

Handbook of Palauan Grammar

Volume I

TEACHER'S MANUAL

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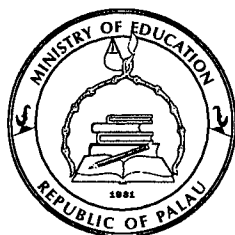
TEACHER'S MANUAL

VOLUME I

Lewis S. Josephs

*Dear John,
Best of luck in your
Palauan studies!
Sincerely,
Lewis Josephs*

Apr. 16, 2009



Bureau of Curriculum & Instruction
Ministry of Education
Republic of Palau

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Teacher's Manual HOW TO SPELL PALAUAN

GENERAL COMMENTS

1. The material in this lesson corresponds to what is presented in Chapter 1 ("Sounds and Spelling of Palauan") of the *Palauan Reference Grammar* (PRG). In this lesson, however, much of the technical linguistic terminology found in PRG Chapter 1 has been eliminated. For example, rather than describing B as a *voiced or voiceless bilabial stop*, B is merely presented as the Palauan letter that sometimes sounds like English "b" (as in *bay*) or "p" (as in *pay*). Many Palauan sounds are conveniently compared with the closest English sounds, which most students should already know.
2. Some teachers may wish to introduce students to a few technical terms of phonetics or articulation, especially if these are helpful in making an important generalization or in highlighting an important contrast. Whereas the concept of *phoneme* and its *allophones* (see PRG 1.2) is too sophisticated, a few simpler, more obvious terms may have some use:
 - a. *bilabial* to describe B and M is easily explained and illustrated because this term means that the *two lips* are involved in the pronunciation. It is helpful to say that the Palauan letter B is always bilabial, regardless of whether it is pronounced as "b" or as "p", according to the position.
 - b. *dental* to describe T and D may be useful if you ask students to concentrate on pronouncing these Palauan sounds and trying to feel their tongue touching their upper *teeth*.
 - c. *nasal* to describe M and NG (and the "n" pronunciation of NG) because these sounds involve air passing through the *nose*.
 - d. *glottal* to identify Palauan CH, which is described in 1.2.5 as "produced by closing the vocal cords (two sensitive membranes in the throat) against each other for a split second and then releasing them." The term *glottal* for CH can be related to *glottis*, which is the opening between the vocal cords.

- e. *vowel height* to show a rough contrast among the Palauan vowels. Palauan vowels I and U are *high* because the tongue is very close to the roof of the mouth when they are pronounced (and the mouth looks almost shut). By contrast, the Palauan vowel A is *low* because the tongue is far from the roof of the mouth (and the mouth is wide open). Students can look at each other's mouths to get a feeling for relative vowel height: I and U (high), then down to E and O (mid), and finally down to A (low). Have students repeat vowel sequences several times (I-E-A, I-E-A; A-E-I, A-E-I) to see the differences in vowel height.
3. Related to (2) above, some teachers may want to show students a diagram of the human speech organs (see PRG, pg. 5, Fig. 1) and explain in simple terms the function of the lips, tongue, teeth, nasal passage, and vocal cords. This diagram could also be copied on the blackboard and highlighted with different colors of chalk.

SPECIFIC COMMENTS

[1.2.1]

1. Make sure students learn these useful terms as a group: *word-initially* (at the beginning of a word), *word-internally* (within or inside a word), and *word-finally* (at the end of a word). You may illustrate, for example, with the letter B:

word-initial B:	blai, boes, buik
word-internal B:	rubak, ekebil, oboes
word-final B:	kesib, dub, seseb
2. In linguistic terminology, *Note 1* (after 1.2.1.d) is really saying that the Palauan letter B represents the *phoneme* /b/, which has two *allophones* (sound variants) [b] and [p], predictable according to *position* (environment).
3. *Note 2* (after 1.2.1.d) tries to interest students in the similarities and differences between the Palauan and English sound systems. You may wish to assign Palauan Consonants—Study Question 2 (see 1.2.15) at this time. See also *Note 3* (after 1.2.2.a).

[1.2.2]

1. *Note 4* (after 1.2.2.c) may be omitted if you wish. In linguistic terminology, it says that the Palauan phoneme /t/ has an *aspirated* (puff of air) allophone word-finally.

[1.2.3]

1. In 1.2.3.a, the Palauan letter D is described as sounding like English “th” of *the*, *then*, and *that*, while in 1.2.3.b, it is compared to English “th” of *thin*, *thought*, and *thrill*. Make sure that students can at least hear the difference between the two “th” sounds of English: the first, of course, is *voiced* (involving the vibration or buzzing of the vocal cords), while the second is *voiceless* (no vibration of the vocal cords). Although the distribution is quite complex, the two “th” sounds here are (in linguistic terminology) allophones of the same phoneme /d/.
2. *Note 6* (after 1.2.3.b) introduces the linguistic concept of *minimal pair* (see PRG 1.2). It is enough to emphasize to students that the difference between T and D (in both spelling and sound) is crucial and can result in totally different words. Note that the examples given show such crucial contrasts between T and D in all three positions (word-initial, word-internal, and word-final).
 - a. The discussion about the contrasting words *tma*k and *dma*k and their related forms allows you to introduce briefly certain concepts that will certainly be needed later—namely, (1) *past tense* (*tilak*, *dilak*) and (2) *causative* (*oltak*, *oldak*) “make or cause (someone) to do something”.
 - b. The discussion about the contrasting forms *tub* and *dub* similarly gives you a chance to introduce a very important concept—namely, *possessed forms of nouns* (*tub* → *tbak*, *dub* → *dbak*).

[1.2.4]

1. *Note 7* (after 1.2.4.a) may be omitted if you wish (just like *Note 4*). Linguistically speaking, the Palauan phoneme /k/ resembles the phoneme /t/ in that it has an aspirated allophone word-finally.

[1.2.5]

1. The consonant CH is problematical for two reasons:
 - a. It is difficult to describe phonetically without getting too technical. As suggested above in (2d) of the General Comments, you may wish to introduce the term *glottal* for CH and identify CH by the convenient label “glottal stop”. You can also call this sound a kind of “catch” or “release” in the throat.
 - b. It is difficult to hear, as it is not a highly audible sound. You may want to start with CH in word-final position and have students listen for the glottal “release”. Word-

initially or word-internally you can make it sound like the beginning of a light cough by pronouncing the syllable in question quite forcefully.

2. After discussing the Test for CH in 1.2.5.b, you may want to go directly to Palauan Consonants—Exercise 4 (1.2.16).
3. Note 8 (after 1.2.5.b) calls attention to the correct spelling of Palauan *causative verbs* formed with the prefixes *omek-*, *ol-*, *ole-*, *or-*, etc., because many Palauans have tended to spell these mistakenly with word-initial CH. The same problem has existed with some *o*-initial verbs like *omes*. Emphasize to students that before arbitrarily assigning an initial CH to any vowel-initial word, they should attempt to apply the Test for CH described in 1.2.5.b.

[1.2.6]

1. Note 9 (after 1.2.6.c) brings up the issue of borrowed words (from Japanese and English) for the first time. This would be a good opportunity to mention that Japanese (and later, English) has had a very strong influence on the vocabulary, pronunciation, and even grammar of Palauan.

[1.2.8]

1. In 1.2.8.b, students are introduced to the “n” pronunciation of NG. In linguistic terms, this “n” (phonetically [n]) is merely an allophone of the phoneme /NG/ that occurs before *dental* sounds such as [t] and [d]. If you have already introduced the term *dental* as suggested in (2b) of the General Comments, you might want to tell students that the NG changes to a *dental* “n” before *other dental* sounds like [t] and [d], due to a process called *assimilation* (a sound becoming more similar to an adjacent sound).
2. Note 10 (after 1.2.8.b) goes even further in describing the process of *assimilation* in Palauan:
 - a. First of all, assimilation occurs even if the *independent* word *ng* (a non-emphatic pronoun) is involved. Thus, *ng diak* will be pronounced “ndiak” (where the *dental* “n” sound is more similar to the adjacent *dental* [d]).
 - b. Second, the independent word *ng* can even become “m” if the following word starts with [b]: for example, *ng boes* will be pronounced “mboes” (where the *bilabial* “m” sound is more similar to the adjacent *bilabial* [b]).
3. Note 11 (after 1.2.8.c) actually introduces the concept of *syllabic consonant* (while making reference to further discussion in 1.2.11 below). If you wish, you may introduce the term *syllabic consonant* at this point and illustrate with the list in 1.2.8.c.

4. In all the parts of 1.2.8.d, examples are given which show that the pronunciation of borrowed words in Palauan is really special. You might want to emphasize this by saying that Palauan basically has its own, native pronunciation system, with a smaller (but rather significant) *subsystem* for borrowed words (from Japanese and English). This subsystem breaks or “stretches” many of the rules and patterns of the native Palauan pronunciation system.
5. After discussing in 1.2.8.e the rule for when to spell or omit word-final NG, you might have students do Palauan Consonants—Exercise 6 (1.2.16) before proceeding further.

[1.2.9.1]

1. Note 13 is designed to show students that the contrast between Palauan single vs. double L is very significant and can result in two totally different words: *melib* vs. *mellib*. In linguistic terms, *melib—mellib* is a *minimal pair* just like *tub—dub*, *ngas—nas*, etc. Can students find more L—LL minimal pairs? It's not easy!

[1.2.10.1]

1. Note 15 is similar to Note 13 and is designed to show that Palauan single vs. double R can result in *minimal pairs* such as *heruk—herruk*. Can students find more R—RR minimal pairs? There aren't too many!

[1.2.11]

1. In order to reinforce the idea of *syllabic consonant*, go through all the lists in this section as an oral drill, having the students repeat every word after you. Note that all the words in (b-3) are *perfective* verb forms (indicating that someone does something *fully* or *completely*—see PRG Chapters 6 and 12). You may want to mention in passing that syllabic consonants turn up sporadically in some English dialects when speakers pronounce such words as *button* (“but-N”) and *bottom* (“bot-M”) quickly or sloppily.

[1.2.13]

1. As with any non-native vocabulary borrowed into a language from foreign sources, any of the following is possible:
 - a. Certain borrowed words now used in Palauan are pronounced with some variation. For example, if someone knows English well, they may pronounce *tsesa* ‘chaser’ more closely to the actual English, with English “ch” (as in *church*) at the beginning.
 - b. Some Palauans will not be familiar with certain borrowed words. For example, only older people might recognize a word like *dengkiskongki* (from Jp. *denkichikuonki* ‘electric phonograph’), which is now even obsolete in Japan!

- c. Certain words currently in style (borrowed from English) cannot be found in the *New Palauan-English Dictionary (NPED)* because the area of borrowed words is changing so rapidly and often involves some current fad.
2. Make sure students understand that the charts given in 1.2.12 are for spelling native Palauan words, while the letters listed at the end of 1.2.13 (F, H, N, P, Z) are to be used only in borrowed words from Japanese and English, and to a lesser extent, Spanish and German (older borrowings).

[1.3.2]

1. In spite of the long discussion presented here about when to pronounce an E as “full” or “weak”, the correct pronunciation really comes very naturally and automatically to a native speaker of Palauan. The reason is simply that any native speaker knows *from the start* how to pronounce a given word and understands intuitively the relationship between *stressed syllables* and pronouncing an E as full or weak. Nevertheless, you should go through this section carefully with your students for these reasons:
 - a. The concept of *stressed* vs. *unstressed* syllable will reappear in later discussions (e.g., in describing vowel changes or deletions in the *possessed forms* of nouns).
 - b. The idea of “weak” E (in linguistic terms: “shwa”—a “neutral”, mid-central vowel) will be important in classifying vowel changes in the possessed forms of nouns, perfective verb forms, and so on.
2. As *Note 18* indicates, students should be familiar with the *stress mark* (') because it is used in the entries of the *NPED*. In addition, you will find it convenient to use the stress mark for indicating stressed vowels or syllables in various words that you will write on the blackboard.
3. In 1.3.2.f.1, you have the opportunity to introduce students briefly to the patterns of *noun possession* in Palauan. You can give them a few basic patterns in addition to the *deel*→*delek* and *taem*→*temek* types already described. Here are three main types:
 - a. No vowel change: *chim*→*chimak*, *chur*→*churak*
 - b. Vowel deletion: *bung*→*bngak*, *rasech*→*rsechek*
 - c. A full vowel changes (“reduces”) to a **weak E**: *kar*→*keruk*, *sers*→*sersek*, *kadikm*→*kadekmek*, *ngor*→*ngerek*, *chur*→*cherik*

See PRG Chapter 3 if you need further examples.

4. As 1.3.2.f.2-3 show, there are quite a few Palauan words that start with E (including the set of number words given) in which the E is *full*, even though it is in an unstressed syllable.
5. The processes of *reduplication* touched upon in 1.3.2.f.4 are complicated and fascinating and will be introduced in a later lesson. If you wish to give students a few additional examples, consult PRG Chapter 11, Sections 1 through 11.
6. The borrowed words in 1.3.2.f.5 reinforce the idea that the loanwords taken into a language from external sources are often unusual in some way—e.g., do something exceptional phonetically, contain non-native sounds or sound combinations, etc.
7. The issue brought up in *Note 20*—namely, whether or not to have two separate letters in Palauan spelling for full E vs. weak E—is typical of the problems linguists faced in trying to standardize the spelling system of Palauan. You might take this opportunity to have students give their opinions on this and other difficult decisions regarding Palauan orthography:
 - a. Was it a correct decision to choose one and the same letter E for both the full and weak “e” pronunciations? If two separate letters were indeed to be chosen, what would they be?
 - b. Should the stressed syllable of Palauan words be marked in some way in standard Palauan orthography?
 - c. Are the letter sequences CH and NG appropriate for the *single* sounds *glottal stop* and *velar nasal*, respectively? Should single letters have been chosen instead? If so, which ones?
 - d. How do we determine the appropriate way of spelling words that have been borrowed into Palauan from English and Japanese?
8. It may be possible for students to omit reading 1.3.2.g, though this section does tie in with the discussion of gliding “y” and “w” presented in 1.3.7.b below.

[1.3.6]

1. *Note 21* introduces the concept of the glides “y” and “w” (in linguistic terms, *semivowels*). Students should have some awareness of these glides, as they are very prominent in the pronunciation of certain *vowel clusters* (diphthongs) discussed in 1.3.7 below.

[1.3.7]

1. In order to familiarize students with the pronunciation of Palauan glides, have them repeat the long list (from AE to UO) orally after you. After going through the rules and some patterns in 1.3.7.c.1-4, remind them that even though “y” and “w” are *sounds* of Palauan, the *spelling* system does **not** use the letters Y and W (except in a few names). This, too, was a very difficult decision for those trying to standardize Palauan orthography. Have students discuss why they think Palauan spelling can do without the letters Y and W (or, by contrast, why they think these letters *should* be used in spelling Palauan words).

[1.3.9]

1. The main point of this section is to make students aware of the fact that many of the short (mostly one-syllable) words of Palauan are very important grammatically and occur constantly in Palauan sentences, often in combination with other such words. When these words occur in combination (as *word sequences*), there is usually some contraction (omission of vowel sounds) so that two or three words may actually sound like one. For example, the “kora” of “Ng kora sesmecher” is really a sequence of three words **ko er a** and should be spelled as such, to reflect the grammatical structure.
 - a. If any problem of Palauan spelling drove linguists crazy, it was this one! For better or for worse, it was finally decided to encourage Palauans to spell word sequences carefully as separate words (avoiding contractions such as “kora”), on the assumption that increased knowledge of Palauan grammar and more precise spelling would work hand-in-hand. To take a very simple example, all state verbs (similar to adjectives in English) can precede and modify a noun as long as they are linked to it with the *conjunction el*, as in these examples:

smecher el chad, merikos el keik, dibus el chad,
dengerenger el buik, ngodech el klalo

In all of the expressions above, the conjunction *el* is clearly there because it can be heard in the pronunciation. Now, what happens when we hear “ungil chad” (or any expression in which the preceding state verb ends in L)? Do we write just what we hear, or do we write what we *know* is there because of the grammatical structure? The linguist-planners working on Palauan orthography thought it would be more sensible (and lead to more consistency) to take the second approach: in other words, although the actual pronunciation is “ungil chad”, we nevertheless must write the three words **ungil el chad** because we know the correct grammatical structure is *state verb + conjunction EL + noun*.

By looking at a simple example of this type, students may begin to sense the purpose of spelling in this way—namely, *to reflect the true structure of their language*.

If students' awareness of this problem is sharpened now, it is an important beginning step. You can also encourage them by saying that later, once they have thoroughly studied the uses of *el* in Palauan, it will seem more natural to spell it as an independent word.

- b. In spite of everything mentioned here, this area of Palauan spelling will probably remain problematical and confusing for a long time. Students (and adults—even teachers!) will make a lot of errors, especially until general familiarity with Palauan grammar is increased. While the teacher should initially be tolerant of some errors and inconsistencies, a certain degree of firmness is also recommended: by constant reminders and correction, students should gradually get into the habit of writing *el*, *er*, *a*, *me*, etc., as separate words.
 - c. The various spelling problems covered in 1.3.9 obviously involve a wide variety of constructions that cannot be explained in full detail at this point in the textbook. Some brief explanations are given for introductory purposes, but these are of course quite oversimplified. In addition, terms such as *relational word* (for *er*), *expression of existence*, *plural prefix*, *conjunction* (for *el*), *demonstrative*, etc., are introduced as identifying labels but not defined or explained completely. Tell students it is sufficient if they can simply identify or label things at this point (e.g., refer to *el* as a “conjunction”), and that the grammatical analysis of all these terms will be done gradually in later lessons.
 - d. Everything in this section should provoke a lot of controversy among students. Plan some time for a class discussion of the various spelling principles mentioned in 1.3.9.a–e. The word sequences in 1.3.9.e will definitely be the most controversial. You may want to have students do Palauan Vowels—Exercise 15 (1.3.12) as in-class practice.
2. In 1.3.9.d, there is a general survey of Palauan pronouns: the *non-emphatic* and *emphatic pronouns* are spelled as independent words; the *object pronouns* are suffixes attached to perfective verb forms (which indicate that someone does something *completely* or *fully*—see PRG Chapter 6 and Chapter 12); the *possessor pronouns* are also suffixes attached to noun stems; and the *prefix pronouns* (in PRG Chapter 19: “hypothetical pronouns”) are prefixes attached to verb forms that occur in a wide range of constructions (e.g., after negative *diak* as in *ng diak losuub* ‘he doesn’t study’).

