well-constructed Palauan sentence, and provide an appropriate English translation. Be sure to use past tense forms in some of your examples.

bozu	hutsu	hambung
kitsingai	diablong	kangkeister
martiliiong	chamatter	komakai
skarister	omosiroi	kosio
seitak	chauanai	chirochiro
dekster	ksai	sabisi

5. All of the Palauan (transitive or intransitive) action verbs given below have their origin in a foreign word or expression. Use each action verb in an interesting, well-constructed Palauan sentence, and provide a correct English translation. Be sure to use past tense forms in some of your examples.

iaksok	kotouar	tsiui
mengesuart	kats	kauar
seiko	mesebel	kohei
kingatsku	oudengua	toker
ouskeng	mengelebus	tomer

6. Each of the words or expressions below contains a word (or stem) of foreign origin. Using the *NPED* if necessary, translate each item into idiomatic English. For expressions containing two or more words, comment on how the meaning of the entire expression can be derived from the meanings of its individual parts. Note that some of the items below may be old-fashioned, and therefore they might not be part of your personal vocabulary.

bokket er a mlai	ongor er a Marialas
blil a babier	songngai er a mekemad
tsios er ngak	rektir a rechad er a Dois
blil a bulis	(er) se er a taem er a Siabal
ouchansing	ouskarister
oucharai	blil a komi
olechelubel el sob	berel er a neibi
soal a mondai el chad	medal a tangk
mesil er a mamed	ngalek er a skuul
klde el mak	blil a klas
kets er a kall	mengam a ochil a katuu
bebel a omerkaol	er a bebil er a taem
tama er a dengki	outakai
chemars a baketengel	ouskarister
krasia er Dios	bat er a iakiu
ouziangkempo	chainoko er a Siabal
blil a kas	kekka er a sengkio
seitak a rengul el chad	seinendang el redil
ng ungil a singio er ngii	(er) tia el mlo merek el sandei
oudokuritsu	mo nenneng
oumongkii	chad er a sebadong
bekemilk	chad er a sibai
ta el mang	komu er a oluches
te menga a sub	kitsingai er a bakutsi
blil a kelebus	tebel er a omesuub
melai er a kataki	chad er a bakutsi
tama er a boes	blil a dongu
barb er a mesil	chad er a honto (H.O.)
bomk er a cheluch	ng kab a otengel
kata er a keik	kauoni

INDEX: Volume II

Index to Lessons 1–24 (Volumes I and II)

All of the references in this index are to the section numbers in the textbook. A notation such as “N6” refers to a particular *Note* found within the indicated section.

A

- A** See also **conjunction** *a 'if'*
absent before initial verb phrase of
dependent clause 14.1.1
distinguished from conjunction *a 'if'* 17.2
used to introduce certain major Palauan
sentence elements 2.6, 2.6.1, 2.6.2,
2.6.3, 4.4.3:N6, 4.4.4:N9, 5.4.3.b
- ability**
expressed by obligatorily possessed noun
sebechel 3.10, 4.6.2.c, 15.7.3
affected by preposing 15.7
followed by specifying clause 14.6.10
expressed by state verb prefixed with *beke-*
or *seke-* 7.5.2
expressed by transitive state verb 7.1.a, 7.10
- abstract noun**
derived from reciprocal verb 8.4, 10.3
derived from state verb 8.3, 8.3.1, 8.5
derived with *kle-* 8.5
exemplified by *reng* 4.6.2
reng and preposing in sentences containing
its possessed forms 15.4.4
vs. concrete noun 2.2.2
with form of obligatorily possessed noun
kirel 15.7.3
- abstract (or underlying) stem**
of expected state verb 7.8.3:N8
- accompaniment clause** 14.5
as type of specifying clause 14.6
characterized by special word *obengkel* 14.5
interchangeability of 14.5:N9
vs. *dmak* followed by specifying clause 14.6.2
- action in progress** 6.9, 6.9.1
expressed by present tense verb form 6.9.4
- action noun (or derived action noun)** 8.7,
10.2.1:N1
contrasted with condition clause 17.5.1
followed by specifying clause 14.6.11
object expressed by relational phrase 13.10
possessed forms of 14.6.11:N19
used to indicate change of state in progress
13.4.1.4:N10
with obligatorily possessed noun *kirel* 15.7.3
- action sentence** 2.3.1, 2.3.2
- action verb**
defined 2.3.3.a, 5.2
immediately following directional verb
13.4.1.2
imperative 17.7
in future tense 5.5.4
in past tense 5.3.1, 5.5.2.2, 5.5.2.3, 6.6.a,
6.6.b, 7.1.b
intransitive 6.2, 11.1
followed by relational phrase 13.2
followed by source phrase 13.5
in inceptive form 12.4, 12.7
in predictive form 12.4, 12.7
reduplicated 11.7
used as modifier 22.2
of foreign origin 5.5.2.1, 24.8.2
prefixed with *o-* to derive action noun 8.7
prefixed with *ou-* 6.3.3
reduplicated 11.10
transitive 5.2, 5.6.a.1, 6.2.1, 8.1, 11.1
basic (or processive) form of 5.6.1, 5.7,
5.7.1, 5.7.2, 5.7.2.1, 6.2.1, 9.9
causative verb as type of 9.1, 9.5
consonant alternation in 5.6.3

- derived from state verb by consonant alternation 7.11
 - expected state form of 7.8
 - followed by relational phrase 13.2
 - followed by source phrase 13.5
 - imperfective form of 5.6.3, 6.2.1
 - reduplicated 11.9, 11.9.1, 11.9.2
 - in inceptive form 12.5
 - in predictive form 12.5
 - perfective forms of 5.6.2, 6.4.1
 - reduplicated 11.8, 11.9, 11.9.1
 - related to reciprocal verb 10.2.3
 - resulting state form of 7.7
 - used as modifier 22.2
 - with independent vs. bound stem 5.7.1, 5.7.2, 5.7.2.1
- transitive vs. intransitive 5.2
- used as stem for causative verb 9.2, 9.2.2, 9.2.3
- vs. state verb 5.3, 5.3.1, 5.3.1:N4, 7.1.a, 7.9, 11.6:N6
- with auxiliary *mo* 5.5.4
- with verb marker infix *-em-*, etc. 5.6.c.1, 5.6.c.2
- with verb marker prefix *me-*, etc. 5.6.a.1, 5.6.a.2
- with verb marker prefix *o-* 5.5.2.3, 5.6.b.1
- action word** 2.3.1, 2.3.2
- adjective** (in English)
 - borrowed into Palauan as noun 24.4.1:N15
- affirmative**
 - expression of existence 4.6.2.b, 15.4.1, 16.1
 - allowing preposing of possessor 15.4.3
 - restrictions on preposing post-predicate subject of 15.4.1
- agreement**
 - between object pronoun and form of *merekusi* in specifying clause 14.6.4
 - between object pronoun and specific sentence object 4.9.4, 15.1:N1
 - between pre-verbal (or pre-predicate) non-emphatic pronoun and post-verbal (or post-predicate) subject noun phrase 4.6, 15.1
- alphabet** 1.1
- alternation**
 - between stressed full vowel of expected state verb vs. weak E or no vowel in related forms 7.8.3
- of consonant absent in causative verb forms 9.5
- of consonant absent in certain imperfective vs. perfective (and basic) verb forms 5.6.3.1, 6.2.1:N1, 11.9
- of consonant absent in certain intransitive action verbs 6.3.1:N4
- of consonant absent in certain transitive action verbs derived from noun stems 6.3:N3
- of consonant in imperfective vs. perfective (and basic) verb forms 5.6.3, 5.6.3:N10, 5.6.3:N11, 6.2.1, 7.5.1:N4, 11.9
- of consonant in intransitive action verbs 6.3.1
- of consonant in reduplicated forms of imperfective transitive action verbs 11.9, 11.9.1
- of consonants S and K in certain expected state verbs 7.8.2.5:N7
- of consonant to derive transitive verb from state verb 7.11
- of verb marker as prefix vs. infix 5.6.2, 6.4.2
- of vowel U or O with consonant M in certain transitive action verbs derived from noun stems 6.3:N2
- animals**
 - as nonhuman nouns 2.2.1
 - pronouns referring to 2.4.2:N3
 - represented by demonstrative words 22.3.4
 - represented by number set 22.5.3
- antecedent** 4.5, 4.5:N11, 4.5:N12, 4.5.1
 - in sentences involving switching the condition and consequent clauses 17.3
- appositional phrase** 3.9, 21.5
 - containing emphatic pronoun 4.4.5:N10
 - containing relative clause 21.5
- A-set of possessor suffixes** 3.2.2
- auxiliary (verb) *mla***
 - for past experience 5.5.3, 6.9.2
 - for recent past event 5.5.3, 6.9.2, 13.4.1.4
 - used with causative verbs 9.4, 9.5.1
 - used with reciprocal verbs 10.1.1
 - with perfective vs. imperfective verb forms 6.9.2
- auxiliary (verb) *mle***
 - in equational sentence 2.3.3.b

to indicate past tense with action verbs of foreign origin 5.5.2.1, 24.8.2
 to indicate past tense with reciprocal verbs 10.1.1
 to indicate past tense with state verbs 5.3.1, 5.5.2, 7.1.b
 used with expected state verbs 7.8
 used with resulting state verbs 7.7
 used with transitive state verbs 7.10
 vs. past tense marker *-il-* with identical verb stem 7.9

auxiliary (verb) *mo*

as distinguishing feature between action vs. state verbs 5.3.1:N4, 5.5.4
 basic directional meaning vs. change of state 5.3.1:N4
 used to indicate change of state 7.1.a, 12.3.1, 13.4.1.4
 used to indicate future 5.5.4, 12.3.1
 used with causative verbs 9.4, 9.5.1
 used with expected state verbs 7.8
 used with perfective vs. imperfective verb forms 6.9.3
 used with reciprocal verbs 10.1.1, 13.4.1.4

B**basic (or processive) form** 5.6.1

of causative verb 9.9
 of transitive action verb 5.6.1, 5.7, 5.7.1, 5.7.2, 5.7.2.1, 6.2.1
 in inceptive form 12.5.1
 in predictive form 12.5.1
 meaning of 5.5.1:N8, 5.6.1, 9.9, 12.3.1, 12.5.1
 reduplicated 11.8, 11.8.1
 past tense of 6.6.a.1
 structure of 5.5.1:N8, 5.6.1
 used to derive perfective forms 6.4.1.b
 used to express warning or suggestion 5.5.1:N8, 6.9.4, 12.3.1
 with cause phrase 13.6:N12
 with prefix pronoun (and verb marker prefix) 6.7.3:N6

basic (sentence type)

vs. derived 15.2
 with double subject 15.2

beneficiary

expressed by specifying clause containing *kirel* 15.7.3
 of transitive action verb *omsang* 15.9