KEY TO STUDY QUESTIONS

[1.2.15. Palauan Consonants: Study Questions]

[Question 1]

a. Sound System

Definition: The group or set of sounds in a language, together with the rules for combining these sounds into words.

Illustration: The Palauan consonants B, T, D, K, CH, etc., and vowels A, E (full and weak), I, O, U and the rules for permissible consonant clusters and vowel clusters (diphthongs) make up the **sound system** of Palauan. Another aspect of the sound system involves rules for the possible **syllables** of Palauan.

b. Foreign Accent

Definition: Imperfect pronunciation of a given language by a non-native speaker. When adults learn a foreign language, they are already so conditioned by the sound system of their native language that they usually cannot learn the sound system of the new language with 100% perfection.

Illustration: When Palauans speak English, they often pronounce English *th* (as in *thirty*) more like a *d*. In addition, many Palauans add an extra weak E to the end of English words that have a word-final consonant cluster: for example, *stops* will be pronounced like “stops-uh”. This extra weak E is common in Palauan (see 1.3.2.g).

c. Spelling System

Definition: The group or set of letters (=alphabet) used to write a language, together with the rules for combining these letters into words.

Illustration: The Palauan spelling system uses an alphabet of ten consonant letters and five vowel letters for writing native words:

A B CH D E I K L M NG O R S T U

There is also a “subsystem” of other letters to spell foreign words:

F H N P Z

The Palauan spelling system includes rules allowing LL and RR, various consonant clusters, and various vowel clusters (also called diphthongs). It also contains special rules for when and when not to spell word-final I (*mei* vs. *me*—see 1.3.7.d) or word-final NG (*mong* vs. *mo*—see 1.2.8.e) and for the proper spelling of word sequences (see 1.3.9, in particular 1.3.9.e).

d. **Alphabet**

Definition: The group or set of letters used to write a given language.

Illustration: See (c) above.

Note: **alphabet** refers to the letters alone, while **spelling system** involves both the alphabet and the **rules**.

e. **Syllabic Consonant**—see sample answer for Study Question 1.

f. **Double Consonant**

Definition: A sequence of two identical consonants.

Illustration: Palauan has the double consonants LL (pronounced as a longer *l*) and RR (pronounced as a trilled, buzzing *r*).

Note: The difference between L vs. LL and R vs. RR is very significant in Palauan because it can distinguish between words (see *Note 13* and *Note 15*).

g. **Word-Initial**

Definition: Occurring at the beginning of a word.

Illustration: The consonant clusters BR and BL can occur word-initially in Palauan (e.g., *brer*, *blai*).

h. **Word-Internal**

Definition: Occurring within or inside a word.

Illustration: Word-internally between vowels, the Palauan letter K is pronounced like “g” (e.g., *rehas*, which sounds like “regas”).

i. **Word-Final**

Definition: Occurring at the end of a word.

Illustration: Even though both *hong* and *mong* have word-final NG when spoken in isolation or at the very end of a sentence, *hong* maintains the word-final NG within a sentence, whereas *mong* loses the word-final NG (e.g., as in *Ak mo er a skuul*). See 1.2.8.e.

j. **Consonant Cluster**

Definition: A combination or sequence of two or more consonants.

Illustration: The Palauan sound system only allows two-consonant clusters word-initially: BR-, BL-, SK-, TM-, TK-, etc. English, however, has clusters of up to three consonants: SPR-, SPL-, SKR- (as in *scratch*), SKW- (as in *squeeze*), etc.

k. Borrowed Word

Definition: A non-native word borrowed into a given language from a foreign source (also known as **loanword**).

Illustration: Palauan has hundreds of borrowed words from Japanese (*daiziob*, *daitai*, *sensei*, *hong*, *kangkeister*, *skareter*, etc.). Palauan has also borrowed from Spanish (*kahol*, *mangtekang*), German (*benster*, *mak*), and English (*stoang*, *iudoraib*, *skuul*).

[Question 2]

a. Palauan and English do not have the same number of consonants—English has more.

(1) English does not have Palauan CH (glottal stop). Although both languages have NG, it is very restricted in English, since it occurs only in word-final position (*sing*, *hang*, etc.). Furthermore, both languages have R, but they are phonetically quite different: Palauan R represents a tapping sound (quick movement of the tongue against the teeth), while English R (in American dialects) is more like a vowel (produced with a curled position of the tongue within the open mouth).

(2) English has quite a few consonants that are absent from the Palauan sound system. Palauan does not use “ch” as in *church*, “j” as in *juice*, “sh” as in *ship*, or the sound represented by the second “g” in *garage*. All four sounds in question are *palatal* consonants. In addition, Palauan lacks “z” as in *zoo*, except in some borrowed words from Japanese. The English sounds “f” and “v” are also absent in Palauan, and English “h” occurs only in borrowed words. Although the following sounds occur in Palauan as *variants* (allophones) of other major sounds, they do not have the same independent status as in English:

“p”—a variant of B

“th” as in English *then* (voiced) or English *thin* (voiceless)—a variant of D

“g”—a variant of K

“n”—a variant of NG, although it occurs as an independent sound in some borrowed words such as *nas*, *nurs*

b. The topic of consonant clusters involves these three categories:

(1) Both languages have some consonant clusters in common:

Word-initial position: BL-, BR-, KL- (in Eng. spelling: “cl”), SK-, SM-, ST- (in Pal., occurs only in loanwords: *stangi*, *stoang*)

Word-final position: -KS (in Eng. spelling: “ks”, “x”), -KT (in Eng. spelling: “ct”), -SK, -LT, -LK, -LM, -RB, -RT, -RK, -RS, -RM

(2) Palauan consonant clusters that are impossible in English:

Word-initial position: BS-, BD-, BT-, BNG-, BK-, TB-, TK-, TM-, TNG-, DB-, DK-, DM-, DNG-, KB-, KD-, KT-, KS-, KM-

Word-final position: -KB (*kbokb*), -KL (*klasekl*), -KM (*mengmokm*), -SM (*mengosm*), -TK (*melatk*), -NGCH (*omangch*), -MK (*mesumk*), -TM (*melmotm*), -ML (*melaml*), -BL (*mengabl*)

(3) English consonant clusters that are impossible in Palauan:

Word-initial position: FL-, FR-, THR-, DR-, GL-, GR-, TR-; SPL-, SPR-, STR-, SKR- (spelled “scr”), SKW- (spelled “squ”)

Word-final position: -FTH (*fifth*), -LTH (*health*), -NGTH (*length*), -RTH (*fourth*), -FS (*stuffs*), -VZ (*stoves*), -BZ (*cabs*), -DZ (*rods*), -GZ (*bags*), -MZ (*dams*), -NZ (*cans*), -RZ (*cars*), -VZ (*calves*), -KTS (*acts*), -RTS (*parts*), -LTS (*bolts*), -LMZ (*calms*), -FTHS (*fifths*), -NGTHS (*lengths*), -RTHS (*fourths*), -SKS (*risks*), -FTS (*lofts*)

Note: The consonant lists in b(1-3) above may not be complete—you may find additional examples in all categories.

- c. In general, English does not have a system of syllabic consonants similar to Palauan. However, syllabic consonant pronunciations occasionally turn up, especially for M and N:
 - (1) In words like *button*, *bottom*, etc., the final syllable is often heard as a syllabic consonant (but-N, bot-M) in quick or sloppy speech.
 - (2) In an informal response such as M-HM (for “yes”) and N-N (for “no”), the consonants M and N are syllabic.
- d. English “double” L and R are only part of the spelling system and are not pronounced any differently from the corresponding single consonants. Thus, English has nothing like the minimal pair contrasts found in Palauan for L vs. LL and R vs. RR. In English spelling, there is sometimes a choice between writing a single or double L in one and the same word—for example, both *traveled* and *travelled* are considered acceptable.

[Question 3]

No. The letter B has different pronunciations (sometimes “b”, sometimes “p”) depending on its position in the word. All the conditions are described in 1.2.1.

[Question 4]

Additional examples are as follows:

- a. word-initial position: TEBONGEL (from *mellib*) vs. DEBONGEL (from *meleb*); TECH vs. DECH; TIKII (from *melik* ‘to strike with fists’) vs. DIKII (from *melik* ‘to support’)
- b. word-internal position: METAU vs. MEDAU; KOTEB vs. KODEB (from *mengedeb*); METIR (from *omat* or *omet*) vs. MEDIR (from *omed*)

- c. *word-final position*: MELAT vs. MELAD; BUT vs. BUD (from Eng. *booth*); BAT (from Eng. *bat*) vs. BAD; MENGAT vs. MENGAD; MELNGOT vs. MELNGOD; MAT (from *omat*) vs. MAD

[Question 5]

No. The letter K has different pronunciations (sometimes “k”, sometimes “g”) depending on its position in the word. Details are given in 1.2.4.

[Question 6]

As noted in 1.2.5, CH is special in Palauan spelling because **two** letters are used to represent a **single** consonant sound (*glottal stop*). The letters NG also represent just a single sound (*velar nasal*). The sound represented by CH is formed when the vocal cords close against each other briefly, preventing air from passing through the glottis (the open space between them). When the closed vocal cords are released, there is a lightly audible puff of air expelled from the larynx. This sound could be considered “special” for several reasons: (a) it is the “deepest” consonant produced in Palauan, since its articulation is in the larynx, at the vocal cords; (b) it is often very difficult to hear (especially for foreigners!); and (c) it does not regularly occur in certain foreign languages such as English, Japanese, and Spanish.

[Question 7]

This is a rather open-ended question, and some students will find more interesting data than others. See if students can find Palauan personal names containing the “non-native” letters or letter combinations below:

C, F, H, J, N, P, Q, V, W, X, Y, Z, CH (as in *church*), PH, SH, TH, etc.

Students can use the personal names of their classmates, teachers, neighbors, well-known Palauans, etc.

[Question 8]

NG is pronounced as “n” before the consonants T, D, S, and R (all of which have some *dental* or *alveolar* features of articulation similar to “n” [n] itself). See 1.2.8.b for examples. An “n” sound also occurs in Palauan in borrowed words, in which case it is usually spelled as N alone: *nas* ‘eggplant’, *nurs* ‘nurse’, *sensei* ‘teacher’. See 1.2.8.d.1–2 for more examples.

[Question 9]

The words listed here show that L does not necessarily have to be *word-initial* to serve as a syllabic consonant. If it occurs towards the beginning of a word surrounded by two consonants, then it normally becomes a syllabic consonant and functions as the *nucleus* or “syllable center” of the word’s first syllable.

KEY TO EXERCISES

[1.2.16. Palauan Consonants: Exercises]

[Exercise 1]

Sample answers:

- bring:* the cluster BR is also found word-initially in Palauan, but it is pronounced “pr” as in *brer*, *bringd*
- drink:* there is no word-initial DR in Palauan (must always be DER-); English word-final “nk” is equivalent to Palauan word-final NGK, which occurs only in a few borrowed words such as *tangk*
- crow:* spelled “cr” is equivalent to word-initial KR in Palauan, which occurs only in a few borrowed words such as *krasia*, *Kristo*
- hard:* the cluster RD is also found word-finally in Palauan, as in *melbard*
- bags:* spelled “gs” is pronounced GZ in English and is impossible word-finally in Palauan
- elect:* spelled “ct” is equivalent to word-final KT in Palauan, as in *dakt*, *mesikt*
- spring:* there are no 3-consonant clusters like SPR anywhere in Palauan

[Exercise 2]

Since this question overlaps with Part (b) of Palauan Consonants—Study Question 2, all details leading to a good answer can be found in the Key to Study Question 2, directly above.

[Exercise 3]

The purpose of this exercise is to make students search for Palauan consonants and consonant clusters.

Sample answer:

bad ‘stone’, *chad* ‘person’, *mad* ‘eye’, *rrad* ‘(flowers, etc.) picked’, *mlad* ‘died’, *blad* ‘rope made of coconut cord’, *klad* ‘(sea cucumber) rolled in ashes’, *kmad* (perfective form of *mengad* ‘to roll/rub (sea cucumber) in ashes’).

[Exercise 4]

- a. Words with initial CH-: *chusem*, *cheball*, *chacheroid*, *chebud*, *chaibibiob*, *chituuk*, *chedeng*, *chamatter*, *cholebedii*

- b. Words with no initial CH- (spelled here as they should be): idokel, ekong, ocheraol, euid, ilumel, ulechouch, ebakl, orrenge, udoud

[Exercise 5]

Sample answers:

- chatter:* the DOUBLE T does not occur in native Palauan words
dainamait: N occurs before a vowel
chazi: Z is not a native Palauan sound
bengngos: the DOUBLE NGNG is not found in native words
hangkats: word-initial H and the final consonant cluster TS are non-Palauan

[Exercise 6]

By putting the given words into test sentences, membership in Group A vs. Group B can easily be determined. Have students write out their test sentences fully, paying attention to all aspects of Palauan spelling, especially word sequences.

[Exercise 7]

Sample answers:

- a. *lechet* is a noun meaning 'bandage, something tied around (arm, neck, etc.)', while *llechet* is the resulting state form of the verb *melechet* 'to tie, wrap around'. The form *llechet* means 'something is in the state of having been tied, wrapped, etc.'
- b. *rot* is a borrowed word from English meaning 'piston rod', while *rrot* is the resulting state form of the verb *merot* 'to pound, smash'. The form *rrot* means 'something is in the state of having been pounded, smashed, etc.'

[Exercise 8]

- a. The word-initial consonant is syllabic in these words: ngmanget, mdalem, lkou, rtimel, mkebkii, nglosech, lmuk, rsechek, Ngcheangel, mrechorech.
- b. The word-initial consonant is not syllabic in these words: ngodech, mlechii, ngebard, dmak, bngaol.

[Exercise 9]

After giving students two or three written spelling quizzes, you can have an oral spelling contest (a spelling bee).

KEY TO STUDY QUESTIONS

[1.3.11. Palauan Vowels: Study Questions]

[Question 1]

a. **Stressed Syllable**

Definition: The loudest and strongest (most prominent) syllable of a word.

Illustration: me-nge-LE-bed, me-le-CHE-tech, me-lem-TAM, me-le-mi-AKL, etc.

Note: Here is an interesting example to give to students. In Palauan, the position of the stressed syllable can be the only distinguishing factor between two words: *me-LE-ngel* 'to attack, surround' vs. *me-le-NGEL* 'section of road, tree, etc. between beginning and end, top and bottom, etc.'

b. **Unstressed Syllable**

Definition: Any syllable of a word **not** receiving the stress; any syllable but the most prominent one. (In an unstressed syllable, many Palauan full vowels become **weak E**: *kar* → *ke-RUL*, *chur* → *che-RIL*, etc.)

Illustration: See the words given in (a) above. In a word such as *me-nge-LE-bed*, the syllable LE is stressed and all the others are unstressed.

c. **Multisyllabic**

Definition: (A word) containing two or more syllables.

Illustration: Many Palauan words contain five or six syllables: *melelemelimet*, *mengecherecherai*, *bekedechedechaol*, and so on.

d. **Full E**

Definition: A pronunciation of E in which the full quality of the vowel is heard (in linguistic terms: an unrounded, mid-low vowel); sounds like "e" of English *red*.

Illustration: *ched*, *ker*, *ngerd*, *oked*, etc.

e. **Weak E**

Definition: A pronunciation of E in which the vowel has a reduced or diminished quality (in linguistic terms: an unrounded mid-central vowel); sounds like "uh" as in the first (unstressed) syllable of English *about*. In Palauan, the weak E always occurs in an unstressed syllable.

Illustration: All the unstressed E's in these words are pronounced as weak E's: *me-nge-LE-bed*, *te-le-CHULL*, *o-le-ke-RO-del*, *me-nger-TO-chet*, *be-ke-se-nge-RE-nger*.

f. Reduplication

Definition: A process of word formation in Palauan in which all or part of the original word (usually a verb) is repeated.

Illustration: See 1.3.2.f.4 for examples.

g. Double Vowel

Definition: A Palauan vowel (spelled EE, II, OO, or UU) that is pronounced longer than the corresponding single vowel and sometimes has a gliding quality (see *Note 21*).

Illustration: See lists in 1.3.6, and remind students that the difference between a single vs. double vowel can distinguish two Palauan words—e.g., *chis* vs. *chiis*.

h. Vowel Cluster

Definition: A combination of two vowels occurring within the same syllable; also called a **diphthong**. In Palauan vowel clusters, one of the vowels often has a gliding quality (see 1.3.7.b–c).

Illustration: See the comprehensive list at the beginning of section 1.3.7.

i. Diphthong

Synonym for **vowel cluster**—see previous item.

j. Gliding Pronunciation

Definition: The change of E or I to “y”, and O or U to “w”. This often occurs within a diphthong, where one vowel remains full or prominent and the other weakens by gliding.

Illustration: *blai* (sounds like “blay”), *ngau* (“ngaw”), *iaes* (“yaes”), etc.

[Question 2]

- a. The stressed syllable is the most prominent in a word—it is louder and stronger than the other syllables and always contains a full vowel (or diphthong). By contrast, unstressed syllables are less loud, not as forceful, and often contain the **weak E** vowel. The distinction is very important in studying vowel distribution (**full E** vs. **weak E**—see 1.3.2.d–e) and vowel change (full vowel → weak E in noun stems when they become unstressed: *kar* → *ke-RUK*, *ngor* → *nge-REK*, etc.).
- b. Full E is the open “eh” pronunciation of E (as in English *red*)—it is an unrounded mid-low vowel. Weak E is a reduced, less distinguished pronunciation of E (as in the first syllable of English *about*)—it is an unrounded mid-central vowel (called “shwa” or a neutral vowel by linguists). The difference between full E vs. weak E is relevant to the Palauan spelling system because the single letter E is used to spell both of these sounds. The distribution of full E vs. weak E is predictable to a large extent, so it is

assumed that native speakers will have no problem using just the one letter E. In other words, when seeing an E in a word, native speakers will automatically know when to pronounce it as full or weak.

[Question 3]

- a. No. Palauan basically has (in terms of pronunciation) six vowels: the five full vowels A, E, I, O, U and the **weak** E vowel. The English vowel system is more complex and, depending on the dialect, makes at least nine or ten vowel distinctions.

1. English essentially has all the full vowel sounds found in Palauan (A, E, I, O, U) and a reduced, neutral vowel (“shwa”) similar to Palauan weak E.