borrowed words

containing NG 1.2.8.d(3), 24.2.5, 24.2.5.2, 24.2.5.3, 24.2.5.4
 containing non-Palauan consonants F, H, N, P, Z 1.2.13, 24.2.3.1, 24.2.8, 24.2.9
 containing “n” sound 1.2.8.d(1-2), 24.2.5.1
 exhibiting pronunciation of full E 1.3.2.f(5), 24.3
 indicating time 22.5.1:N2
 influencing Palauan sound system 24.1
 pronunciation of 1.2.6:N9, 24.1

bound

noun stems 5.7.2, 5.7.2.1
 pronouns 4.2, 4.8, 5.7.2
 object pronouns 1.3.9.d.3, 4.9
 possessor pronouns 1.3.9.d.4
 prefix pronouns 1.3.9.d.5, 4.10, 17.1
 stems in causative verbs 10.2.1
 stems in intransitive action verbs 6.2, 6.4
 stems in reciprocal verbs 10.2.1
 stems in state verbs 6.2, 7.3, 7.5.1, 7.5.2, 7.5.4, 7.6, 8.3
 stems in transitive action verbs 6.3
 suffix within demonstrative word 22.3.3
 vs. independent 7.3

C**category noun (or word)**

emphatic pronoun as 4.4.5:N10
 in appositional phrase 3.9, 21.5

causative marker 9.2.2:N2**causative meaning**

of causative verb 5.5.2.3, 9.1, 9.1:N1, 9.8
 of transitive verb derived from state verb by consonant alternation 7.11

causative prefix

distribution of 9.2.1, 9.2.2, 9.2.3, 9.2.4, 9.11
 variant forms of 5.5.2.3, 6.3.2, 7.7.2, 9.2

causative verb 5.8.d, 6.3.2, 9.1, 9.11, 11.1

basic form of 9.9
 expected state form of 7.8.3:N10, 9.2, 9.7
 used as noun 8.2.3

- formed from intransitive action verb 9.2.2
- formed from noun 9.2, 9.2.4
- formed from state verb 9.2, 9.2.1
- formed from transitive action verb 9.2.3
- in future tense 9.4, 9.5.1
- in past tense 5.5.2.3, 6.6.a.4, 9.4
- in present tense 9.4
- internal structure of 9.2
- meaning of 5.5.2.3, 9.1, 9.1:N1, 9.8
- multiple forms of 9.4:N3
- not spelled with CH 1.2.5:N8
- perfective forms of 9.5, 9.5.1
- reduplicated 11.11
- related to intransitive action verb 6.4
- related to reciprocal verb 10.1, 10.2.1
- resulting state form of 7.7.2, 9.2, 9.6
 - used as noun 8.2.3
- vowel weakening processes in 9.2.1, 9.5, 9.7
- without causative meaning 9.8, 10.2.1, 14.6.9
- with prefix pronouns 9.10, 9.10:N4
- with verb marker prefix *o-* 5.6.b.2
- cause phrase** 2.3.4, 13.6
 - with basic (or processive) verb form 13.6:N12
- change of state**
 - expressed by inceptive verb form 12.6
 - in progress 13.4.1.4:N10
 - with auxiliary verb *mo* 5.3.1:N4, 5.5.4, 7.1.a, 12.3.1, 13.4.1.4, 15.4.2:N6
 - with negative verb *diak* 16.2, 16.2.2
- characterization** 3.7.2
 - of noun by possessor 3.5.3
 - vs. true (or "pure") possession 3.5.3, 3.7.2
- clauses**
 - condition 17.2
 - consequent 16.2.3, 17.2, 23.1.2
 - dependent vs. independent 14.1.2
 - direct vs. indirect 19.1
 - introduced by *el kmo* 19.1.1, 19.2, 19.3, 19.4, 19.5, 19.6, 19.7
 - main vs. subordinate (in English) 14.1.2:N2
 - reason 20.2, 23.1.1
 - relative 21.1, 21.2, 21.3, 21.4
 - result 20.2, 23.1.1
 - time 20.4, 23.1.3
 - within complex sentences 4.5, 14.1
- cluster**
 - of consonants 1.2.1:N2, 1.2.11:N16, 1.3.2.g, 3.3.5
 - of vowels 1.3.2.f(1), 1.3.7
 - pronunciation of word-initial ML 1.2.11:N16
- color**
 - expressed by relational phrase 13.10
- command**
 - direct vs. indirect quotation of 19.4, 20.2.1, 20.3
 - expressed by imperative verb form 17.7
 - expressed by reciprocal prefix 10.5
 - involving result clause 20.2.1, 20.3
 - negative 16.2.3.1, 17.2.3:N1, 17.7.1
- communication**
 - noun of 19.7
 - verb of followed by result clause 20.3.2
 - verb of used with indirect communication 19.2
- comparison**
 - expressed by relational phrase 13.9
- compass**
 - directions of 13.3.5.c
- competing forms**
 - of expected state verbs 7.8.1
- completion** 4.9.1, 6.9, 6.9.1
 - expressed by perfective forms of the verb *merekusi* 14.6.4
 - in English 6.9.1:N8
 - in the future 6.9.3
 - in the recent past 6.9.2
- complex constructions (or forms)**
 - noun phrase of possession 3.4.1, 3.8.1, 3.8.2
 - spelling problems associated with 1.3.9.c.4
 - vs. simple forms 8.1, 8.2
- complex noun** 8.1, 8.2, 8.2.1, 8.2.2, 8.2.3, 8.2.4, 8.3, 8.4, 8.5, 8.6, 8.7, 8.8, 8.9, 8.10
 - derived from reciprocal verb 8.4, 10.3
 - derived with both expected state suffix and resulting state infix 8.2.4
 - equivalent to expected state verb 9.7.1
 - equivalent to resulting state verb 9.7.1
 - summary of 8.10
- complex sentences**
 - containing negative verbs 16.4, 17.1, 17.7
 - derivation of 16.4, 16.4.2, 16.4.3, 16.4.4

- in general 20.1, 23.1
- involving dependent clauses 14.1
- use of pronouns in 4.5
- complex state verb** 7.3, 7.8.3:N9
 - reduplicated 11.5
- complex verb phrase** 4.10.5, 5.4.3.a
 - affected by preposing of sentence object 17.9.2.1
 - with prefix pronouns attached 4.10.5, 16.4.4, 17.9.2.1
- compound**
 - noun 8.9
 - noun phrase affected by subject preposing 15.2, 15.2.2, 18.1
 - structure with two question words 18.9
 - subject accompanying *dmak* 14.6.2
- concrete noun** 2.2.1
 - human noun as 2.2.1
 - instrument noun 8.6
 - nonhuman noun as 2.2.1
 - vs. abstract noun 2.2.2
- condition** See also **state**
 - past 16.2.3
 - present 16.2.3
- conditional sentence** 17.2, 23.1.2
 - containing obligatorily possessed nouns *soal* and *chetil* 17.5
 - containing transitive state verb *medakt* 17.5:N6
 - expressing general question 17.3
 - expressing general statement 17.3:N4
 - preposing in 17.11
 - summary of types 17.4.3
- condition clause** 17.2
 - containing negative verb *diak* 17.2.3
 - containing predicate in prefix pronoun form 17.2
 - containing time word 17.6, 20.4
 - contrasted with action noun 17.5.1
 - following obligatorily possessed nouns *soal* and *chetil* 17.5
 - in conditional sentence 17.2
 - in future 17.2.1, 17.4, 17.4.1, 17.4.2
 - in past 17.2.2, 17.4.2
 - in present 17.2.1, 17.4.1, 17.4.2
 - introduced by conjunction *a* 'if' 16.2.3
 - switched with consequent clause 17.3, 17.5, 18.8
 - various types of 17.4
 - containing *a kmu* 17.4.2
 - containing *a lsekum* 17.4
 - containing *ulekum* 17.4.1
- conjunction (or connecting word)**
 - in general 20.2, 23.1
 - introducing time clause 20.4.1, 20.4.2, 20.4.3
- conjunction *a* 'if'**
 - followed by negative verb form 16.2.3
 - used to introduce condition clause 16.2.3, 17.2
- conjunction *e***
 - appearing after preposed time clause or time word 20.5, 23.1.3
 - lost when consequent clause switched to sentence-initial position 17.3
 - used to indicate contrast 23.4.3
 - as part of expression *e ng di* 23.4.3
 - used to indicate sequential time 23.4
 - used to indicate simultaneous time 23.4.1
 - used to introduce consequent clause 16.2.3, 17.2, 23.1.2
- conjunction *el***
 - followed by *kmo* to introduce direct or indirect quotation 19.1.1, 20.1
 - vs. *el ua se* 19.6
 - in appositional phrase 3.9
 - major function explained 14.1.2
 - pronunciation of 1.3.2:N19
 - spelling problems associated with 1.3.9.c.1–4
 - summary of major usages 14.1.2:N1
 - used to introduce independent clause 14.1.1, 20.1
 - used to introduce "object" of action noun 8.7
 - used to introduce relative clause 21.1
 - used to join parts of compound noun 8.9
 - used to join question word as modifier 18.4.1, 18.5
 - used to link state verb to modified noun 22.1
- conjunction *e le*** 20.2, 20.2.1
 - used to introduce reason clause 20.2, 23.1.1
- conjunction *me*** 20.2, 20.2.1, 23.2
 - as part of expression *me a lechub* 23.3, 23.5.3

in coordinate noun phrase 23.5
 in imperative sentences 23.2
 joining two question words 18.9
 pronunciation of 1.3.2:N19
 used to introduce indirect command 19.4
 used to introduce result clause 20.2, 23.1.1

connecting word See **conjunction**

consequent clause 16.2.3, 17.2, 23.1.2
 switched with condition clause 17.3, 17.5

consonant alternation See **alternation**

consonant-initial

possessor suffix 3.2.2.b

consonants

alternation of in imperfective vs. perfective
 and basic verb forms 5.6.3, 6.2.1, 11.9,
 11.9.1

B 1.2.1

in alternation with M 5.6.3:N11, 6.3,
 6.3.1, 9.2.2:N2, 11.9.a
 in loanwords 24.2.1
 related to verb marker infix *-u-* 6.4.3.d

CH 1.2.5

in alternation with NG 5.6.3
 in loanwords 24.2.6
 in reciprocal prefix 10.2.5
 in reduplicated state verbs prefixed with
be- 11.13:N7
 not spelled with causative verbs 1.2.5:N8
 phonetic features of 1.2.5
 test for determining spelling of 1.2.5.b

cluster of 1.2.1:N2, 1.2.11:N16, 1.3.2.g, 3.3.5

D 1.2.3

contrasted with T 1.2.3:N6
 in alternation with L 5.6.3, 11.9.a
 in alternation with R 5.6.3:N10
 in loanwords 24.2.2

F 1.2.13.a

H 1.2.13.b

in loanwords 24.2.8
 in reduplicated syllables 11.1.1,
 11.1.2:N1, 11.2:N2, 11.3, 11.4,
 11.4:N3, 11.5, 11.5.1, 11.6, 11.9
 in loanwords 24.2.9

K 1.2.4

explosive or strong pronunciation of
 1.2.4:N7

in alternation with NG 5.6.3, 11.9.a
 in alternation with S 7.8.2.5:N7, 8.3
 in loanwords 24.2.4