2. Palauan lacks certain vowel distinctions made in English:

- (a) For example, in English there is a contrast between two kinds of *i*, two kinds of *u*, and two kinds of *e*. For *i*, the difference can be heard in *beat* vs. *bit*. In *beat*, the “i” sound (spelled EA!) is similar to Palauan I, a somewhat long and tense (high front) vowel; but in *bit*, the “i” sound is shorter and less tense (high-mid front). Palauan does not have this shorter *i*.

Similarly, for *u*, we have *suit* vs. *soot* in English. In *suit*, the “u” sound (spelled UI!) resembles Palauan U, a long and tense (high back) vowel; but in *soot* (spelled OO!) the “u” sound is shorter and less tense (high-mid back). Again, Palauan does not have the shorter *u* sound.

Finally, for *e*, the difference can be heard in English *bait* vs. *bet*. In *bait*, the “e” sound (spelled AI!) is long and tense (mid-front), while in *bet* it is shorter and less tense (mid-low), resembling Palauan full E. (Note: The “e” sound of *bait* can also be spelled AY as in *may*, EIGH as in *weigh*, EY as in *grey*, or simply A as in *ate*.)

- (b) English distinguishes between two “o” sounds, as in *coat* vs. *caught*. Palauan has the (fully rounded, longer, tense) “o” sound of *coat* but not the (less rounded, shorter) “o” sound of *caught*. (Note: The “o” sound of *caught* can also be spelled AW as in *lawn*, OU as in *bought*, or simply O as in *forest*.)

3. English also has a (low) vowel spoken with the mouth quite wide open. This vowel sound is heard in *cat*, *man*, *pack*, etc. and is totally non-existent in the Palauan sound system.

- b. As the list in 1.3.7 shows, the Palauan system of vowel clusters is very rich—all combinations of A, E, I, O, U with each other are possible. English also has quite a rich system of vowel clusters. As in Palauan, one of the vowels in an English cluster usually becomes a glide (“y” or “w”). Here are some examples of true vowel clusters in English (i.e., actually heard in the pronunciation rather than just being a sequence of vowel letters in the spelling):

- Y + vowel: yeast, yip, youth, young, Yale, yes, yoyo, your, yard, yap
 W + vowel: weird, whip, woo, was, weigh, wet, woe, war, wad, whack
 vowel + Y: boy, buy
 vowel + W: cow

A few vowel clusters found in Palauan clearly do not occur in English—e.g., AE, AO, EA, EO (remember, again, that we are referring to actual pronunciation, **not** English spelling).

- c. In terms of *sound*, English does not really have double vowels (long vowels) that contrast with short vowels. The closest English equivalent to the Palauan double vowels would be the “tense” vowel sounds (discussed in a-2 above): “i” as in *beat*, “u” as in *suit*, “e” as in *bait*, and “o” as in *coat*. These vowels tend to be rather long and often sound glided (ifiiy, ufiuw, efey, and ofiow). *Caution*: EE and OO are just sequences in English *spelling* and do not represent long vowels in the pronunciation.

[Question 4]

It is not difficult to find four-, five-, or six-syllable Palauan words (see, for example, the definition of *multisyllabic* in 1-c above). Many Palauan *reduplicative* forms (see 1-f above and 1.3.2.f.4 in the textbook) have a high syllable count. It is not easy to find a seven-syllable word, but there are a few! How about the perfective verb form *choi-se-me-se-me-te-rir* ‘embraces/hugs them’? You can have a contest and give a prize to the student who finds the largest number of Palauan seven-syllable words! *Note*: Because of an extra weak E pronounced after word-final consonant clusters and -CH, some words which appear to have only six syllables in the spelling actually have an extra syllable in the pronunciation: *bekehesengorech* sounds like *be-ke-ke-se-NGO-re-che*.

[Question 5]

The rules for the pronunciation of the letter E as **full** E vs. **weak** E are found in 1.3.2.a. Generally, E is full when stressed and weak when unstressed, but there are a significant number of cases where E remains full even when unstressed. These are all given in 1.3.2.f.

[Question 6]

This is really a continuation of Question 5. Section 1.3.2.f organizes the categories as follows:

- Reduction of double vowel EE (or a diphthong such as AE) to single full E in the possessed form of a noun: *deel* → *delek*
- In the first syllable of Palauan number words
- In the first syllable of miscellaneous words
- In certain syllables of reduplicated words
- In loanwords from Japanese or English

[Question 7]

This is a somewhat open-ended question that can be given five or ten minutes of class discussion. Some ideas and arguments are given in *Note 20* at the end of 1.3.2.f.

[Question 8]

There are two main situations in which glides occur (E or I → “y” and O or U → “w”):

- a. Within Palauan diphthongs (or vowel clusters), one of the vowels maintains its full pronunciation, while the other turns into a glide. See 1.3.7.b–c.
- b. Palauan double vowels usually have a gliding pronunciation. See *Note 21* at the end of 1.3.6.

[Question 9]

There are several reasons why the letters Y and W are not needed in the standard Palauan orthography:

- a. Their addition would needlessly increase the number of letters in the Palauan alphabet.
- b. Within diphthongs (AI, OA, EU, etc.) or double vowels (EE, II, etc.), the vowel letters E or I (for “y”) and O or U (for “w”) are adequate because native speakers can automatically read such diphthongs or double vowels with the correct gliding pronunciation.
- c. Using the letters Y and W would obscure the relationship between many nouns and their possessed forms (see 1.3.7.c.3). For example, the spellings *ewanged*—*engedel* clearly show that the possessed form is derived by reducing the vowel cluster EA (with A being lost and full E remaining). Spelling these words as *yanged*—*engedel* would hide the fact that a general phonetic rule applies when deriving the possessed form.

[Question 10]

The details of this spelling rule are given in 1.3.7.d. Be sure to include some words from this category when giving your students a dictation.

[Question 11]

Student B was correct in writing out three separate words MLO, ER, and A. Grammatical study shows that there are three independently occurring units in *mlora*: the verb *mlo* (past tense of *mo*), the relational word *er*, and the word *a*, which introduces Palauan nouns and verbs.

[Question 12]

See 1.3.9.a for a broad introduction to *er*. This word is called a *relational word* because it indicates a particular relationship between the two nouns it joins. The relationship may

be *possession* ('of'), *physical space* ('in, at, out of', etc.), or *reason* ('because of'). ER should be spelled as a separate word so that the correct grammatical structure of a sentence can readily be seen. For example, in *Ak mlo er a skuul* 'I went to school', *mlo* is the verb and *er a skuul* is a phrase with the structure **Relational Word ER + A + Noun** (i.e., a *relational phrase*). As mentioned in the answer to Question 11 above, spelling this sentence as *Ak mlora skuul* would totally obscure its true structure.

[Question 13]

See 1.3.9.b for an explanation and examples.

[Question 14]

The conjunction EL is used in many constructions, including those listed in 1.3.9.c. The E of EL is omitted in the pronunciation when the directly preceding word ends in a vowel: e.g., *eru el klok* sounds like "erul klok". In one case, the pronunciation of EL is even lost entirely—that is, when the directly preceding word ends in L: e.g., *ungil el chad* just sounds like "ungil chad".

[Question 15]

All of the details to answer this question can be found in 1.3.9.d.

[Question 16]

This is an open-ended question which should cause some controversy and argument among students. Of course, the textbook tries to create a preference for sentence (a), in which *me* and *ak* are spelled as separate words. By changing the pronouns, you can give students some idea that *me* is really an independent word:

Ke mle smecher, me ke di ullengull er a blim.

Ng mle smecher, me ng di ullengull er a blil.

Te mle smecher, me te di ullengull er a blirir.

In the three examples above, *me* and the following pronouns are clearly heard as separate words: *me + ke*, *me + ng*, *me + te*. Therefore, what sounds like "mak" in a similar context must really be the same kind of grammatical sequence *me + ak* (i.e., the word *me* 'and, and so' followed by the independent non-emphatic pronoun *ak*).

KEY TO EXERCISES

[1.3.12. Palauan Vowels: Exercises]

[Exercise 1]

The purpose of this exercise is to make students concentrate on Palauan vowels and vowel clusters. *Sample answer* for CH__S:

chas 'soot', *chis* 'depression in sea floor', *chos* 'holding tight' (from Jp.), *chiis* 'escape' (noun), *chuus* 'meal, food', *chais* 'news', *chaus* 'lime', *cheos* 'sun', *chius* 'seed', *choas* 'type of black trepang', *choes* 'tree in mango family', *chuis* 'worm'. Note also: *chiuis* 'bone', *choais* 'grass (in swampy area)'

[Exercise 2]

Additional sample answers:

klauteketok: klau-te-ke-TOK. Both Es are weak.
metetongakl: me-te-to-NGAKL. First E is weak;
 second E (in reduplicated syllable) is full.
ocheraol: o-che-RAOL. E is weak.

[Exercise 3]

Sample answers:

Noun	Possessed Form	Type of Change
iungs	ingsel	(c)
biich	bichel	(b)
bar	berul	(a)

[Exercise 4]

Additional sample answers:

oach: oAch, sounds like "wach" (o becomes "w")
chui: chUi, sounds like "chuy" (i becomes "y")
diak: dIak (no gliding)
soak: soAk (no gliding)
ieleb: iEleb, sounds like "yeleb" (i becomes "y")

[Exercise 5]

Sample answer and format:

AE: *taem* 'time', *iaes* 'fly', *soaes* 'main strut of canoe', *meledaes* 'to clear out, explain', *mekaeb* 'area between Angaur and Peleliu'

[Exercise 6]

Additional sample answers:

iuochel:	iuOchel, sounds like "iwochel"
mengeuid:	mengeuId, sounds like "mengewid"
kaiuiiul:	kaiuiiUl, sounds like "kaywiwul"

[Exercise 7]

Sample sentences:

ER 'in, at'

A bilis a ngar er sei. 'The dog is over there (= in that place).'

A buik a milil er a delmerab. 'The boy is playing in the room.'

ER 'of'

Tia a hong er a sensei. 'This is the teacher's book.'

Te mesuub a tekoi er a Merikel. 'They are studying English.'

ER 'from, out of'

A beab a tilobed er a kliokl. 'The mouse came out of the hole.'

ER 'because of'

Ak mle smecher er a tereter. 'I was sick with a cold.'

ER (time)

Ak eko er a blim er a klukuk. 'I'll come to your house tomorrow.'

[Exercise 8]

The forms are *rebuik*, *rekebil*, *remechas*, etc.

[Exercise 9]

ngka el chad, tirka el chad; tia el hong, aika el hong; ngka el sensei, tirka el sensei;
ngka el bilis, aika el bilis; tia el kerrekarak, aika el kerrekarak; ngka el ekebil, tirka el
ekebil

[Exercise 10]

eua el rak, eai el klok, tede el sensei, dart el blai, teblo el oluches (OR eruo el oluches),
teuid el buik, kleim el lius, chimo el malk, kllolem el ngikel, tacher me a teblo el charm,
teblo el hong (OR eru el hong), teruich el sechelei, lluich el kahol, tetiu el rubak, tacher
me a chimo el babii

[Exercise 11]

Students should write sentences like the following:

Ak mo er a stoang.

Ke mesuub a ngarang?

Ng mla me a Droteo.

[Exercise 12]

Students should write sentences like the following:

Tia a hong er kau.

Ke melasem er ngak?

Ak ulemes er tir er a skuul.

[Exercise 13]

Sample answer:

chimkemkak, chimkemkau, chimkemkii, chimkemkid, chimkemkemam,
chimkemkemi, chimkemketerir

[Exercise 14]

Sample answer:

kulim, chomolim, lolim, dolim, kimolim

[Exercise 15]

Have students write their sentences on the blackboard and let classmates suggest any corrections. This is a good opportunity to have further discussion on the spelling of Palauan word sequences.

[Exercise 16]

In addition, try a few words involving more than two vowels in a row—e.g., *chuieuii*, *iuochel*, etc.

[Exercise 17]

Once the written quiz has been given, students can be asked to write the sentences on the blackboard. See Exercise 15 above.

[Exercise 18]

You may prepare for this very important exercise by following the suggestions in (a–c) of the question. It is likely that any text you choose will contain some controversial spelling choices. Ask students to bring up the main issues or rules involved. Even if you choose a short text, in-class analysis, discussion, and exercises may take several class periods. You may wish to repeat an exercise like this several times during the school year so that students will not forget the principles of Palauan spelling.

SUGGESTIONS FOR ADDITIONAL ACTIVITIES

1. Prepare large posters for classroom display that show the *Summary Charts of Palauan Consonants* (see 1.2.12) and the *Summary Charts of Palauan Vowels* (see 1.3.8).
2. Set aside an area of blackboard space where the “Terms of the Week” are written. These should be terms taken from the lists in 1.2.14 and 1.3.10 that are relevant to the reading, exercises, or class discussion for a given week.
3. Give students as many extra spelling quizzes and dictations (separate sentences or connected text) as time allows. The more constant exposure they have to the issues of Palauan spelling, the more quickly they will be able to spell correctly and efficiently.
4. Have students write short compositions (250–300 words) on any topics you think appropriate. Encourage students to make use of the *NPED* and make several copies available in the classroom or library. When correcting these compositions, put special emphasis on the students’ spelling of Palauan, especially of word sequences.
5. Get students interested in the issues of Palauan spelling by having *them* prepare a spelling quiz that they can give to their parents or neighbors. Have students report on the results.
6. Have students find a variety of written materials in Palauan—newspaper articles, announcements, brochures, legends, personal letters, etc.—and read and analyze them for correct spelling.

2

Teacher's Manual PALAUAN NOUNS

GENERAL COMMENTS

1. The material in this lesson corresponds to what is presented in Chapter 2 (“Palauan Nouns”) of the PRG. That chapter contains many basic concepts about grammar in general and Palauan nouns in particular which students will need as a foundation. Therefore, most of the ideas and terms found in Chapter 2 of the PRG are also introduced here in Lesson 2.

Students are introduced again to the idea of *system*—this time, *grammatical system*—and Study Question 2 asks students to compare the various systems already studied (*sound system*, *spelling system*, and *grammatical system*). Students also learn the related concepts of *parts of speech*, *distributional features*, and *internal structure*. Many terms that are essential to the classification of Palauan nouns are also included in this lesson—e.g., *human* vs. *nonhuman*, *specific* vs. *nonspecific*, etc. (see 2.7.6).

Rather than defining single terms in isolation, you should place emphasis in this lesson on defining *pairs* of contrasting terms, all of which have been highlighted in the first part of 2.7.6. When students are asked to define a given term by making reference to its opposite, they must in effect define an entire range or set of concepts, and it is therefore more likely that they will come to understand an important generalization. Thus, by looking at such contrasting pairs as *concrete noun* vs. *abstract noun* and *human noun* vs. *nonhuman noun*, students will hopefully get an overall picture of the semantic structure of Palauan nouns (as schematized in the chart of 2.2.3). Students will learn to write definitions of contrasting terms from the sample given in Study Question 1.

2. The most important points, general and specific, that students should learn in Lesson Two are listed below.

[2.1]

- a. *Nouns* and *verbs* are the two major *parts of speech* in Palauan. Each group can be identified in terms of its unique *distributional features*. In addition, many subgroups of nouns and verbs have unique features of *internal structure* which allow us to assign a given word to the correct part of speech (e.g., since *blai* has *possessed forms* such as *blik*, *blim*, *blil*, etc., it must be a *noun*).

[2.2.1-2.2.3]

- b. In terms of meaning (in technical linguistic terms: “semantic features”), Palauan nouns can be subclassified as concrete vs. abstract, human vs. nonhuman, etc. These subclassifications have important *grammatical consequences*: (1) only *human nouns* take the plural prefix *re-*, (2) the prefix *kle-* forms *abstract nouns* (e.g., *klemerang* ‘truth’ from *merang* ‘true’), etc.

[2.3.1]

- c. Nouns can have three major functions in Palauan sentences—*sentence subject*, *sentence object*, and occurrence after the *relational word ER*.

[2.3.1-2.3.3]

- d. In examining the distribution of nouns within sentences, it is also necessary to make reference to certain types of *verbs*: (1) *action verbs* (which are *transitive* if they take a sentence object, but *intransitive* if they do not), and (2) *state verbs* (which normally take a sentence subject only).

[2.3.4]

- e. To describe the occurrence of nouns after the relational word *er*, it is necessary to introduce the concepts of (1) the relational word *er* itself (which, from the English viewpoint, is something like an “all-purpose” preposition that corresponds to English ‘in, at, on, out of, because of, of,’ etc.), and (2) the different types of relational phrases (i.e., *locational*, *directional*, *temporal*, *source*, and *cause phrases*).

[2.4]

- f. Since *pronouns* are really a subtype of noun, they share the *distributional features* of nouns. Thus, Palauan *non-emphatic pronouns* occur as sentence subjects, *emphatic pronouns* occur after the relational word *er* or as sentence objects after the *specifying word er*, etc.

[2.4.1-2.4.2]

- g. Palauan pronouns should be classified so as to highlight the unique distinctions made in Palauan: (1) first person plural *exclusive aki* vs. first person plural *inclusive kede*, and (2) third person singular *ng* (which also functions for third person *nonhuman plural*) vs. third person **human** plural *te*. Therefore, students will need to know all the following terminology: *singular vs. plural, first vs. second vs. third person, exclusive vs. inclusive, and human vs. nonhuman*.

[2.5-2.5.3]

- h. The plural prefix *re-* (or *r-*) attaches to a variety of stems (nouns, verbs, numbers, and even words like *ua* 'like, as'), but the result is always a word referring to *human beings*.

[2.6-2.6.3]

- i. The Palauan word *a* is so basic to Palauan sentence structure because, by and large, it occurs before ("introduces") every Palauan *noun (phrase)* and *verb (phrase)*. As an "introducer" of such phrases, Palauan *a* has an important *grammatical function* even though it is impossible to assign a very specific meaning (or English equivalent) to this word.

[2.7-2.7.3]

- j. There are two contrasting ways of making a statement in Palauan when a sentence object is involved. The statement may be *general* (about something done habitually, usually, etc.) or *specific* (about something done on a single instance or occasion). The *specifying word er* has a very special function in bringing about this contrast: if *er* introduces the sentence object, then the sentence is normally interpreted as a specific statement; but if *er* is absent, we usually have a general statement.

[2.7.5]

- k. Because their functions are so different, it is preferable to consider the *relational word er* and the *specifying word er* as two separate words.
3. Because this lesson is labelled as an introduction to Palauan *nouns* (primarily, their function and distribution; to a lesser extent, their forms), it may seem as if many unnecessary or irrelevant concepts have been included. In fact, such inclusion has been kept to a *minimum!* The problem is that all parts of a language's grammatical system (in fact, all parts of all systems) are very closely interconnected. Therefore, if we are talking, for example, about how *nouns* fit into a Palauan sentence, we simply cannot avoid

mentioning something about *verbs* (and *relational phrases*, too). Indeed, as the summary in 2.3.5 shows, the only way to clarify the distribution of Palauan nouns is to indicate how they occur in various sentence patterns such as **Subject Noun + Action Verb + Object Noun**, etc.