L 1.2.9

appearing in certain verb forms 11.9.d
 as syllabic consonant 1.2.11.a
 double 1.2.9.1, 1.2.9.1:N13
 in alternation with T, D, S, and NG
 5.6.3, 11.9.a
 in loanwords 24.2.7

M 1.2.7

as syllabic consonant 1.2.11.b, 9.5, 17.7
 in alternation with B 5.6.3:N11, 11.9.a
 in alternation with U or O 6.3:N2, 12.4
 in loanwords 24.2.1

related to verb marker infix *-u-* 6.4.3.d

minor 1.2.13

W 1.3.6:N21, 1.3.7.b

Y 1.3.6:N21, 1.3.7.b

N 1.2.8.d(1-2), 1.2.13

in loanwords 24.2.5, 24.2.5.1

native system of 24.2

NG 1.2.8

appearing between noun stem and suffix
 in certain possessed forms of nouns
 3.3.9

appearing between verb stem and suffix
 in certain perfective verb forms 9.5
 contrasted with "n" word-initially
 1.2.8.d(1), 24.2.5.1

double 24.2.5.4

in alternation with CH, K, and L 5.6.3,
 11.9.a

in alternation with R 5.6.3:N10

in inceptive verb forms 12.4

in loanwords 1.2.8.d(3), 24.2.5

in word-final position 24.2.5.3

in predictive verb forms 12.4

omitted from spelling 1.2.8.e

pronounced as "n" 1.2.8.b, 24.2.5.2

pronounced as separate syllable or
 syllabic consonant 1.2.8:N10,

1.2.11, 6.4.3.b

pronounced before "b" 1.2.8:N10-11,

1.2.11:N17

word-internal 24.2.5.4

- NN 1.2.8:N12
 of Palauan (in general) 1.1-1.2.13
 P 1.2.13.d
 pronunciation of 1.2.12
 R 1.2.10
 as syllabic consonant 1.2.11.a
 double 1.2.10.1, 1.2.10.1:N15
 in alternation with T, D, S, and NG
 5.6.3:N10
 in loanwords 24.2.7
 pronunciation compared with English
 and Japanese 1.2.10
 related to L 5.5.2.4, 5.6.3:N10
 S 1.2.6
 in alternation with K 7.8.2.5:N7, 8.3
 in alternation with L 5.6.3
 in alternation with R 5.6.3:N10
 in loanwords 24.2.3
 syllabic 1.2.5.b, 1.2.8:N10, 1.2.11a-b
 T 1.2.2
 contrasted with D 1.2.3:N6
 explosive or strong pronunciation of
 1.2.2:N4
 in alternation with L 5.6.3, 11.9.a
 in alternation with R 5.6.3:N10
 in loanwords 24.2.2
 TS 1.2.6:N9, 1.2.13, 24.2.3.1
 Z 1.2.13.e, 24.2.3.1
- content**
 indicated by relational phrase 13.10
 or gist of statement expressed by indirect
 quotation 19.1.1
- continued action** See **repeated action**
- contrast**
 indicated by connecting word *e* 23.4.2
 indicated by expression *e ng di* 23.4.3
- contrastive emphasis** 4.4.3, 4.4.3:N5, 4.4.3:N7
 with *di* and emphatic pronoun 4.4.5
- coordinate noun phrase** 4.4.4, 4.4.4:N8, 23.5
 as subject with reciprocal verb 10.1
 containing emphatic pronoun 4.4.4, 23.5
 containing *me a lechub* 23.5.3
 containing multiple question words 23.5.1
 distribution of 4.4.4, 23.5, 23.5.1
 preposing from 23.5.2
 structure of 4.4.4, 23.5
- cost** See **price**

counting

- bunches of bananas 22.5.5
 flat, square objects 22.5.1:N3
 in sequence 22.5.5
 long objects 22.5.5

D

days

- of month expressed by ordinal numbers 22.7
 of month expressed by temporal phrase
 13.7.1
 of week expressed by ordinal numbers 22.7
 of week expressed by temporal phrase 13.7.1

deletion

- of single unstressed vowel 3.3.5, 6.8.2,
 7.8.2.2, 12.5

demonstratives (or demonstrative words) 22.3

- categories of meaning in 22.3
 indicating singular vs. plural subject 7.4
 in negative sentences 16.4.3:N2
 internal structure of 22.3.3
 not introduced by *a* 2.6.2, 22.3
 referring to animals 22.3.4
 referring to human beings 22.3.2
 referring to nonliving things 22.3.1
 spelling problems associated with 1.3.9.c.1
 used as modifiers 22.4

dependent clauses

- general features of 14.1, 20.1
 interchangeability of 14.1.3
 summary of 14.7
 types of 14.1.3
 accompaniment 14.5
 instrument 14.1.3, 14.3
 means of transportation 14.4
 purpose 14.1.3, 14.2, 14.2.1, 14.2.2
 specifying 14.6
 vs. independent clauses 14.1.1
 vs. relative clauses 21.2

derived action noun See **action noun****derived plural noun** 2.5.3, 7.3**derived (sentence type)**

- containing negative verb followed by predi-
 cate in prefix pronoun form 16.4, 16.4.2
 resulting from subject preposing 15.2
 vs. basic 15.2

- description** 3.7.2
of noun by possessor 3.5.3
- destination**
expressed by specifying clause 14.6.1,
14.6.1.1
- dimension**
state verb of 7.4, 8.3:N1, 11.1.2
- diphthong** See **vowel cluster**
- direct**
vs. indirect quotation 19.1
of command 19.4
- directional phrase** 2.3.4, 13.4
containing question word *ker* 18.6
containing question word *techang* 18.3.1
vs. locational phrase 13.4
- directional verb** 13.4
changed when going from direct to indirect
quotation 19.1
expressing future time 13.4.1.3
followed immediately by action verb 13.4.1.2
imperative 17.7
in past tense 13.4.1.1
in purpose clause 14.2.1
in specifying clause 14.6.1
meaning and use 13.4.1
mo and change of state 13.4.1.4
special expressions involving *me* and *mo*
13.4.1.5
- disliking**
expressed by obligatorily possessed noun
chetil 3.10, 4.6.2.c, 15.7.3
affected by preposing 15.7
followed by specifying clause 14.6.10
in conditional sentence 17.5
- distance**
category of designated by demonstrative
word 22.3, 22.3.1, 23.3.3
indicated by relational phrase 13.10
- distributional features**
in general 2.1
of *a* 2.6
of coordinate noun phrases 4.4.4, 23.5.1
of full E vs. weak E 3.3.1
of noun phrases of possession 3.6
of nouns 2.1, 2.3, 2.3.4, 2.3.5, 2.3.5:N2,
3.4.2, 4.1
of pronouns 2.4.3, 3.7.1, 4.1, 4.3, 4.4, 4.4.1,
4.4.2
of verb marker 5.6, 6.4.3
of verbs 2.1, 5.1, 5.4, 5.4.2, 5.4.3
- doer** 5.2, 7.1.a, 9.1
not mentioned in sentences with resulting
state verbs 7.7
- double (consonant or vowel)**
EE 1.3.6
gliding pronunciation of (double vowels)
1.3.6:N21
II 1.3.6
in expected state suffix 7.8.1
LL 1.2.9.1, 1.2.9.1:N13, 7.7.1, 7.8.1
NN 1.2.8:N12
OO 1.3.6
RR 1.2.10.1, 1.2.10.1:N15, 7.7.1
shortening of double vowel (weakening)
3.3.6, 6.8, 6.8.3, 7.8.2.3, 11.7, 11.8.d
UU 1.3.6
- double object** 15.1:N1
- double possessor** 15.1:N1, 15.7.1
- double subject** 2.3.5:N2
in complex sentences containing negative
verb 16.4.3
in equational sentences 15.1:N2
in Palauan questions 15.6, 18.1, 18.3
in Palauan statements 15.1
with affirmative and negative expressions of
existence 16.1, 16.4
with question word *techang* 18.3
with question word *telang* 18.5

E

emphasis 15.7, 15.9

emphatic pronouns

- as pronoun trace 4.4.1:N3, 15.2.1
as sentence object 4.1, 4.4.1
as sentence subject 4.1, 4.3, 4.4.3
distribution of 2.4.3, 3.7.1, 4.1, 4.3, 4.4,
4.4.1, 4.4.2
following antecedents 4.5.1
in appositional phrases 4.4.5:N10
in coordinate noun phrases 4.4.4
in equational sentences 4.4.2, 4.4.5

- preceded by *di* 4.4.5
 - providing contrastive emphasis 4.4.3
 - providing new information 4.4.3
 - spelling of 1.3.9.d.2
 - summary of 4.7
 - vs. non-emphatic pronouns 2.4.3, 4.1, 4.3, 4.4.3, 4.7
 - with prefix pronoun attached 4.10.4
 - English**
 - diphthongs 24.3.2
 - influence on Palauan 24.0
 - lax vs. tense vowels 24.3.2
 - vowel system 24.3.2
 - equational sentence**
 - containing demonstrative word 22.3
 - containing emphatic pronoun 4.4.2, 4.4.5
 - containing prefix pronoun 4.10.4
 - defined 2.3.3.b
 - negation of 16.4.2
 - preposing in 15.5
 - structure of 2.3.3.b
 - with double subject 15.1:N2
 - E-set of possessor suffixes** 3.2.1
 - exclusive pronoun** 3.2.1
 - as part of double subject 15.2.2:N3
 - existence**
 - expressions of 4.6.2.b, 5.3, 16.1
 - accompanied by obligatory post-verbal (post-predicate) subjects 4.6.2.b
 - affirmative vs. negative 4.6.2.b, 16.1
 - allowing preposing of possessor 15.4.3
 - as suppliers of new information 4.6.2.b, 16.1:N1
 - restrictions on preposing post-predicate subjects of 15.4.1, 15.4.2, 16.1
 - spelling problems associated with 1.3.9.a
 - state verbs of 5.3, 5.5.3, 7.1.a, 15.4.1:N5
 - in means of transportation clause 14.4
 - expansion**
 - as relative clause 21.2
 - as second noun phrase in double subject construction 15.1, 15.2
 - expected state suffix** 7.8.1
 - combined with resulting state infix 7.8.3:N9, 8.2.4
 - related to vowel weakening 7.8.2
 - used to form residue nouns 8.8
 - expected state verb (or required state verb)**
 - 5.8.c, 7.8, 6.7.1, 12.3.1
 - derived from causative verb 7.8.3:N10, 8.2.3, 9.2, 9.7
 - lacking verb marker 6.7.1
 - meaning of 7.8
 - phonetic features of 7.8.1, 7.8.2, 7.8.2.1, 7.8.2.2, 7.8.2.3, 7.8.2.4, 7.8.2.5, 7.8.2.5:N7, 7.8.3, 7.8.3:N8
 - used as noun 7.8.3:N9, 8.2, 8.2.3, 9.7.1
 - vowel weakening processes in 7.8.2, 7.8.2.5, 9.7
 - extension** 24.9
- F**
- first person pronoun** 2.4.1, 3.2
 - inclusive vs. exclusive 3.2.1
 - in propositive verb forms 4.10.7
 - focus** 15.7, 15.9
 - foreign accent** 1.1
 - foreign languages**
 - impact on Palauan 24.0, 24.1
 - foreign origin**
 - action verbs of 5.5.2.1, 24.4.3
 - nouns of 6.3.3
 - prefixed with *ou-* 6.3.3, 24.7
 - of Palauan loanwords 24.0, 24.1
 - fossilized reduplication** 11.13
 - frequency**
 - as indicated by reduplicated form 11.5.1, 11.6:N6, 11.7
 - as indicated by time word in condition clause 17.6
 - expressed by temporal phrase 13.7.1
 - full E** 1.3.2.a
 - affected by vowel weakening 3.3.3
 - distribution of vs. weak E 3.3.1
 - in borrowed words 1.3.2.f(5), 24.3
 - in number words 1.3.2.f(2)
 - in one-syllable words 1.3.2.c
 - in possessed forms of nouns 1.3.2.f(1)
 - in reduplicated words 1.3.2.f(4), 11.1.1, 11.7
 - in stressed vs. unstressed syllables 1.3.2.a, 1.3.2.d, 24.3
 - in unstressed syllables 1.3.2.f, 1.3.2.f(1-5)
 - of reduplicated words 11.1.1, 11.6:N4