Students are therefore likely to ask why so many terms (apparently unrelated to Palauan nouns) are introduced in this lesson. You can address their doubts with points like these:

- a. As explained above, within the grammatical system of a language, the uses and functions of the various units (parts of speech, etc.) are closely interrelated.
- b. Many of the terms (and concepts) introduced in this lesson will be described in much greater detail later in the textbook, either because they are broad topics by themselves or because they will help clarify other points. The following topics are candidates for further discussion:
 - (1) The Palauan *verb system* is incredibly rich in its forms and usages. There are many subtypes of verbs in Palauan, but perhaps at the core of the Palauan verb system are contrasts such as *action verb* vs. *state verb* and *perfective verb* vs. *imperfective verb* (both introduced in this lesson).
 - (2) The *relational phrase* is an essential part of many Palauan sentences. The *relational word er* is quite unique in Palauan in that it is an “all-purpose” word used to relate a noun to the rest of the sentence. The specific type of relationship (locational phrase, directional phrase, temporal phrase, etc.) is interpreted from the meaning of the surrounding words (context) and the practical situation. An entire lesson will be spent on analyzing Palauan relational phrases.
 - (3) The Palauan *pronoun system* is extremely rich and interesting, and there are many different groups of pronouns used, depending on the grammatical situation. Certain pronouns such as *te* (*tir*, etc.) are very special in Palauan because they designate unusual combinations of ideas such as *human plural*.

SPECIFIC COMMENTS

[2.1]

1. Make sure students understand the general idea of *system*—namely, a group (or set) of units together with the rules for their possible combination. Review the different systems already studied by presenting students with this brief outline:
 - a. Sound System
 1. Units are individual sounds (consonants and vowels).

2. Rules specify how individual sounds are combined to create consonant clusters, diphthongs, etc.
- b. Spelling System
1. Units are individual letters of the alphabet.
 2. Rules specify how individual letters are combined to spell Palauan words.
- c. Grammatical System
1. Units are individual words or parts of words (prefixes, suffixes, etc.), all of which are meaning-bearing units.
 2. Rules specify how individual words are combined into phrases, sentences, etc.

In linguistic terms, of course, the basic units of the sound system are the *phonemes*, while the basic units of the grammatical system are the *morphemes*. Study Question 2 covers the issues here.

2. The *distributional features* of a particular part of speech are simply the positions where its members can occur in a sentence. Thus, we can talk about “sentence subject position”, “sentence object position”, “position after *er* in a relational phrase”, etc. Linguists also use the term *environment* to indicate the “context” or “surroundings” in which some linguistic unit occurs. Within the sound system, for example, we can say that Palauan NG is pronounced “n” *within a particular environment*—namely, if followed by letters (sounds) such as *t, d, s*, etc. (e.g., *ngduul* “nduul”, *sengsongd* “sensond”).

Further, within the grammatical system, we can describe the environment of sentence objects by saying that they always occur after a (transitive) verb and are preceded by *a* and marked by the specifying word *er* if they are specific (e.g., *er a ngikel* in the sentence *A ngalek a milenga er a ngikel*).

3. The concept of *part of speech* (or *word class*) should already be familiar to your students from English grammar. You might want to make the point that every language is a unique system and therefore no two languages will have exactly the same parts of speech. It would be useful to make a comparison with English grammar at this time. Standard grammars of English usually introduce eight or nine parts of speech—*noun, pronoun, article, verb, adjective, adverb, preposition, conjunction, and interjection*. This breakdown is relatively accurate, although pronouns are really a subtype of noun, and articles (*a, the*) may form a separate class with demonstratives (*this, that*, etc.).

By comparison, the number of large word classes in Palauan is somewhat more limited—we have *nouns* (with pronouns as a subclass), *verbs*, and *modifiers* (similar to English adverbs—e.g., *kmal* ‘very’, *di* ‘just’, etc.). As we will see later, Palauan does not have “adjectives”, but rather a subtype of verb called *state verbs*. In addition, Palauan seems to

have a few very unique words which almost constitute separate word classes in themselves—the relational word *er* (Palauan’s “all-purpose” preposition), the noun and verb introducer *a*, and so on.

4. The concept of *parts of speech* is important because it offers a way of *organizing* the grammatical units of a language. The two main criteria for assigning a particular word to a given part of speech are the following:
 - a. *Distributional features* of the word in question: for example, if word X can occur in subject position, object position, and after the relational word *er*, it exhibits the distributional features of *nouns* and must therefore be a noun.
 - b. *Internal structure* of the word in question: if the same word X has suffixed forms with *-ek*, *-em*, *-el*, etc., that indicate possession (“my X”, “your X”, “his/her X”, etc.), then this is further confirmation that X is a noun, since only nouns follow this pattern. In determining the part of speech affiliation of a particular word, it is usually adequate to apply criterion (a) and then see if there is reconfirming data according to criterion (b).

[2.2]

1. The meaning-oriented definition of noun given here really represents a third criterion for identifying parts of speech. Thus, in addition to sharing distributional features and internal structure, as indicated above, all members of the same part of speech will have some *common features of meaning* (*semantic features*). In general, then, all nouns *name* or *make reference* to persons or things in the real or conceptual world. Note that textbooks on English grammar frequently define nouns as words that refer to “persons, places, things, qualities, actions, or ideas”, thus including both *concrete* and *abstract* nouns.

[2.2.1]

1. To familiarize students with the five senses, you might pick some individual concrete nouns and ask students which of the five senses are used in perceiving what that noun refers to—e.g., *derumk* (hearing), *sils* (sight), *bung* (smell, sight), *uata* (touch), *demok* (taste), etc. There are also some subclasses of Palauan state verbs that focus on one sense or the other—e.g., *beke-* for smell (*bekesengorech*, *bekeriamel*, *bekengikel*, etc.).

[2.2.1-2.2.3]

1. Exercises 2 and 3 give students practice in subclassifying nouns into human vs. nonhuman, concrete vs. abstract, etc. For further practice, take any of the lists in (5–7) and ask students to add as many items as they can think of.
2. The chart in 2.2.3 can be written on the blackboard and kept for several days. Every morning have students change the entries at the bottom of the chart, substituting one human noun for another, etc.

[2.3-2.3.3]

1. Students should have some idea of *sentence subject* vs. *sentence object* from having studied subject and (direct) object in English grammar. In discussing this material, make the following points clear:
 - a. Any *noun* can occur either as sentence subject or sentence object, depending on the situation that the speaker wants to describe:
 - (1) *buik* as subject, *katuu* as object: A buik a milsa a katuu.
 - (2) *katuu* as subject, *buik* as object: A katuu a milsa a buik.
 - b. When the entire sentence describes an action or event, the *doer* or *performer* of the action is the *sentence subject*. If the action also involves a *recipient* (person or thing affected), that person or thing is the *sentence object*.

Note: Some actions only involve a *doer*—e.g., *milil* ‘to play’, *remurt* ‘to run’, *lmangel* ‘to cry’, etc. As indicated in *Note 1*, these are called *intransitive* because there is no transfer of action from doer to recipient. By contrast, other actions involve both a *doer* and a *recipient*—e.g., *mengelebed* ‘to hit’, *oltoir* ‘to chase’, *omekoad* ‘to kill’, etc. These are called *transitive* because the action is in fact transferred from the doer to a person or thing affected.
 - c. There are other types of Palauan sentences (see 2.3.3.a–c) that involve only a subject noun but no object noun. These are either (1) sentences with *state verbs*, (2) sentences that are *equational*, or (3) sentences with *relational phrases* and a verb like *ngar*. Since there is no sentence object (and obviously no transfer of action), these three sentence types are all *intransitive*.
2. If students have studied the difference between *transitive* and *intransitive* in English grammar, then the point of *Note 1* (at the end of 2.3.2) will be clear to them. Remind them that this distinction will be very useful later when looking in detail at Palauan verbs. It is only Palauan *transitive* verbs, for example, that have *perfective* forms (e.g., *mengelebed*—*cholebedak*, *cholebedau*, *cholebedii*, etc.), while *intransitive* verbs do not.

[2.3.4]

1. If students have already studied English prepositions and understand that prepositions relate nouns to the rest of the sentence in various ways, then it might be useful to talk about the relational word *er* as Palauan’s “all-purpose” preposition. Structurally, *er* behaves just like the prepositions of English, since it is followed by a noun that could be considered an “object of the preposition”. The difference, of course, is that English has a large number of prepositions, each with its own very specific meaning—in, at, on, to, from, because of, etc.—while Palauan has the much more general *er*.

Because Palauan *er* is so semantically unspecialized, it is necessary to rely on *context* to determine the meaning of *er* in any particular sentence. For example, in *A ngaleh a mo er a stoang*, the relational word *er* is interpreted as ‘to’ because the motion verb *mo* ‘to go’ implies movement in a particular direction. By contrast, in *A beab a tilobed er a blsibs*, the relational word *er* is interpreted in a totally opposite way—as ‘out of’—because the accompanying verb *tuobed* ‘to come out, emerge’ necessarily implies the *source* or place from which the movement originates. See (24c–d) for further examples where context can be used in interpreting *er*.

See Exercise 8 for additional practice on the relational word *er* and resulting *relational phrases*.

[2.3.5]

1. The chart covering the distribution of Palauan nouns in terms of *sentence patterns* is very useful and should be copied onto the blackboard and/or into students’ notebooks. You can give students additional practice by asking them to change the example sentences.

In the summary chart of 2.3.5, the first sentence pattern—**Subject Noun + Action Verb + Object Noun**—represents a *transitive* sentence, while the other four patterns represent *intransitive* sentences.

2. *Note 2* has been added here mostly for completeness—i.e., to introduce Palauan sentence types where the subject noun in fact follows (rather than precedes) the verb. In reading 2.3, 2.3.1–3, and 2.3.5, perceptive students may immediately recognize that sentences with post-verbal subjects, though very common in Palauan, have so far been omitted from discussion. If they do, you can refer them to this note; otherwise, you may choose to omit the material of *Note 2* at this point. This issue will next appear in 4.6.

[2.4-2.4.3]

1. Many students will probably be familiar with the idea of *pronouns* from their study of English grammar. It will therefore not be too difficult to explain that pronouns *substitute* for nouns in particular circumstances—namely, when the referent is clear and it is not necessary to repeat the entire noun (phrase). The small dialog in (27) illustrates this point quite clearly, and you can create several similar examples according to this model.

Since many students will have some exposure to pronouns, you should emphasize here what is unique to Palauan pronouns in particular. Here are some of the major points:

- a. Just as English pronouns have different forms depending on their grammatical usage—e.g.,

HE for subject: *He* is a student.

HIM for object: I saw *him*.

Palauan pronouns also have different forms, depending on how they are used in the sentence. Thus, for one and the same pronoun “I”, we have all of the forms below:

- (1) *Non-emphatic* pronoun (used as subject):
AK Ak mlo er a stoang. ‘I went to the store.’
- (2) *Emphatic* pronoun (used as specific object):
NGAK Ng ulemes er ngak. ‘She was looking at me.’
- (3) *Object pronoun* (used as suffix within perfective verb):
-AK A sensei a chillebedak. ‘The teacher hit me.’
- (4) *Possessor pronoun* (used as suffix on possessed noun):
-EK, -AK, etc.: *chermek* ‘my pet’, *chimak* ‘my arm’
- (5) *Prefix pronoun* (used as prefix within certain verb forms):
KU- Ng dimlak kusuub. ‘I didn’t study.’

It is obvious that compared to English, Palauan pronouns are much more complex in their forms and usages. For some additional preliminary details, students can refer back to 1.3.9.d.1–5. *Non-emphatic* vs. *emphatic* pronouns are given some consideration in 2.4.3.

- b. Whereas English uses the same second person pronoun “you” for both singular and plural, Palauan makes a distinction: *ke* ‘you (sg.)’ vs. *kom* ‘you (pl.)’.
- c. Whereas English has only one first person plural pronoun “we”, Palauan has two. The first person plural *inclusive* pronoun *kede* is used to include the person being addressed in the speaker’s group (“we and you”), while the first person plural *exclusive* pronoun *aki* is used when the person addressed is not part of the speaker’s group (“we alone, without you”).
- d. The Palauan third person plural pronoun *te* is very special because it is specifically *marked* as being **human** plural. In other words, *te*, *tir*, *-terir*, etc., always refer to human beings. For this reason, the corresponding third person singular pronoun *ng* ‘he, she, it’ must also be used when referring to *nonhuman plural* (see Examples 30–31). A possible exception is brought up in *Note 3* at the end of 2.4.2 (for fun, ask your students which pronouns they use when referring to cats, dogs, pigs, etc.).

[2.5-2.5.3]

1. The Palauan plural prefix *re-* (*r-* before vowels) is always associated with human beings, as shown by the following classes of words:
 - a. It is attached directly to *nouns* designating human beings (*resechelik*, *rengalek*, *rekebil*, etc.).

- b. It occurs optionally with *number words* used to count human beings (see the examples in 34).
- c. It occurs in expressions that refer to human beings (e.g., *rua Toki* 'Toki and her friends').
- d. It is attached to verbs (mostly, state verbs) to form *derived nouns* referring to groups of human beings (see the examples in 36).

[2.6]

1. Analogous to English *to* before an infinitive, Palauan *a* is a typical example of a linguistic unit that only has “functional” meaning—i.e., it can only be defined by its distribution and apparent grammatical function. In other words, Palauan *a* (like English *to* before an infinitive) cannot be assigned any substantial meaning content. Therefore, the discussion in 2.6 approaches *a* by describing its distribution (occurrence before noun phrases and verb phrases, etc.) and concluding that it functions as a kind of “introducer” (or marker) for these types of phrases.

[2.7–2.7.2]

1. The function of the specifying word *er* (to distinguish *specific statements* from *general statements*) may be difficult for students to grasp. By going carefully through the examples of (41–46) and having students make up their own pairs of sentences, you should be able to get the point across. It may be helpful to note that presence of the specifying word *er* usually corresponds to use of the definite article *the* in English, while absence of *er* corresponds either to the English indefinite article *a* (with a countable noun such as *spear* in 46a) or to no article at all (with mass nouns such as *thunder*, *fish*, etc., in 41a, 44a, etc.).
2. As the examples of (42), (43), and (45) show, we really have to look at *dialogs* (connected conversations) to see when the use of specific vs. general statements (presence vs. absence of *er*) is appropriate. This might be a good opportunity to remind students that in addition to being concerned about the grammatical (structural) correctness of a sentence, we must also pay attention to the *context* (situation) in which the sentence is used. A similar point was made in discussing *pronouns* (see 2.4, Example 27), where we stated that pronouns can only be used in situations where their referents are already clear.

[2.7.3]

1. The discussion here covers an additional function of the Palauan specifying word *er*—namely, to distinguish between *singular* and *plural* when we have fairly specific nonhuman sentence objects such as *mlim* ‘your car(s)’. Because there is some disagreement about this point among Palauan speakers (see *Note 4*) and because students may already be “overloaded” with this relatively complex topic, you may choose to omit any discussion of 2.7.3.

[2.7.4]

1. The issue of *imperfective* vs. *perfective* verb is brought up in this section on the specifying word *er* because *er* occurs only after *imperfective* verb forms. This may be a good opportunity to introduce students to a few contrasting verb forms (*mengelebed—cholebedii*, *menga—kolii*, etc.), but you can postpone this discussion until the later lessons on Palauan verbs.

[2.7.5]

1. Although the *specifying word er* may really be a subtype of the *relational word er* (i.e., we could argue that yet another function of the relational word *er* is to designate a specific direct object), it will be easier for you and your students if the two items are kept apart and considered two separate words. Under this approach, we have ER #1 (specifying word) and ER #2 (relational word)—i.e., the words are pronounced (and spelled) the same, but they have very distinct meanings (or functions). Such items are called *homonyms*, and there are other good examples from Palauan—e.g., the nouns *chur* 'laughter' (possessed form: *cheril*), *chur* 'tongue' (possessed form: *chural*), and *chur* 'rib of coconut frond' (possessed form: *churul*). There are also many homonym pairs or groups in English—words that have the same pronunciation, although they are often spelled differently. Some typical examples are *two—too—to*, *pair—pear—pare*, *sew—sow—so*, *meat—meet*, *dough—doe*, *principal—principle*, and so on.

KEY TO STUDY QUESTIONS

[2.7.7. Palauan Nouns: Study Questions]

[Question 1: Group 1: Pairs or Groups of Terms]

a. **Noun vs. Verb**

A *noun* is a word that names or makes reference to a person, place, thing, or (abstract) idea, while a *verb* describes an action, state, or condition. (Examples are obvious.)

b. **Concrete Noun vs. Abstract Noun**

A *concrete noun* is any noun designating something (or someone) that we can identify or perceive by one or more of the five senses, while an *abstract noun* refers to concepts, ideas, or emotions that are not directly perceivable by the five senses. Typical examples:

- (1) *concrete* (human and nonhuman): tolechoi, babii, mlai, kerrekar, skoki
- (2) *abstract* (nonhuman): blekeu, klemerang, taem

c. **Human Noun vs. Nonhuman Noun**

See sample definition given.

d. **Sentence Subject vs. Sentence Object**

Sentence subject refers to the person (animal, or thing) that performs, carries out, or causes the action or event of a sentence. In addition, the *sentence subject* may simply be the person or thing that is being described by the sentence as a whole. By contrast, the *sentence object* is the person or thing affected by the action which the sentence subject performs. In a normal Palauan sentence (with a transitive verb), the sentence subject precedes the verb, while the sentence object follows the verb.

- Illustrations:*
1. A sechelik a dilsechii a kerrekar. 'My friend carved the log.'
 2. A sechelik a kmal dachelbai. 'My friend is very skilled.'