resulting from shortening of double vowel
3.3.6

full vowels

affected by vowel weakening 3.3.3, 6.8.1,
6.8.2, 7.8.2.1, 11.6:N4, 12.5, 24.3,
24.3.1, 24.3.2

appearing in stressed syllable of expected
state verb 7.8.3

reduced to weak E 6.8.1

future

condition in 17.2.1, 17.4, 17.4.1, 17.4.2

expressed by auxiliary *mo* 5.5.4, 12.3.1

expressed by time clause 20.4.2

summary of grammatical devices to indicate
12.3.1

with causative verbs 9.4, 9.5.1

with directional verbs 13.4.1.3

with negative verbs 16.2.2

with reciprocal verbs 10.1.1

with various temporal phrases 13.7.1

G

gender 3.2.1:N2

general question

expressed by conditional sentence 17.3,
17.3:N4

general statement

expressed by present tense verb form 5.5.1,
6.9.4

expressed by conditional sentence 17.3:N4

vs. specific statement or occasion 2.7, 2.7.1,
15.7.1:N8

German

influence on Palauan 24.0

vowel system of 24.3.1

gliding pronunciation

of double vowels 1.3.6:N21

of vowel clusters 1.3.7.b-c, 3.3.7.a

of word-final U 1.3.2.g

goal

expressed by directional phrase 13.4

expressed by relational phrase 13.10, 19.3:N2

grammatical structure

as determinant of proper spelling of words
1.3.9

grammatical system 2.1

H

habit (or tendency)

as indicated by time word in condition
clause 17.6

indicated by prefixes *beke-* and *seke-* 7.5, 7.5.1

habitual statement

expressed by present tense verb form 5.5.1,
6.9.4

expressed by time clause 20.4, 20.4.2

helping verb See auxiliary verb

homonyms

as represented by relational word *er* vs.
specifying word *er* 2.7.5

imperfective verb forms as 5.7.2.1:N12

noun stems as 3.2.2.a

hours of the day

expressed by temporal phrase 13.7.1

human beings

represented by demonstrative word 22.3.2

represented by number set 22.5.2

human nouns

as specific sentence objects 2.7.3

as subtype of concrete noun 2.2.1

in source phrase 13.5.1

prefixed with *kle-* 8.5

reflected in third person pronouns 2.4.2,
4.3:N2

vs. nonhuman nouns as plural sentence
objects 4.9.4, 6.4.1.a

with plural prefix attached 2.5

human pronouns 3.2.1, 4.3, 4.9, 4.9.4, 4.9.5,
4.9.6, 4.9.7

I

identity

of expressed subject of independent clause
and understood subject of dependent
clause 14.1.1

of possessor suffix of independent clause
and understood subject of dependent
clause 14.2.2:N4