In (1), which is an "action sentence" with a transitive verb, the sentence subject is *sechelik*, while the sentence object is *kerrekar*. In (2), which is a sentence describing a state or condition, the subject is also *sechelik* (and there is of course no object).

e. **Subject Noun vs. Object Noun**

These terms are used when we want to say that a particular noun is functioning as sentence subject or sentence object in a given example. In most practical situations, these terms can be considered equivalents of *sentence subject* and *sentence object* (see directly above).

f. **Transitive Verb vs. Intransitive Verb**

A *transitive verb* (Eng. *eat, hit*; Pal. *mengang, mengelebed*) involves the transferral of an action from a doer (the sentence subject) to a receiver (the sentence object). By contrast, an *intransitive verb* (Eng. *walk, play*; Pal. *merael, milil*) describes an action involving only a doer (but no receiver). Verbs describing the state or condition of the sentence subject (Eng. *sick, skilled*; Pal. *smecher, dachelbai*) are also necessarily *intransitive*.

g. **Action Verb vs. State Verb**

Action verbs indicate actions or activities (*milil, mengang, ekong, melecholb, olsarech*, etc.) that always involve a doer (or “performer”) and sometimes involve a receiver (when transitive). *State verbs*, however, describe states, conditions, or qualities that characterize the sentence subject temporarily (*mekelekolt, smecher, songerenger*) or permanently (*tingoi, metongakl, bebulis*).

h. **Singular vs. Plural**

Singular refers to one person, while *plural* refers to two or more persons. In Palauan, only *human nouns* can be made plural by prefixing *re-* (*ngalek—rengalek*, etc.). The difference between singular and plural is also found among Palauan *pronouns* (*ke* ‘you—sg.’ vs. *kom* ‘you—pl.’) and Palauan *demonstratives* (*tia* ‘this thing’ vs. *aika* ‘these things’).

i. **First vs. Second vs. Third Person**

When classifying pronouns, we say that *first person pronouns* make reference to the speaker or the speaker’s group (“I, we”), *second person pronouns* make reference to the person(s) addressed, (“you”), and *third person pronouns* designate the person(s) talked about (“he, she, it, they”). Palauan has an interesting link between first and second person pronouns because the pronoun *kede* (first person plural *inclusive*) means “we—including you in our group”.

j. **Non-Emphatic Pronoun vs. Emphatic Pronoun**

Palauan *non-emphatic pronouns* are independent words that function as sentence subjects (e.g., *Ak mo er a skuul*), while *emphatic pronouns* (also independent words) occur as sentence objects after the specifying word *er* (e.g., *A sensei a ulemes er ngak*) or as “objects” of the relational word *er* (e.g., *Tia a hong er ngak*).

k. **Specific Statement vs. General Statement**

A *specific statement* is a sentence type that makes a statement or comment about a single, current situation. Specific statements often have their object noun marked with the specifying word *er*:

- (1) A ngelekek a medakt er a derumk. 'My child is afraid of the thunder
(right now, in the current situation).'

By contrast, a general statement is a sentence type that makes a general comment or observation about a habit, a frequently recurring event, and so on. The general statement corresponding to (1) above will not contain the specifying word *er*:

- (2) A ngelekek a medakt a derumk. 'My child is afraid of thunder (not
necessarily right now, but whenever
there is thunder).'

l. Specific Object vs. Nonspecific Object

A specific object is a sentence object marked by the specifying word *er* and occurring in a specific statement such as (1) in (k) above. A *nonspecific object* is a sentence object not marked by *er* (and referring to something broadly or generically) that normally occurs in a general statement such as (2) in (k) above.

m. Specifying Word *Er* vs. Relational Word *Er*

Though pronounced and spelled the same, these *homonyms* are very different in their function. The *specifying word er* marks sentence objects as specific (e.g., Ak milenga er a ngikel. 'I was eating *the* fish.'). while the *relational word er* relates nouns to the rest of the sentence through such concepts as 'to, at, in, on, out of, because of, of,' etc. (e.g., Ak mililil er a sers. 'I was playing *in* the garden.').

n. Perfective Verb vs. Imperfective Verb

Perfective verbs indicate that the action of the verb is completed or "perfected", while *imperfective verbs* indicate non-completed action or action still in progress. Perfective verbs and imperfective verbs are also very different in form, as seen below:

- (1) *Perfective verbs* have a special pronoun suffix indicating the object—e.g., *chillebedAK* 'hit **me**', *chillebedAU* 'hit **you**', *chillebedII* 'hit **him/her/it**', etc.
- (2) *Imperfective verbs* lack the pronoun suffix but are characterized in other ways—e.g., most are marked by a prefix *ME-* or *O-*: *mengelebed* 'to hit', *meruul* 'to make', *omes* 'to see, watch'.

The distinction between perfective vs. imperfective verbs is only relevant for *transitive verbs* (i.e., verbs that take sentence objects).

[Question 1: Group 2: Single Terms]

a. Grammatical System

Definition: All of the words (or meaning-bearing units) of a language and the rules for their possible combinations.

Example: The grammatical system of Palauan consists of groups of words such as nouns and verbs (the parts of speech) and rules for how these words are used in phrases, entire sentences, and so on.

b. **Parts of Speech**

Definition: Groups or classes of words whose members share certain common characteristics (primarily, similarity of distribution and similarity of internal structure).

Example: English nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs, prepositions, etc.; Palauan nouns, verbs, modifiers (such as *di*, *kmal*, etc.).

c. **Distributional Features**

Definition: The positions in a sentence (or phrase) in which the members of a particular part of speech can occur.

Example: Palauan nouns have these distributional features: they can occur in the position of sentence subject or sentence object; they can occur after the relational word *er*; and they can occur as **Noun #2** in an equational sentence.

d. **Internal Structure**

Definition: The structure or composition of a word analyzed in terms of the meaningful units or parts which it contains. In studying the internal structure of words, we often refer to a basic part (called a root or stem) and prefixes, infixes, or suffixes that are added to it.

Examples:

1. The Palauan noun *chimak* 'my hand' has the internal structure CHIM (noun stem) + AK (possessor suffix).
2. The Palauan perfective verb form *chillebedii* '(someone) hit him/her/it' has the internal structure CH (part of verb stem) + IL (infix past tense marker) + LEBED (part of verb stem) + II (suffix object pronoun).
3. The Palauan state verb *beketekoi* 'talkative' has the internal structure BEKE (prefix) + TEKOI (noun stem).

Note: In linguistic terms, the study of the meaning-bearing units of a language (the *morphemes*) and how they combine to form words is called *morphology*.

e. **Five Senses**

Definition and Examples: The natural ways of perceiving things through sight, hearing, touch, taste, and smell. Any noun referring to something that we can identify or perceive through one or more of these five senses is called a *concrete* noun.

f. Action Sentence

Definition: A sentence that describes an action, activity, or event (as opposed to a state or a condition). Palauan action sentences always have a subject and an action verb, but they may or may not have a sentence object.

Examples:

1. Subject Noun + Action Verb + Object Noun

A ngalek a milengelebed er a katuu.

2. Subject Noun + Action Verb (no object noun)

A ngalek a mililil er tiang.

g. Equational Sentence

Definition: A sentence of the pattern **Noun #1** + (MLE for past tense) + **Noun #2**, in which **Noun #1** (the subject noun) is equated with (or included in) the particular profession, nationality, or group designated by **Noun #2**.

Examples: 1. A sechelik a chad er a Guam. 'My friend is Guamanian.'
2. A ochellek a mle soldau. 'My younger brother was a soldier.'

h. Phrase

Definition: A general term for any group of related words that form a grammatical unit.

Examples: *er a sers* ('in the garden'—relational phrase)
mle mo smecher ('has become sick'—verb phrase)

i. Relational Phrase

Definition: A phrase having the structure **Relational Word Er + Noun** (with *a* preceding the noun). The function of a relational phrase is to relate the noun following *er* to the rest of the sentence by indicating the location of an action or state (locational phrase), the time of an action or state (temporal phrase), etc.

Examples are given below after a definition of each subtype:

- (1) **Locational Phrase**—a type of relational phrase that indicates where someone or something is located:

A rengelekek a ngar er a skuul. 'My children are at school.'

or where an action or state occurs:

A rekebil a meloik er se el delmerab. 'The girls are dancing in that room.'

- (2) Directional Phrase—a type of relational phrase that indicates the direction in which some movement proceeds:

A rubak a mlo er a kederang. 'The old man went to the beach.'

- (3) Source Phrase—a type of relational phrase that indicates the place from which or out of which some movement occurs:

A beab a tilobed er a kahol. 'The mouse came out of the box.'

- (4) Cause Phrase—a type of relational phrase that indicates the cause (or reason) for a particular state or action:

A rengalek a chilarm er a klsengerenger. 'The children were suffering from hunger.'

- (5) Temporal Phrase—a type of relational phrase that indicates the time of an action or state:

Aki ulemengur er a euid el klok. 'We had dinner at seven o'clock.'

j. Pronoun

Definition: A short word referring to persons such as 'I', 'you', 'he', etc., that can substitute for a noun in the proper context.

Example: If someone asks the question of (1), we can simply reply with (2):

- (1) Ng ngar er ker a Toki? 'Where's Toki?'
 (2) Ng ngar er a blik. 'She's at my house.'

In (2), the pronoun *ng* 'she' can be used instead of the full noun *Toki* as sentence subject because it is totally clear from (1) who is being talked about.

Note: There are many different kinds of pronouns in Palauan depending on grammatical usage: non-emphatic pronouns for sentence subject, emphatic pronouns for use after *er*, suffixed object pronouns for use with perfective verbs, etc.

k. Plural Noun

Definition: A noun formed by adding the plural prefix *re-* (or *r-* before a vowel) to a noun stem. Plural nouns in Palauan always refer to two or more human beings (non-human nouns cannot use the prefix *re-*).

Examples: *sensei*—*resensei*, *buik*—*rebuik*.

l. Derived Plural Noun

Definition: A special noun formed by adding the plural prefix *re-* to Palauan state verbs (or, occasionally, action verbs). The resulting form refers to the group of people characterized by the particular state (or action).

Example: The prefix *re-* is added to the state verb *meteet* 'rich' to give the derived plural noun *remeteet*, which means 'rich people, the wealthy'.

m. Plural Prefix

Definition: The prefix *re-* (or *r-* before a vowel) that is added to various stems to form nouns referring to two or more human beings.

Examples: See (k-l) above.

n. Number Word

Definition: A word referring to a number ('one, two, three', etc.). Palauan has different number words depending on what is being counted.

Examples: *eru el sils* 'two days' vs. *teru el buik* 'two boys' vs. *teblo el blai* 'two houses'. The plural prefix *re-* attaches optionally to numbers referring to human beings—e.g., *(re)teruich el ngalek* 'ten children'.

o. Demonstrative

Definition: A type of noun that is used to point out persons or things or indicate where someone or something is located. Palauan demonstratives correspond to English 'this, that, these, those' but have different forms depending on whether they refer to persons or things.

Examples: *tia* 'this thing, here', *ng(i)ka* 'this person', etc. See (40) in 2.6.2 for additional examples.

p. Homonym

Definition and Examples: A word that is pronounced exactly like another word but is clearly different in meaning and/or grammatical function. In Palauan, homonyms will also be spelled the same (e.g., there are three words *chur* meaning 'laughter' or 'tongue' or 'rib of coconut frond'; and we have already talked at length about the relational word *er* vs. the specifying word *er*). In English, however, homonyms are often spelled differently, though pronounced the same (e.g., *loan* vs. *lone*, *do* vs. *dew*, etc.).

[Question 2]

In general, a *system* is any group of interrelated units or terms and the rules or principles for their combination (interaction). The three systems so far studied—sound system, spelling system, and grammatical system—all have combinable units (sounds, letters, words) as well as rules specifying the possible combinations (pronunciation rules, spelling rules, grammar rules). See Specific Comment 1 above, in which the small outline given can be used as a model answer.

[Question 3]

Basically, classification of the words of a language into *parts of speech*—nouns, verbs, etc.—is essential if we wish to make any kind of organized statement about the language's grammatical structure. The concept of part of speech allows us to divide the thousands of words (or meaning-bearing units) of a language into a very small number of groups. The two major determining factors for part of speech assignment are shared distributional features and internal structure. Once the parts of speech of a language are clearly defined, we can use them to explain the grammatical patterns of entire sentences—e.g., a typical “action sentence” in Palauan will follow the pattern **noun** (used as subject) + **verb** (transitive action verb) + **noun** (used as object). See Specific Comments 3 and 4 above for additional approaches to answering this question.

[Question 4]

The distinction between *human* and *nonhuman* is essential to Palauan grammar because it turns up in several important areas:

- a. The plural prefix *re-* only applies to human nouns.
- b. The third person plural pronoun *te* (*tir*, *-terir*, etc.) refers specifically to human beings.
- c. Demonstrative words depend on the distinction between human (*ng(i)ka* ‘this person’, *tirka* ‘these people’, etc.) and nonhuman (*tia* ‘this thing’, *aika* ‘these things’, etc.).
- d. Number words also depend on the distinction between human (*tede* ‘three people’) and nonhuman (*klde* ‘three animals or nonliving things’).

[Question 5]

See Specific Comment 5 and sections 2.3-2.3.2 for the materials to answer this question. Students may use the suggested format as an answer:

Distribution of Palauan Nouns

1. *Position:* Palauan nouns can occur in the position of *sentence subject*.
Example: A *tolechoi* a *lilangel*. ‘The baby was crying.’

2. **Position:** Palauan nouns can occur in the position of *sentence object* (with transitive verbs only).

Example: A mechas a silengosii a beras. 'The old woman boiled the rice.'

3. **Position:** Palauan nouns can occur after the *relational word er* (preceded themselves by a).

Example: A ngalek a rirebet er a cheldukl. 'The child fell off the dock.'

4. **Position:** Palauan nouns can occur as Noun #2 in an *equational sentence*.

Example: Ngka el rubak a merredel. 'This old man is the leader.'

See 2.3.5 for a summary chart of sentence patterns.

[Question 6]

These are called *equational sentences* and are basically of the form **Noun #1 + Noun #2**. In the present tense there is no verb for "be", but in the past tense we have *mle*. All details are given in 2.3.3.

[Question 7]

The *relational word er* has the general function of relating its "object" (the noun that follows it) to other elements in the sentence. Most *relational phrases* supply additional information about the *verb* (or entire action, event, state, etc.) of the sentence—the direction of movement, place of action, time of action, etc. One type of relational phrase clearly relates its "object" to another *noun* in the sentence—e.g., *hong er a sensei* 'teacher's book', where *sensei* is interpreted as the *possessor* of the preceding noun *hong*. The five types of relational phrase introduced in this lesson—*locational*, *directional*, *temporal*, *source*, and *cause*—are all defined and illustrated in 2.3.3–2.3.4.

[Question 8]

See the definition of *pronoun* in (1-j) above (Answers for Group 2—Single Terms). See also 2.4–2.4.3 of this lesson. It is reasonable to say that pronouns are a subtype of noun because they can occur in the same sentence positions as nouns—sentence subject (non-emphatic pronouns), sentence object after specifying word *er* (emphatic pronouns), "object" after relational word *er* (emphatic pronouns), etc.

[Question 9]

- ak* is **first person singular**, while *ke* is **second person singular**.
- aki* is first person plural **exclusive**, while *kede* is first person plural **inclusive**.
- ke* is second person **singular**, while *kom* is second person **plural**.
- ng* is third person singular (human or nonhuman) and third person plural (nonhuman only), while *te* is specifically third person **human plural**.

[Question 10]

Te is especially marked as a third person **human plural** pronoun. Therefore, it can only substitute (in the proper context) for nouns referring to two or more human beings. See 2.4.2 for additional discussion and examples.

[Question 11]

As explained in 2.4.3 and in 1.3.9.d.1–2 of Lesson One, non-emphatic vs. emphatic pronouns show (1) formal differences (*ak* vs. *ngak*, *ng* vs. *ngii*, *te* vs. *tir*, etc.) and (2) distributional differences (non-emphatic pronouns occur as subjects, emphatic pronouns occur after *er*, etc.).

[Question 12]

The prefix *re-* (*r-*) is attachable only to nouns referring to human beings. Furthermore, it can attach to state (sometimes, action) verbs to form derived plural nouns referring to groups of human beings (e.g., *metet* 'rich'—*remetet* 'rich people, the wealthy'). It also attaches to words like *ua* 'like, as' when human referents are intended (e.g., *rua Toki* 'Toki and her friends'). Finally, it is attached optionally to number words designating human beings. See 2.5–2.5.3 for the entire discussion.

[Question 13]

A merely has a grammatical function and is therefore impossible to assign a specific meaning to. As explained in 2.6–2.6.3, *a* serves as an introducer or marker for nouns (noun phrases) and verbs (verb phrases) in Palauan sentences, except when in the direct environment of pronouns or demonstratives.

[Question 14]

As seen in 2.7–2.7.3, the presence vs. absence of the specifying word *er* in a Palauan sentence results in the following major distinction: with *er* present, we normally have a specific object and the entire sentence is a specific statement; without *er*, we usually have a general (nonspecific) object and the entire sentence is a general statement. For some speakers, the presence vs. absence of *er* also plays the role of distinguishing between a singular vs. plural object (see 50 in 2.7.3).

[Question 15]

Sentence (a) has a specific object and therefore refers to some particular boat:

- (a) 'I need the boat (the one that we all know about, the one that is set aside, etc.) tomorrow.'

By contrast, sentence (b) has a nonspecific object and does not refer to any particular boat:

(b) 'I need a boat (some boat, any boat that may become available, etc.) tomorrow.'

It is also possible for some speakers to view (a) vs. (b) as a contrast between singular vs. plural specific objects. In this case, sentence (b) would mean 'I need the boats tomorrow.' This is a rather difficult area—see *Note 4* at the end of 2.7.3.

[Question 16]

Perfective verbs can be distinguished (from imperfective verbs) in terms of meaning (perfective verbs always indicate an action brought to completion) and form (perfective verbs always have a suffixed object pronoun: *chillebedAK*, *chillebedAU*, *chillebedII*, etc.). The specifying word *er* can never occur after a perfective verb form, probably because it would be redundant (since the suffixed object pronouns within perfective verb forms are already specific). Examples are given in 2.7.4, though students should give different examples in answer to this question.

[Question 17]

Because the functions of relational *er* and specifying *er* are so different, it is probably better to consider them as separate words (homonyms). Their differing functions are summarized in 2.7.5 and in the definition of contrasting terms given in (1-m) above (Answers for Group 1—Pairs or Groups of Terms).

KEY TO EXERCISES

[2.7.8. Palauan Nouns: Exercises]

[Exercise 1]

- a. Any of the examples found in PRG Chapter 3 ("Noun Possession"), through 3.4.3, would qualify as satisfactory answers to this question. There are many subtypes that students may find:
- (1) No change of stem: chim—chimak, chikl—chikle
 - (2) Original full vowel of stem deleted: bilas—bilsengek, ngakl—ngklek
 - (3) Original full vowel of stem becomes weak "e": kar—keruk, ngor—ngerek
 - (4) Original diphthong of stem simplified by loss of one vowel: uingel—ungelek, taem—temek
 - (5) Original double vowel reduced to single vowel: beluu—beluak, oriik—orikek
- b. Many examples of verbs formed by prefixing *ou-* to a noun are found in PRG Chapter 6 ("The Verb Marker..."), 6.1.1. A few are given here:
- oublai 'own a house'—blai 'house'
 oucharm 'keep a pet'—charm 'animal'
 oukita 'play the guitar'—kita 'guitar'
 ousechelei 'be friends with'—sechelei 'friend'
- c. Examples can be found on Page 121 of the NPED: *klauchad* 'blood relationship' from *chad* 'man, person', *klaumekemad* 'war' from *mekemad* 'war', etc.

[Exercise 2]

Students should have no trouble finding five additional nouns in each of the categories indicated.

[Exercise 3]

btuch-D	redil-A	kirek-E
kerebou-B	sers-D	Cisco-A
tbak-D	iis-C or D	budech-E
tuu-C	tolechoi-A	belochel-B
ngduul-B	subelek-D or E	chelakngikl-B
sebechek-E	soam-E	bulis-A
klukuk-E	bisebusech-D	seizi-E
blekeu-E	bkau-C	omenged-E
biskang-D	uades-E	kldols-E
sukal-D	kldidaierreng-E	cheldech duch-D or E

[Exercise 4]

Some typical transitive verbs that students may give are *menga*, *melim*, *mesuub*, *mengelebed*, *omar*, *omes*, *orrenge*s, *mesilek*, *mengimd*, *melai*, etc. Once the students have written their sentences, ask them to find the subject noun, verb, and object noun. If there is time, discuss whether the verb forms used are perfective or imperfective. Be sure students' translations are accurate.

[Exercise 5]

Some typical *intransitive* verbs that students may use are *milil*, *omengur*, *mechiuau*, *merael*, *remurt*, *mong*, *ekong*, *mei*, *lmuut*, *olengull*, *suebek*, etc. Make sure the verbs used by students in fact cannot occur with object nouns. Check students' translations for accuracy.

[Exercise 6]

- (1) *babii*—sentence subject, *sers*—follows relational word *er*
- (2) *daiksang*—sentence subject, *blai*—sentence object
- (3) *chad*—sentence subject, *Siabal*—follows relational word *er*, *bengngos*—Noun #2 in equational sentence. In this sentence, the entire phrase *chad er a Siabal* 'Japanese person' is technically the sentence subject.
- (4) *rrellem*—sentence subject
- (5) *sensei*—sentence subject, *chaibebelau*—sentence object
- (6) *subelem*—sentence subject (in post-verbal position—see Note 2 at end of 2.3.5)

[Exercise 7]

- (1) *meloik*—(transitive) action verb
Sentence: Te meloik er a karekimenai. 'They're dancing the "karekimenai".'
- (2) *mellomes*—state verb
Sentence: A ngelekem a kmal mellomes. 'Your child is very smart.'
- (3) *orriik*—(transitive) action verb
Sentence: Ak mo orikii a babii. 'I'm going to chase out the pig.'
- (4) *oureor*—action verb (usually intransitive)
Sentence: Ak oureor er tia er a bek el sils. 'I work here every day.'
- (5) *smiich*—state verb
Sentence: Ngka el ngalek a kmal smiich el mesuub. 'This child studies very enthusiastically.'

- (6) melibek—(transitive) action verb
Sentence: A buik a dilebekii a bduu. 'The boy kicked the ball.'
- (7) mengerekor—(intransitive) action verb
Sentence: A bechik a di mengerekor
 me ng diak el sebechek 'My husband grinds his teeth
 el mechiuaiu. (at night), so I can't sleep.'
- (8) lmuut—(intransitive) action verb
Sentence: A bechik a liluut er a kesus. 'My wife returned last night.'
- (9) mellemau—state verb
Sentence: A sensei a chillebedak me 'The teacher hit me, so my leg has
 ng mla mo mellemau a ochik. become black and blue.'
- (10) songerenger—state verb
Sentence: Te mla mo songerenger me 'They've gotten hungry, so I'm
 ak mo meruul a kall. going to prepare the food.'

[Exercise 8]

- (1) er a klukuk—temporal
- (2) er a blsibs—source
- (3) er a kledoraib—cause
- (4) er a delmerab—locational
- (5) er a ideliseb—temporal
- (6) er a blim—directional
- (7) er a kerrekarak—source
- (8) er a kederang—locational
- (9) er a chemachel—cause
- (10) er a stoang—directional

Be sure students also provide correct translations.

[Exercise 9]

- (1) kom—non-emphatic, 2nd pers. pl.
 ngii—emphatic, 3rd pers. sing.
- (2) ke—non-emphatic, 2nd pers. sing.
 ak—non-emphatic, 1st pers. sing.
 kemiu—emphatic, 2nd pers. pl.

- (3) kede—non-emphatic, 1st pers. pl. (inclusive)
tir—emphatic, 3rd pers. human pl.
- (4) kemiu—emphatic, 2nd pers. pl.
kom—non-emphatic, 2nd pers. pl.
aki—non-emphatic, 1st pers. pl. (exclusive)
- (5) kau—emphatic, 2nd pers. sg.
ngak—emphatic, 1st pers. sg.

[Exercise 10]

Before having students write this exercise, review the concepts *general statement* vs. *specific statement* and do a couple of preliminary examples on the blackboard.

[Exercise 11]

- (1) specifying *er* (*bilek* is sentence object)
- (2) relational *er* (*er kid* indicates possession); relational *er* (*er a ngebard* modifies or characterizes *chad*)
- (3) specifying *er* (emphatic pronoun *tir* is sentence object); relational *er* (*er a medal a stoang* is a locational phrase)
- (4) relational *er* (cause phrase)
- (5) relational *er* (*er a resensei*) indicates possession

SUGGESTIONS FOR ADDITIONAL ACTIVITIES

1. It might be very helpful if your students reviewed some basic English grammar before or during the study of this lesson. There are many ideas and terms that they already may be quite familiar with, so that extended discussions may actually not be necessary. You might wish to coordinate with the English teacher to see what English grammar concepts the students already know. The English teacher may even agree to give a few review assignments to the students and discuss them in his/her class. If this is not feasible, you may want to spend some extra time in your class reviewing the relevant English grammar and making comparisons with Palauan. Students may already be familiar with such concepts as grammatical system, part of speech, noun, verb, pronoun, subject, object, phrase, singular vs. plural, and first vs. second vs. third person.
2. Photocopy one or two pages from the *NPED* that have a good variety of *nouns* on them. Have students look at each relevant dictionary entry and apply some of the concepts studied in this lesson. Is the noun abstract or concrete, human or nonhuman, etc.? Does it have an internal structure (prefix + stem, stem + suffix, etc.)?

3. Look at a selected piece of written Palauan text (from a story, legend, etc.). Have students focus on some of the concepts of this lesson by looking for such elements as sentence subject and object, relational phrases, action vs. state verbs, transitive vs. intransitive verbs, pronouns, plural nouns, specific vs. general statements, etc.
4. Both you and the students will recognize that many grammatical concepts and terms are introduced in this lesson. Have the students write an outline or short essay (or have a class discussion) on the following questions:
 - a. What new concepts (and terms) of grammar did they learn in this lesson?
 - b. What concepts of grammar were they already familiar with from their study of English?
 - c. What aspects of grammar do English and Palauan have in common? (For example, they both have nouns and verbs, sentence subjects and objects, transitive and intransitive verbs, etc.)
 - d. What grammatical elements are very specific and unique to Palauan? (For example, we have the relational word *er*, the specifying word *er*, *a* to introduce or mark noun phrases and verb phrases, unusual features of the plural, perfective vs. imperfective verbs, etc.).

3

Teacher's Manual NOUN POSSESSION IN PALAUAN

GENERAL COMMENTS

1. The material in this lesson corresponds to most of what is presented in Chapter 3 (“Noun Possession”) of the PRG. In Lesson 2 of this textbook students learned about the distribution of Palauan nouns and about the various concepts needed to analyze Palauan nouns usefully (human vs. nonhuman, singular vs. plural, etc.). In this lesson, we concentrate on perhaps the most obvious feature of Palauan nouns—namely, that they inflect (change form) with suffixes to indicate the possessor. In Sections 3.1 to 3.3.9 students will examine all of the phonetic aspects of Palauan noun possession and discover, hopefully, what an extremely rich and complex system it actually is. In the second part of the lesson (Sections 3.4 to 3.11) students will focus on certain issues of grammar and meaning relevant to Palauan noun possession—e.g., the general grammatical form of noun phrases of possession and the wide range of meanings that can be derived from the general idea of “possession”.
2. There are some ways in which the materials from PRG Chapter 3 have been simplified or condensed. Technical linguistic discussion of the processes of vowel weakening has been eliminated or kept at a real minimum. One major semantic topic—the contrast between “noun phrases of possession” and “noun phrases of characterization” (see PRG 3.7)—has been generalized and downplayed. Instead, the single technical term *noun phrase of possession* is used in this lesson to cover all phrases of the form **Noun #1 (in possessed form) + A + Noun #2**, regardless of how these phrases are actually interpreted. Thus, in this textbook, both of the phrases
 - a. blil a Droteo ‘Droteo’s house’
 - b. blil a dongu ‘tool shed’

are referred to as noun phrases of possession, although from the semantic viewpoint they are rather different. We simply say (see 3.5.3 of this textbook) that (a) represents “true” possession or ownership of something (*blai*) by somebody (*Droteo*), while in (b) the second noun (*dongu*) *describes* or *characterizes* the first noun (*blai*) in some way (in this case, by giving the *purpose* of the structure as a storehouse for tools). Even though we still use terms such as “characterize” and “describe” in this lesson, we have eliminated

the unwieldy terminological distinction of PRG Chapter 3, where (a) would be a *noun phrase of possession*, while (b) would be a *noun phrase of characterization*.

3. Admittedly, there is a tremendous amount of data, terminology, and explanation in this lesson. It is possible that students will become discouraged, for example, at the magnitude of what they must know concerning formal and phonetic aspects of noun possession. Is a noun possessible or unpossessible? If possessible, is it optionally possessed or obligatorily possessed? Which set of possessor suffixes does a given noun stem take—the E-Set, U-Set, I-Set, or A-Set? When a noun stem is put into a possessed form, what happens to its vowel or vowel cluster? Is there reduction to weak E or total vowel deletion? Which vowel of a vowel cluster is lost? Etc., etc.—the questions go on and on!

All of these issues might seem overwhelming to students, but if the topics are introduced gradually, one by one, students should be able to absorb the large quantities of material. To encourage students along the way, you may need to remind them that as native speakers of the language, they already really “know” everything in this lesson and that what they are really learning here is how to classify and talk about the material. It may also help to say that all human languages are fantastically complex and rich, and that noun possession is one such area of Palauan. Of course, the structure of Palauan *verbs* will be the most complex of all!

Students may also have trouble absorbing all of the materials (starting with 3.4) on the structure, meaning, and interpretation of Palauan noun phrases of possession. You can remind them that the semantic structure (structure of meaning) within any given language is a very vast and complex network of ideas, strategies, associations, and so on. Linguists still have much ground to break in studying the structure of meaning in human languages. As an example of the complicated semantic structures that we are capable of, you will probably want to discuss in detail the concept (and examples) of Palauan *complex noun phrases of possession* presented in 3.8.1–3.8.2.

4. The most important points, general and specific, that students should learn in Lesson Three are listed below.

[3.1]

- a. Many Palauan words can be identified as nouns by their *internal structure: noun stem + possessor suffix*. If the internal structure of a given word is complex, this means it has two or more *meaning-bearing units (morphemes)*, which often occur as *prefixes* or as *suffixes*.

[3.1.1]

- b. *Possessor suffixes* basically function to indicate *possession* or *ownership*, but there are many other corollary ways of interpreting them—part-whole relationship, kinship, etc.

[3.2–3.2.2]

- c. Palauan *possessor suffixes* can be classified according to such categories as
- (1) meaning: first vs. second vs. third person, singular vs. plural, inclusive vs. exclusive, human vs. nonhuman
 - (2) form: E-Set vs. U-Set vs. I-Set vs. A-Set

[3.3–3.3.8]

- d. There is a variety of changes that affect the *vowels* or *vowel clusters* of noun stems when the possessed forms are derived. These changes are all related to the underlying principle that *vowel or vowel cluster weakening* occurs when a vowel or vowel cluster loses its *stress*. This happens precisely when possessor suffixes are attached to noun stems, because a possessor suffix will always be (or contain) the *stressed syllable* of a word. The general term *weakening* is used for any of the following changes that occur in noun stems when possessor suffixes are added (see Summary, 3.3.8):
- (1) Single full vowels are reduced to **weak E** or deleted
 - (2) Double vowels become single vowels (shortened); occasionally a double vowel is reduced to weak E or deleted
 - (3) Vowel clusters are reduced by deletion of one vowel; in some cases, a vowel cluster is reduced to weak E or changed to a totally new vowel.

[3.4–3.4.2]

- e. We introduce the term *noun phrase of possession* to cover any expression of the form
- Noun #1 (in possessed form) + A + Noun #2**

such as *ngelekel a sensei*, *techellel a Droteo*, etc. In such noun phrases, we find a new *distributional position* for Palauan nouns—namely, after a third person singular possessed form (see 3.4.2).

[3.5–3.5.3]

- f. Palauan nouns are either *possessible* or *unpossessible* (see 3.7). If they are possessible, they are either *optionally possessed* or *obligatorily possessed*. There are several categories of obligatorily possessed nouns that are readily identifiable (see 34a–d in 3.5.1). There are many commonly used noun phrases of possession in which Noun #1 is an obligatorily possessed noun (see 35–6 in 3.5.2). In many cases, these noun phrases of possession have rather specialized meanings and involve relationships somewhat different from “pure” possession or ownership (see 37a–g in 3.5.3).

[3.6]

- g. We now know enough Palauan grammar to realize that the ideas of *sentence subject*, *sentence object*, etc., really involve entire *noun phrases* rather than single nouns (as implied earlier). Thus, it is proper to talk about the *subject noun phrase*, *object noun phrase*, and so on. This means that anything from a single (one-morpheme) word to a group of related words can appear in subject position, object position, etc., in a Palauan sentence. Focusing on the sentence subject (*italicized*), we have, for example:

- (1) *single noun* (without possessor suffixes): *A blai a milseseb.*
- (2) *single noun* (in possessed form): *A blirir a milseseb.*
- (3) *noun phrase of possession*: *A blirir a resechelik a milseseb.*
- (4) *appositional phrase*: *A chermek el bilis a chiliis.*

[3.7-3.7.2]

- h. With Palauan *unpossessible nouns*, we must indicate possession with special *noun phrases of possession* containing *er*—e.g., *delmerab er ngak*, *sidosia er a rubak*, etc. In this type of noun phrase of possession, Noun #1 must be followed by a subtype of *relational phrase* called a *possessor phrase*. Thus, in the examples just given, the *possessor phrases* are *er ngak* and *er a rubak*, where the *relational word er* is equivalent to English “of” (or ‘s added to Noun #2).

[3.8-3.8.2]

- i. We can even have Palauan *noun phrases of possession* of the form *Noun #1 + Possessor Phrase* when Noun #1 is an *optionally possessed noun* (though occurring, of course, without any possessor suffixes). Thus, we have *kall er a Sina*, *chad er a omenged*, and all of the other examples of (44) in 3.8. In all cases of this kind, we do not have “true” possession or ownership but some kind of *description* or *characterization*. We can combine the ideas of “true” possession and description into a single phrase such as *kelel a Toki er a Sina* ‘Toki’s Chinese food’, which is a **complex noun phrase of possession**.

[3.9]

- j. There is a rather unique kind of noun phrase in Palauan called an *appositional phrase*. Exhibiting the form *Noun #1 (in possessed form) + EL + Noun #2*, this kind of noun phrase is used to show that Noun #2 (a specific noun) is *functioning* as a member of Noun #1 (a category noun). Thus, an appositional phrase like *imelem el biang* ‘your (drink of) beer’ is used to indicate that on a particular occasion, a given can (or glass) of beer is functioning as your drink.

SPECIFIC COMMENTS

[3.1.]

1. The term *internal structure* has come up several times and should be very familiar to students. The entire first half of this lesson (through 3.3.9) is devoted to examining the internal structure of Palauan possessed nouns and especially to showing how the addition of possessor suffixes affects the vowels and vowel clusters of the noun stem. By taking a few simple examples such as *chim*—*chimak*, you can illustrate the terms *noun stem* (*chim*), *suffix* and *possessor suffix* (*-ak*), *possessed form* of a noun (*chimak*), and *meaning-bearing unit* or *morpheme* (*chim*, *-ak*).

[3.1.1]

1. As mentioned several times already, the terms *possession* and *possessor* are used rather broadly in this lesson. The easiest way to introduce these ideas to students is to first use examples of what we call “true” possession or ownership—e.g., *blil a Droteo*—where a person is actually the (legal or practical) owner of something at a given time. From here, you can move gradually into more abstract types of “possession”—e.g., *part of body/person whose body it is* (as in *chimal a Droteo*, where the hand is part of Droteo’s body, but it would sound strange to say—at least in English—that Droteo “owned” his hand). You may use your own judgment in determining how deeply you want to go into the semantic concepts of (34a–d) in 3.5.1 and (37a–g) in 3.5.3. Students should be able, however, to distinguish between “true” possession and situations where *description* or *characterization* is involved.

[3.2–3.2.2]

1. Most of the terms introduced here are essential tools in allowing students to describe and classify Palauan *possessor suffixes* (and Palauan *pronouns* in general). The following terms have been introduced earlier and should be very clear to students: *first* vs. *second* vs. *third person*, *singular* vs. *plural*, *inclusive* vs. *exclusive* (for first person plural), *human* vs. *non-human* (for third person plural). The new terms for sets of possessor suffixes (*E-Set*, *U-Set*, *I-Set*, *A-Set*) correspond to the actual vowels in the suffixes and should therefore be immediately obvious.