of understood subject of relative clause and
preceding modified noun 21.3

idiomatic expressions

involving *reng* and obligatory post-verbal
subjects 4.6.2.a, 5.4.4

- preposing prevented with 15.4.4
used as modifier 22.1
- imminent action (or event)** 5.5.1:N8, 12.3, 12.3.1
- imperative**
meaning 17.7, 17.8:N8
sentence 16.2.3.1
verb form 4.10.6, 5.4.2.b, 16.2.3.1, 17.7
containing second person prefix pronoun 4.10.6, 17.7
with reciprocal prefix 10.5
- imperfective verb (or form)** 2.7.4, 4.4.1, 4.9.1, 4.9.2
after auxiliary *mla* 6.9.2
after auxiliary *mo* 6.9.3
as basis for deriving instrument noun 8.6
as basis for deriving residue noun 8.8
derivation of 5.6.3
followed by specifying word *er* and specific object 2.7.4, 4.4.1
imperative 17.7
in inceptive form 12.5
in past tense 6.6.a.1, 6.9.1
in predictive form 12.5
in present tense 6.9.4
meaning of 6.9, 6.9.1, 6.9.2, 6.9.3, 6.9.4
of causative verb 9.2
of transitive action verb 5.6.3, 6.2.1
reduplicated 11.9, 11.9.1, 11.9.2
phonetic features of 4.9.2
required to express past experience 6.9.2
vs. perfective verb 2.7.4, 4.9.1, 4.9.2, 5.4.3.c, 5.5.1:N8, 5.8.b, 6.9
with prefix pronoun 4.10.1
- inanimate** 4.9.8, 4.9.8:N15
- inceptive suffix** 12.1, 12.2
not possible with certain verb types 12.7
variant forms of 12.6.1, 12.6.1:N1
- inceptive verb (or form)** 12.2
following *ko* 14.6.7
meaning of 12.2, 12.5.1, 12.6
of intransitive action verb 12.4, 12.7
of state verb 12.6, 12.6.1
of transitive action verb 12.5
in basic form 12.5.1
vowel weakening processes in 12.1, 12.4, 12.5.1, 12.6
- inclusive pronoun** 3.2.1
in propositive verb forms 4.10.7
- indefinite**
expressed by *chad* and *klalo* 21.7
- independent**
clause 14.1.1, 20.1
vs. dependent clause 14.1.1, 20.1
noun (stem) 5.6.1, 5.6.3:N11, 5.7, 5.7.1, 6.2.1, 6.3
pronouns 4.2, 5.7.2
emphatic 4.2, 4.3, 4.4
non-emphatic 4.2, 4.3
stems in intransitive action verbs 6.2, 6.4
stems in state verbs 6.2, 7.3, 7.5.1, 7.5.2, 7.5.4, 7.6, 8.3
vs. bound 7.3
- indirect**
mutual effect in transitive reciprocal sentences 10.4
quotation with verbs of communication 19.2
quotation with verbs of mental activity 19.3
vs. direct quotation 19.1
- infixes** 8.1
alternating with prefixes 5.6.2, 5.6.3
in perfective verb forms 5.6.2, 6.4.2
in resulting state verb forms 7.7, 7.7.1, 7.7.1:N6
in state verbs 5.6.c.3, 6.4:N5, 7.1.b, 7.3
reduplicated 11.4
past tense marker 5.3.1, 5.5.2.2, 5.5.2.4
with negative verb *diak* 16.2
variants of verb marker as 5.6, 6.4
within verbs 5.1, 5.6
- information**
new vs. old 4.4.3, 15.3
supplied by relational phrase 13.2
supplied by relative clause 21.1
transmitted or received denoted by verb of communication 19.2
- instrument clause** 14.1.3, 14.3, 20.1
as type of specifying clause 14.6
interchangeable with purpose clause 14.1.3
- instrument noun** 8.6, 14.3:N6
- intensification**
expressed by meaning of reduplicated state verb in *be-* 11.13:N7

interchangeability

of dependent clauses 14.1.3, 14.3, 14.4,
14.5, 14.6.6

internal structure

in general 2.1, 3.1, 8.1
of abstract nouns 2.2.2
of causative verbs 9.2
of demonstrative words 22.3.3
of loanwords 24.4.1:N15, 24.4.2,
24.4.3:N18, 24.5, 24.6, 24.7, 24.7.1,
24.7.2, 24.7.3, 24.8, 24.8.1
of nouns in general 3.1, 8.1
of perfective verbs 4.9.1, 6.4.1.a, 6.4.2
of transitive action verbs in basic form 5.6.1
of verbs 2.1, 5.1, 8.1, 12.1, 24.5

intonation

in statements 4.6.3
sharp rise in yes-no questions 4.6.3, 15.6,
15.7.2, 18.1

intransitive 2.3.2:N1

action verb 5.2, 5.6.a.2, 11.1
as basis for deriving action noun 8.7
borrowed from English or Japanese
24.4.3
derived from independent noun stem 6.4
followed by directional phrase 13.4
followed by relational phrase 13.2
followed by source phrase 13.5
imperative 17.7
in inceptive form 12.4, 12.7
in predictive form 12.4, 12.7
of movement followed by specifying
clause 14.6.1
past tense of 6.6.b
prefixed with *ou-* 6.3.3
reduplicated 11.7
related to causative verb 6.4
used as modifier 22.2
used as stem for causative verb 9.2.2
with B-stem 6.3.1
with infix verb marker 5.6.c.1, 6.4
with prefixed verb marker 5.6.a.2, 6.2
state verb 5.3, 7.1.a, 9.1
vs. transitive 5.2

irregular forms

of common perfective verbs 4.9.7
of possessed nouns 3.3.5:N8, 3.3.6:N9

I-set of possessor suffixes 3.2.2**J****Japanese**

influence on Palauan 24.0, 24.2.3.1
intransitive action verbs borrowed into
Palauan 24.4.2:N16
loanwords borrowed into Palauan 24.2.1:N5
modifying words corresponding to Palauan
state verbs 24.4.2
Romanization of 24.2.1:N1
vowels omitted in Palauan 24.3.4
vowels shortened in Palauan 24.3.5
vowel system of 24.3.1

joint activity 10.5**L****lax vowel (in English)**

vs. tense vowel 24.3.2

liking

expressed by obligatorily possessed noun
soal 3.10, 4.6.2.c, 15.7.3
affected by preposing 15.7
followed by specifying clause 14.6.10
in conditional sentence 17.5

limited forms

of certain perfective verbs 4.9.8

living or nonliving things

as nonhuman nouns 2.2.1

loan source 24.2.1:N1**loanwords**

consonants in 24.2, 24.2.9
B 24.2.1
CH 24.2.6
D 24.2.2
K 24.2.4
H 24.2.8
L 24.2.7
M 24.2.1
N 24.2.5, 24.2.5.1
NG 24.2.5, 24.2.5.2, 24.2.5.3, 24.2.5.4
R 24.2.7
S 24.2.3
T 24.2.2
TS 24.2.3.1
Z 24.2.3.1