As a helpful review, you may wish to discuss the similarities and differences between Palauan and English pronouns (as you did in Lesson 2). Some new points can be added here (see *Note 2* on *gender* at the end of 3.2.1). In comparing the two languages further, you can easily get students to see that while possession in Palauan is achieved through a system of suffixes, in English we use a system of “possessive adjectives” that precede the noun—*my house*, *your book*, etc. In English, of course, the internal structure of the noun itself is not affected when a possessive adjective precedes, whereas in Palauan there are massive changes affecting the vowels and vowel clusters of noun stems (i.e., vowel weakening processes).

2. After Chart (3) in 3.2.1, we note that most linguists consider the possessor suffixes to be a subtype of pronoun. We in fact made this assumption in 1.3.9.d.4, where we called these forms *possessor pronouns*. You may tell students that the terms *possessor suffix* and *possessor pronoun* are interchangeable, but in this textbook we try to use one or the other depending on the focus of our discussion. Thus, in this lesson, where we concentrate on the internal structure of possessed nouns and the phenomenon of vowel weakening, it is more appropriate to use the term *possessor suffix*. However, in Lesson 1 (1.3.9.d.1–5) and Lesson 4, where we are doing an overall survey of pronoun types, the term *possessor pronoun* is perhaps preferable.
3. Towards the end of 3.2.2 we talk about the *predictability* of possessor suffixes—i.e., can we predict from the form (or meaning) of a noun stem whether it will take the E-Set, U-Set, etc.? The issue of predictability is brought up later in this lesson, and you may wish to tie it in here:
 - a. Section 3.3.8: How much can we predict about *vowel* and *vowel cluster weakening*?
 - b. Section 3.5.1 (last paragraph): Can we predict whether a given noun is going to be optionally or obligatorily possessed?
 - c. Section 3.7 (last paragraph): Can we predict whether a given noun will be unpossessible?
4. At the end of 3.2.2, in Section (a) after (9), the concept of *homonym* again turns up, now in a way relevant to Palauan noun possession (and to the concept of predictability).

[3.3–3.3.8]

1. In these sections, the earlier concepts of *weak E* and *stressed vs. unstressed* are related to the current topic of *noun possession* through the “Principles of Vowel Weakening” described in (11–13) of 3.3.1. This is a good opportunity to make students aware that many aspects of a language are often tied together in different ways. Thus, the concepts of *stress*, *weak E*, etc., studied earlier in other contexts are now relevant—indeed, essential—to understanding how Palauan *noun possession* works. You may also wish to review some parts of 1.3.2 in Lesson 1 (*full E* vs. *weak E*, *stressed vs. unstressed*, etc.) at this time.
2. The various patterns of vowel or vowel cluster weakening, deletion, etc. are themselves rather straightforward, and students should not have much difficulty recognizing the formal differences. A few points need special attention, however:
 - a. The term “weakening” is used in a very broad sense in this lesson. First, it applies to changes in either *single full vowels* or *vowel clusters*. Second, it covers a range of phonetic changes including *reduction to weak E*, *deletion*, and sometimes *modification into an entirely new vowel*.

- b. In order to make these changes seem more real, students should be asked to pronounce out loud relevant pairs of noun stems with their possessed forms. This is especially important in a case like *sers*—*sersek*, where the spelling does not reveal the phonetic change from *full E* in *sers* to *weak E* in *sersek*.
- c. *Note 3* at the end of 3.3.2 attempts to get students to see the “forest” instead of the “trees” by suggesting some possible reasons for the stress changes in Palauan. You may omit this speculation if you think students will find it confusing.
- d. In 3.3.5, where we see the process of *vowel deletion*, we can again tie in certain earlier concepts such as *syllabic consonant* and *consonant cluster*. The examples in (22) and (23) can be used in detail to cover these points.
- e. Various unusual or “irregular” forms are observed and commented on in *Note 4* through *Note 9*. You might mention to students that in analyzing a language we first try to find the most usual (or general) patterns or rules—i.e., those that apply to the greatest number of examples. Once we have assigned most words, stems, etc. to these “regular” patterns, there will normally be some items that do not fit exactly. These forms, which may even be single-member categories (e.g., does any other noun stem of Palauan exactly follow the pattern of *ilumel*—*imelek*, where *-lu-* is lost?), are usually termed “irregular” or “exceptional”.

[3.3.7]

1. The actual phonetic rules of *vowel cluster (diphthong) shortening* have been somewhat oversimplified here into the two main patterns of *deletion of stronger vowel* and *deletion of weaker vowel*. There are also phonetic reasons why certain diphthongs “blend” into a single new vowel (e.g., *rael*—*rolel*), but explaining them would require too much linguistic terminology.

[3.3.8]

1. It would be helpful to students to write a chart like (30) on the blackboard and leave it in view for a period of time. At the beginning of each class, students could be asked to replace the old examples with new ones.

[3.3.9]

1. After the list in (32), it is suggested that students try to identify the types of vowel and vowel cluster weakening as a kind of review exercise. If you choose to have students do this in class or as a written assignment, here is the answer key:

bas—besengel: full vowel A weakens to weak E
 kerreker—kerrekerngel: full vowel E (of final syllable) weakens to weak E
 billum—billemengel: full vowel U weakens to weak E
 bechos—bechesengel: full vowel O weakens to weak E
 btuch—btechengel: full vowel U weakens to weak E
 bilas—bilsengel: A is deleted
 deleb—delbengel: (full) E is deleted
 btuu—btungel: double vowel is shortened
 katuu—katungel: double vowel is shortened
 uum—umengel: double vowel is shortened
 teu—tengel: vowel cluster is shortened by deletion of weaker vowel
 bub—bngel: U and final consonant B are both deleted
 biskang—biskelengel: full vowel A weakens to weak E and noun-stem final NG changes to L
 diokang—diokelengel: same as for previous example

[3.4]

1. In this and the following sections, we make frequent reference to the terms *possession*, *possessor*, and *noun phrase of possession*. As noted earlier, these terms are all used somewhat broadly in that they not only cover cases of “true” possession or ownership but also other kinds of relationships (part-whole, kinship, etc.) that often involve *description* or *characterization*.

[3.4.1]

1. In this textbook, we are using the term *noun phrase of possession* to designate any expression of the form

Noun #1 (in possessed form) + A + Noun #2

in which Noun #1 has a *third person* (singular or plural) *possessor suffix* (e.g., *subelel a ngalek*, *rengelikir a Droteo me a Toki*, etc.). By contrast, forms like *subelek*, *ngelekem*, etc. (with first and second person suffixes), and *sechelil*, *sechelir*, etc. (with a third person suffix but no **Noun #2** following), are usually referred to simply as the *possessed form* of a noun. Note, further, that to show possession with *unpossessible nouns* (see 3.7), we have a second type of *noun phrase of possession* that contains the *relational word* *er* introducing a *possessor phrase* (*sidusia er a Toki*, *rrat er ngak*, and all the examples of 41 in 3.7.1).

[3.4.2]

1. Make sure students go back to 2.3 and 2.3.5 of the previous lesson and make a note that Palauan nouns can occur in yet another position—namely, as Noun #2 (indicating the “possessor”) in a *noun phrase of possession*.

[3.5]

1. Understanding the difference between *obligatorily possessed nouns* and *optionally possessed nouns* may be enhanced if you tell students that the term *obligatorily* is related to the idea of *obligation* (“must”), while the term *optionally* is related to the idea of having an *option* (choice).

[3.5.3]

1. The different kinds of *meanings* that can be represented by Palauan *noun phrases of possession* offer a lot of material for interesting classroom discussion. You may wish to ask students to add to the list in (36) and to supply additional examples for the various types given in (37a–g). In explaining the meaning of certain expressions of this type, students should be able to make statements like “Noun #2 describes/characterizes Noun #1 by providing information about its [function/purpose/content], etc.”

[3.6]

1. In this section we are emphasizing that it is really *groups of words (noun phrases)* rather than *single words (nouns)* that function as major sentence units (*sentence subjects, sentence objects, etc.*). You may wish to ask students for an up-to-date summary of all of the positions in which Palauan *noun phrases* can occur—i.e., a summary of the *distribution* of Palauan noun phrases:
 1. Sentence subject
 2. Sentence object (including after the specifying word *er* when the object is specific and the verb imperfective—see 2.7.2)
 3. “Object” after the relational word *er* (to form relational phrases of all subtypes)
 4. Noun #2 in an equational sentence (see 2.3.3.b)
 5. Noun #2 in a noun phrase of possession (introduced in this lesson in 3.4.2)
 6. Noun #2 in an appositional phrase (introduced in this lesson in 3.9)

[3.7–3.8]

1. A new type of *relational phrase* is introduced in this section. It occurs in expressions of the form *sidosa er a Toki*, where the noun to be possessed (Noun #1) is of the *unpossessible* variety. In this example, *er a Toki* (relational word *er* + Noun #2) is a subtype of relational

phrase called *possessor phrase*. As the examples of (44) in 3.8 show, it is possible to have possessor phrases even when Noun #1 is in fact a possessible noun. Examples of this kind—e.g., *kall er a Sina* ‘Chinese food’—always involve description or characterization rather than true possession. In addition to the *possessor phrase* introduced here, we have already seen examples of the following types of relational phrases: *locational*, *directional*, *temporal*, *cause*, and *source*.

2. As noted in (d) following (44), quite a few of the *noun phrases of possession* in (44) have rather special *idiomatic* meanings. By “idiomatic”, we mean that the entire expression has a unitary meaning that is not just derivable by putting together the meanings of its individual parts. Thus, *tekoi er a rael*—literally, “matters of the road”—takes on the special sense of “public knowledge or information” even though separately Noun #1 means “matter” and Noun #2 means “road”. Palauan has many classes of *idiomatic expressions*, the richest group involving the abstract noun *reng* ‘heart, spirit’ (e.g., *diak a rengul* ‘inconsiderate, careless’, *meched a rengul* ‘thirsty, impatient’, *milkol k a rengul* ‘stupid’, etc.).

[3.8.1–3.8.2]

1. The *complex noun phrases of possession* given here come close to being the most complicated kind of noun phrase that students will encounter. They are presented here to give students a feeling for the richness and flexibility of Palauan in this area of grammar. If students get discouraged by the apparent complexity, you should be able to make them understand the structure involved through examples such as (47) and (48). As an in-class exercise, you may ask each student to invent two more examples similar to (47a–c).
2. If you choose to bring up the examples of (50) for in-class discussion, they should be analyzed as follows:

a. *hong er a ngelekek er a ochur*:

Because Noun #1 (*hong*, of Japanese origin) is *unpossessible*, it must be followed by a *possessor phrase* (*er a ngelekek*), which in this case indicates the true possessor or owner. This is in turn followed by another *possessor phrase* (*er a ochur*), which in fact characterizes Noun #1 (*hong*) by describing its *content*. Note further that the true possessor (*ngelekek* ‘my child’) is itself the *possessed form* of a noun (*ngalek*).

b. *sensei er kid er a tekoi er a Merikel*

Because Noun #1 (*sensei*, from Japanese) is *unpossessible*, it must be followed by a *possessor phrase* (*er kid*), which contains the *emphatic pronoun* *kid* (first person plural inclusive) and describes a kind of social relationship (teacher—student). Following this, we have a complex *possessor phrase* (*er a tekoi er a Merikel*), which as a whole characterizes Noun #1 (*sensei*) by telling what *subject* he or she teaches (i.e., the

English language). It so happens that *tekoi er a Merikel* is itself a noun phrase of possession in which the first noun (*tekoi*) is characterized or given identity by the second (*Merikel*).

[3.9]

1. The conjunction *el* has many functions beyond the one discussed here—namely, to link two nouns in a kind of *appositional* relationship. The conjunction *el* also introduces Palauan *relative clauses* as well as many types of *complement structures* and will be covered later in various lessons.

[3.10]

1. The data given here allow you to make a very interesting point that some more perceptive students will appreciate. The point is that while all human beings can have the same concepts and ideas, these are often expressed quite differently depending on what language they are “coded” into. The concepts of [**like**], [**dislike**], [**able**], and [**must**] illustrate this point very strikingly. English speakers express all of these as *verbs* (e.g., *I like*, *I dislike*, *I can*, *I must*), while in Palauan they are always expressed by using *abstract* (obligatorily possessed) *nouns* (*soak*, *chetik*, *sebechek*, and *kirek*).

[3.11]

1. The list here is a useful review and should be written on the blackboard for observation and discussion.

[3.12]

1. The most important thing to emphasize about these two lists of items is that many concepts and terms introduced earlier (and highlighted in these lists with an asterisk *) are now being applied to a new topic—*noun possession*. Study Question 1 (see below) reminds students to write definitions of the asterisked terms that are *relevant* to (i.e., apply specifically to) noun possession.

KEY TO STUDY QUESTIONS

[3.13. Noun Possession in Palauan: Study Questions]

[Question 1: Group 1: Pairs or Groups of Terms]

a. **Suffix vs. Prefix**

See model answer.

b. **Possessor vs. Thing Possessed**

Definition: The *possessor* is the person who owns or possesses something, while the *thing possessed* is what he/she owns. The possessor is indicated in Palauan by a *possessor suffix* (-ek, -uk, -ik, -ak, etc.) attached to a *noun stem*. With *third person* possessors, sometimes a specific noun is added (e.g., *Droteo* in *blil a Droteo*.) *Note:* A “possessor” may actually *describe* or *characterize* the “thing possessed” rather than represent the actual owner (e.g., *chisel a Toki* ‘news about Toki’).

Example: *chimak* ‘my hand’—the possessor is the *speaker* (represented by the first person singular possessor suffix -ak ‘my’), and the thing possessed is indicated by the noun stem *chim* ‘hand’.

c. **First vs. Second vs. Third Person**

Definition: See Key to Study Questions 2.7.7, 1–i, Group 1. The distinction between first vs. second vs. third person applies to Palauan *possessor suffixes* as well as to all classes of Palauan *pronouns*.

d. **Singular vs. Plural**

Definition: See Key to Study Questions 2.7.7, 1–h, Group 1. Palauan has three possessor suffixes in the singular and four in the plural. This parallels the system of Palauan pronouns exactly.

e. **E-Set vs. U-Set vs. I-Set vs. A-Set**

Definition: These are four different groups of *possessor suffixes* that are identified by the characteristic vowel which occurs in all three singular possessed forms (e.g., -ek, -em, -el) and in the first person plural *inclusive* possessed form (-ed). We cannot predict from a given noun stem which of these sets will occur in its possessed forms.

Examples: *charm* takes the E-Set (*chermek*, *chermem*, *chermel*, *chermed*); *chim* takes the A-Set (*chimak*, *chimam*, *chimal*, *chimid*).

f. **Inclusive vs. Exclusive**

Definition: Relevant only to *first person plural* possessor suffixes (and pronouns), *inclusive* forms are used when the speaker intends to include the person addressed

within his group (i.e., we = 'you and I' or 'we including you'), while *exclusive* forms are used when the speaker does not wish to include the person addressed (i.e., we = 'we excluding you').

Example: Possessor suffixes *-ed* 'our—**inclusive**' vs. *-am* 'our—**exclusive**', corresponding to non-emphatic pronouns *kede* 'we—**inclusive**' vs. *aki* 'we—**exclusive**'.

g. **Human vs. Nonhuman**

Definition: See 2.7.7, Study Question 1, where these terms are given in a sample definition. The distinction *human* vs. *nonhuman* is relevant to Palauan possessor suffixes as well as *pronouns*. Thus, the third person plural possessor suffix *-ir* (*-rir*, etc.) refers to human beings only. See 3.2.1.d.

Example: *rengrir* 'their (human) spirit(s)' vs. *rengul* 'his, her, its spirit; their (nonhuman) spirit(s)'.

h. **Stressed vs. Unstressed Syllable**

Definition: See Key to Study Questions 1.3.11, 1a–b. As noted in this lesson in 3.3.1, the distinction between *stressed* vs. *unstressed syllable* is essential to the *principles of vowel weakening*. Palauan possessor suffixes are always *stressed*, so that when they are attached to a *noun stem*, any originally stressed syllable of that noun stem loses its stress (becomes unstressed). The loss of stress is associated with various vowel weakening effects (reduction of full vowel to weak E, deletion, etc.).

Example: *Noun stem* *NGA-lek* (first syllable stressed) vs. *possessed form* *nge-le-KEK* (possessor suffix stressed). Due to the loss of stress, the original *full A* of *ngalek* is weakened to *weak E* in the possessed form.

i. **Full E vs. Weak E**

Definition: See Key to Study Questions 1.3.11, 1e–f. When a (stressed) possessor suffix is attached to a *noun stem* to derive a possessed form, an original full vowel of the noun stem can lose its stress and become weak E. All five full vowels (A, full E, I, O, U) can reduce to weak E. Occasionally, even a double vowel or a vowel cluster can reduce to weak E.

Examples: *kar*—*keruk*, *diil*—*delek*, *laok*—*lekek*

j. **Obligatorily Possessed Nouns vs. Optionally Possessed Nouns vs. Unpossessible Nouns**

Definition: *Unpossessible nouns* (3.7) cannot take possessor suffixes. *Obligatorily possessed nouns* **must** take possessor suffixes (i.e., they only have possessed forms but do not have independently occurring noun stems), while *optionally possessed nouns* **may** take possessor suffixes (i.e., they have both possessed forms and independent forms).

Noun phrases of possession differ in form depending on whether **Noun #1** is possessible (whether obligatorily or optionally) or unpossessible—e.g., *blil a Toki* vs. *hong ER a Toki*.

Examples: Unpossessible nouns—see (40); optionally possessed nouns—see 3.3.3, etc.; obligatorily possessed nouns—see (34).

k. **Subject Noun Phrase vs. Object Noun Phrase**

Definition: A *subject noun phrase* is any group of related words occurring as *subject* of the sentence, while an *object noun phrase* is such a group occurring as *object* of the sentence. For a definition of *sentence subject* vs. *sentence object*, see Key to Study Questions 2.7.7, 1–d (Group 1). In this lesson, we are expanding from the concept of *subject noun*, *object noun*, etc., to *subject noun phrase*, *object noun phrase*, etc. (see 3.6).

Example: The noun phrase of possession *blil a Droteo* ‘Droteo’s house’ can occur as either a subject noun phrase or object noun phrase:

Subject: A *blil a Droteo* a klou. ‘Droteo’s house is big.’

Object: Ak milsa a *blil a Droteo*. ‘I saw Droteo’s house.’

l. **“True” Possession vs. Characterization (or Description)**

Definition: In a Palauan *noun phrase of possession* of the form **Noun #1** (in third person singular possessed form) + **A** + **Noun #2**, the so-called “possessor” (Noun #2) can be interpreted in several ways. We have a “true” possessor if Noun #2 designates the real owner or possessor of something (e.g., *mlil a Satsko* ‘Satsko’s car’). We have *characterization* or *description*, however, if Noun #2 describes the *function*, *content*, etc., of Noun #1 (e.g., *chisel a Satsko* ‘news about Satsko’). This difference is also found in noun phrases of possession of the form Noun #1 + ER + A + Noun #2—e.g., *hong er a Satsko* ‘Satsko’s book’ (“true” possession) vs. *hong er a iakiu* ‘book about baseball’ (characterization by indicating content).

Examples: Given within definition above.

[Question 2: Group 2: Single Terms]

a. **Internal Structure**

Definition: See Key to Study Questions 2.7.7, 2-d, Group 2.

Example: Since we are concerned in this lesson with the internal structure of Palauan nouns, any *possessed form* could be used to illustrate the pattern *noun stem* + *possessor suffix* (e.g., *chim* + *ak*).

b. Possession

Definition: In general, *possession* is the idea that someone (the “possessor”) owns or possesses something (the “thing possessed”). In Palauan, possession is indicated structurally by attaching *possessor suffixes* to a (possessible) noun stem, or by using a *possessor phrase* (a type of relational phrase) with an unpossessible noun (e.g., *hong er a Satsko*). See (1) above for the distinction between “true” possession and characterization.

Examples: Possession in Palauan is shown by (1) possessed forms of nouns (e.g., *blik* ‘my house’), (2) noun phrases of possession (e.g., *blil a Satsko* ‘Satsko’s house’), or (3) possessor phrases (e.g., *sidosia er a Satsko* ‘Satsko’s car’).

c. Noun Stem

Definition: Any noun in its basic independent form, without possessor suffixes (e.g., *ngakl*, *chim*, *Toki*, *Belau*, etc.), is considered a noun stem. In addition, some nouns do not have independent forms but must always occur with a possessor suffix. Such *obligatorily possessed nouns* have a noun stem in a somewhat more abstract sense—e.g., the noun stem of *budek*, *budem*, *budel*, etc., is *bud-*, even though this form is never used as a separate word. **Note:** A noun stem like *bud-* is called *bound* because it must always be attached to something else—in this case, to a possessor suffix. By definition, *prefixes* (e.g., *re-*, *kle-*, etc.) and *suffixes* (e.g., *-ek*, *-em*, *-el*, etc.) are always bound.

d. Possessor Suffix

Definition: A possessor suffix is any suffix attached to a *noun stem* to indicate possession. Palauan has four sets of possessor suffixes, and the suffixes themselves distinguish between seven possible pronoun referents. Examples are obvious.

e. Meaning-Bearing Unit (Morpheme)

Definition: A morpheme is any part of a word that has meaning associated with it. Many words have an internal structure consisting of two or more morphemes.

Examples: Pal. *re-ngalek* (2 morphemes: plural + ‘child’),
 re-ngelek-ek (3 morphemes: plural + ‘child’ + 1st pers. sg. possessor)

Eng. weak-ness-es (3 morphemes: adjective ‘weak’ + suffix ‘ness’ to form abstract noun + plural)

f. Possessed Forms of a Noun

Definition: The possessed forms of a noun are those forms derived by attaching a *possessor suffix* to a *noun stem*—e.g., *olechesek*, *olechesem*, *olechesel*, etc., are the possessed forms of *oluches* ‘pencil’. Some Palauan nouns have no possessed forms (*unpossessible*), while others have *only* possessed forms (*obligatorily possessed*).

g. **Gender**

Definition: Gender involves a distinction between *masculine* vs. *feminine* (vs. *neuter*). This distinction is relevant to the pronouns of some languages—e.g., English *he* vs. *she* (vs. *it*). Palauan pronouns (and possessor suffixes) make no gender distinctions.

h. **Homonyms**

Definition: See Key to Study Questions, 2.7.7, 2-p, Group 2.

Examples: Some Palauan noun stems are homonyms in their independent forms but are distinguished by their possessor suffixes—e.g., *chur*—*cherIL* ‘laughter’, *chur*—*churAL* ‘tongue’, *chur*—*churUL* ‘coconut frond rib’; *dui*—*diAL* ‘title (of village chief)’, *dui*—*diUL* ‘coconut frond (for making fire)’.

i. **Vowel and Vowel Cluster Weakening**

Definition: Vowel and vowel cluster weakening processes are a group of phonetic changes affecting vowels and vowel clusters in noun stems when the possessed forms are derived. In the possessed forms, many original full vowels or vowel clusters are reduced to weak E, deleted entirely, or otherwise affected. All the processes, with examples, are summarized in 3.3.8.

j. **Vowel Deletion**

Definition: Vowel deletion is a form of *vowel weakening* in which an original vowel of a noun stem is deleted (omitted, lost) entirely in the possessed forms. Vowel deletion affects single full vowels or one of the vowels of a vowel cluster (diphthong). See 3.3.8 again.

k. **Syllabic Consonants**

Definition: See 1.2.15, Study Question 1, where this term is defined in a sample answer. When vowel deletion occurs in Palauan (see 3.3.5), many cases involve noun stems in which the consonant *preceding* the lost vowel is NG, L, or R—exactly those consonants which can become syllabic. Thus, we have syllabic consonants in the following possessed forms: *ngakl* ‘name’—*ng-klek*, *lusech* ‘luck’—*l-se-chek*, and *rasech* ‘blood’—*r-se-chek*.

l. **Consonant Clusters**

Definition: Consonant clusters, which are sequences of any two consonants occurring *within the same syllable*, often result from *vowel deletion* in Palauan possessed forms (see 23 in 3.3.5). Thus, we have word-initial consonant clusters in *kdul* (from *kud* ‘louse’), *bngal* (from *bung* ‘flower’), and *dbak* (from *dub* ‘dynamite’).

m. **Noun Phrase**

Definition: A *noun phrase* is any single word or any group of words that can substitute for each other in the positions of *sentence subject*, *sentence object*, after the relational word *er*, and so on.

Example: Noun phrases in sentence object position:

Ak milsa a *sechelim/sechelim el John/* 'I saw your friend/your friend John/
sechelil a Toki. Toki's friend.'

Because of substitutability as sentence object, all of the following are therefore noun phrases: *sechelim* (single noun in possessed form), *sechelim el John* (appositional phrase), *sechelil a Toki* (noun phrase of possession).

n. **Noun Phrase of Possession**

Definition: A noun phrase of possession is any noun phrase with the structure **Noun #1** (in possessed form) + **A** + **Noun #2** in which **Noun #1** has a third person (singular or plural) possessor suffix. In a noun phrase of possession, **Noun #2** specifically identifies who (or what) possesses (or characterizes or describes) **Noun #1**. If **Noun #1** is an *unpossessible noun*, then the noun phrase of possession will have the structure **Noun #1** (unpossessible) + **ER** + **A** + **Noun #2**. In this type of noun phrase of possession, **ER** + **A** + **Noun #2** constitutes a type of relational phrase called *possessor phrase*.

Examples: First type: *blil a Droteo, sechelir a rengalek*

Second type: *hong er a Droteo, hong er a reksi*

o. **Complex Noun Phrase of Possession**

Definition: A noun phrase of possession is *complex* if it has the following structure:

Noun #1 (in possessed form) + **A** + **Noun #2** + **Er** + **A** + **Noun #3**

As noted in (46) of 3.8.1, **Noun #1** is simultaneously possessed (or owned) by **Noun #2** and characterized (or described) by **Noun #3**.

Example: *bilel a Maria er a skuul* 'Maria's school clothes'. Conceptually and structurally, this complex noun phrase of possession is a combination of *bilel a Maria* 'Maria's clothes' (true possession) and *bail er a skuul* 'school clothes' (characterization).

p. **Relational Phrase**

Definition: See Key to Study Questions, 2.7.7, 1–i, Group 2. A special type of relational phrase called *possessor phrase* is used to indicate possession when **Noun #1** is unpossessible (see 3.7.1). Thus, *possessor phrase* is added to the list of other relational phrases, which also include *directional*, *locational*, *temporal*, *reason*, and *source phrases*.

q. **Possessor Phrase**

Definition: This is a subtype of *relational phrase* in which the *relational word* *er* connects the possessor (**Noun #2**) with the thing possessed (**Noun #1**). Possessor phrases represent the only grammatical means in Palauan of indicating possession when **Noun #1** is of the unpossessible type—e.g., *sidosia er a Toki* ‘Toki’s car’. The closest English equivalent to *er* in this case is “of” or ‘s suffixed to the possessor.

r. **Conjunction *el***

Definition: The conjunction *el* is a word used to link (or “conjoin”) noun phrases or other kinds of complex structures (see 1.3.9.c). The conjunction *el* is relevant to Palauan noun possession because it occurs in the following common structure:

Noun #1 (in possessed form) + **Conjunction *el*** + **Noun #2**

In this structure, called an *appositional phrase*, *el* joins a general category word (**Noun #1**) with a specific member of that category (**Noun #2**)—e.g., *imelek el biang* ‘my (drink of) beer’.

s. **Category Noun**

Definition: A category noun names a general class or group of items. Category nouns represent **Noun #1** in *appositional phrases* (see below) and usually refer to categories of food, drink, and other everyday items (money, animals kept as pets, etc.).

t. **Appositional Phrase**

Definition: An appositional phrase has the structure

Noun #1 (in possessed form) + **Conjunction *el*** + **Noun #2**

and expresses the idea that **Noun #2** is functioning as a member of the category represented by **Noun #1**. Thus, in *imelek el biang* ‘my (drink of) beer’, we are saying that *biang* (**Noun #2**) is serving the function of being *imelek* ‘my drink’ on a particular occasion. Since in a certain sense, *biang* is being “equated” with *imelek*, the term *appositional* is appropriate. This term is also used for phrases such as *sechelim el sensei* ‘your friend the teacher’, where **Noun #1** and **Noun #2** are clearly being equated.

[Question 3]

The internal structure is *Noun Stem* + *Possessor Suffix*. A possessed noun will always contain a minimum of two morphemes, at least one for the stem and the other for the suffix. If the original noun stem itself contains two morphemes, then its possessed form will contain three: *klebui* ‘boyhood’ (two morphemes: *kle-*, *bui*) vs. *klebikel* (three morphemes: *kle-*, *bik* from *bui*, *-el*).

[Question 4]

The many variations of the “possessor-possessed” relationship are described in 3.1.1, 3.5.1, 3.5.2, and 3.5.3. The examples given can be analyzed as follows:

- a. *ochik*: the possessor is a person; the possessed is a part of his or her body (*oach* ‘foot’)
- b. *chisek*: the possessor *characterizes* the possessed (*chais* ‘news’) by identifying the *content* of the news
- c. *soak*: the possessor is associated with his or her own *feeling* or *judgment*
- d. *kirek*: the possessor is associated with his or her own *obligation*
- e. *tekingek*: the possessor is a person; the possessed is one of his or her body’s *functions* (the ability to speak)
- f. *mlik*: the possessor actually owns the possessed item (*mlai* ‘car, canoe’)
- g. *demak*: the relationship between possessor and possessed is one of *kinship*
- h. *belkuk*: the relationship between possessor and possessed is *abstract* (and dependent on the given situation—i.e., “my function [at this time, in that situation, etc.]”)
- i. *ullek*: the relationship between possessor and possessed involves *physical space*—i.e., *ullek* refers to the area behind the speaker
- j. *sechelik*: the possessor is related to the possessed (*sechelei* ‘friend’) by a *social bond*

[Question 5]

These distinctions are illustrated in Charts 1–3 of 3.2.1. Students should already be totally clear about *first* vs. *second* vs. *third* person, *singular* vs. *plural*, *human* vs. *nonhuman*, and *inclusive* vs. *exclusive*. See also 2.4.1 and 2.4.2 in Lesson 2.

- a. *Similarities* between the Palauan and English pronoun systems: Both have first, second, third person; both have singular vs. plural (though English does not make the distinction in the second person and Palauan third person plural *te* is *human* only).
- b. *Differences* between the Palauan and English pronoun systems: Palauan first person plural has *inclusive* vs. *exclusive* distinction; Palauan third person plural *te* is *human* only, while English *they* is more general; English makes gender distinction in third person singular (*he* vs. *she* vs. *it*), while Palauan does not.

[Question 6]

This distinction is necessary to explain the uniqueness of Palauan third person plural possessor suffixes (*-ir*, *-rir*) or Palauan third person plural pronouns (*te*, *tir*, etc.) in referring to human beings only. See 3.2.1.d for one more statement of this much-repeated point.

[Question 7]

No. It appears to be unpredictable. See 3.2.2.a. Explanation can include reference to *homonyms*.

[Question 8]

In both of these examples, a full vowel (O or A) is stressed in the original (one-syllable) noun stem. This vowel loses its stress, however, when an automatically-stressed possessor suffix is added. When a full vowel becomes unstressed, it weakens in one way or another—in these cases, by reduction to weak E. See the Principles of Vowel Weakening (11–13) and the subsequent discussion in 3.3.1.

[Question 9]

The circumstances that seem to favor vowel deletion are described in 3.3.5, with examples in (22). Deletion can be considered an *extreme* form of weakening—i.e., weakening to “zero”.

[Question 10]

The weakening processes affecting double vowels are described in 3.3.6, while those applying to vowel clusters are analyzed in 3.3.7. Ample examples are presented in each of these discussions.

[Question 11]

An “irregular” form or item is one that does not follow the most general patterns or rules of the language. For further discussion of the concepts of “irregular” or “exceptional”, see above, Point 5 of the Specific Comments on Sections 3.3–3.3.8. Quite a few “irregularities” are pointed out in *Notes 4–9* of this lesson. See also Exercise 5 in this lesson.

[Question 12]

Possible answers may be formulated from the predictability “rules” presented in (31) of 3.3.8. One might proceed as follows: (1) there are some noun stems whose vowels do not change at all (e.g., *chim*, *chikl*, etc.), and this fact is unpredictable (although the vowel I seems most resistant); (2) however, among the remaining noun stems, some kind of weakening will affect the original vowels or vowel clusters of the stem; (3) single vowels will usually reduce to weak E or delete entirely (31a); (4) [Now proceed by describing the rules of (31b–c), etc.].

[Question 13]

See (2-n) above, where the two possible structures are given as part of the definition of *noun phrase of possession*.

[Question 14]

The answer to this question is provided above in the Specific Comments on Section 3.6. For each of the positions described there, here is an example (using the same noun phrase *buik*):

a. *Sentence subject:*

A *buik* a mililil. 'The boy was playing.'

b. *Sentence object:*

Ak milsa a *buik*. 'I saw the boy.'

Ak ulemes er a *buik*. 'I was watching the boy.'

c. *After relational word ER:*

Te merur er a *buik*. 'They are ashamed of the boy.'

d. *Noun #2 in an equational sentence:*

A Tony a *buik*. 'Tony is a boy.'

e. *Noun #2 in a noun phrase of possession:*

Ke sechelil a *buik*? 'Are you the boy's friend?'

Tia a hong er a *buik*. 'This is the boy's book.'

f. *Noun #2 in an appositional phrase:*

Te milsa a John el *buik*. 'They saw the boy John.'

[Question 15]

There are many reasons why this is useful. First of all, these three categories (see 1-j above for contrasting definitions) will exhaustively cover all of the noun stems in Palauan. Second, there are obvious grammatical distinctions that can only be made in terms of these three types:

- a. If Noun #1 in a noun phrase of possession is *possessible* (optionally or obligatorily), then the phrase will have the structure *Noun #1 (in possessed form) + A + Noun #2*. If, however, Noun #1 is *unpossessible*, the structure of the phrase must be *Noun #1 + ER + A + Noun #2* (i.e., with a *possessor phrase*).
- b. If a noun is *optionally* possessed, then it has an independently occurring noun stem as well as possessed forms—e.g., *chim*: *chimak*, *chimam*, etc.). However, if a noun is *obligatorily* possessed, it only has possessed forms, and there is no independently occurring noun stem—i.e., we have *budek*, *budem*, etc., but “*bud*” is not a separate word meaning “skin”.

[Question 16]

The answer to this question has already been covered several times elsewhere. See, for example, the relevant definitions in (1-l) above or the answer to Study Question 4 above.

[Question 17]

An adequate answer to this question should include ideas from 3.6 in the lesson. Also see above, General Comment 4 (discussion of 3.6).

[Question 18]

All the necessary information is found in 3.7 of the lesson.

[Question 19]

We must use the pattern *Noun #1 + ER + A + Noun #2*, where the sequence *ER + A + Noun #2* is a subtype of relational phrase called *possessor phrase*. See (15a) above and 3.7.1 of the lesson.

[Question 20]

The following major difference can be mentioned:

With a possessor phrase, the noun following *er* (Noun #2) is related to another (directly preceding) noun (Noun #1)—e.g., *hong er a Droteo*, *techall er a ureor*. With other types of relational phrases, however, the noun following *er* is normally related most closely to the *verb* of the sentence, by indicating the direction of movement, time of action, etc. Note the following examples:

- a. *Ak mlo er a stoang*. 'I went to the store.'

In the *directional phrase er a stoang*, *stoang* relates to the motion verb *mlo* by indicating the direction or goal of movement.

- b. *Ng mlad er a elii*. 'He died yesterday.'

In the *temporal phrase er a elii*, *elii* relates to the action verb *mlad* by indicating the time of the event.

[Question 21]

As suggested, see 3.8.1 for the answer. The term **complex noun phrase of possession** is introduced to cover noun phrases that combine the ideas of "true" possession and characterization into one structure. See (2-o) above for a good example.

[Question 22]

All the necessary information is found in 3.9 of the lesson. See also the definitions in (2r-t) above.

KEY TO EXERCISES

[3.14: Noun Possession in Palauan: Exercises]

[Exercise 1]

bung-bngal: A-Set	Beliliou: unpossessible
dolech-delechel: E-Set	stoang: unpossessible
mubi: unpossessible	bad-bedul: U-Set
Babeldaob: unpossessible	deroech: unpossessible
katur-katrul: U-Set	chut-chetul: U-Set
dongu: unpossessible	chedil-delal: A-Set
ngul-nglil: I-Set	ngimes: unpossessible
ched-chedil: I-Set	chedeng: unpossessible
bosech: unpossessible	iis-isngel: E-Set
chusem-chesemel: E-Set	kangkodang: unpossessible
benzio: unpossessible	ker-keril: I-Set
bukitang: unpossessible	deromukang: unpossessible
ding-dingal: A-Set	kuoku-kuekuel: E-Set
malk-melkel: E-Set	rechorech-recherechel: E-Set

[Exercise 2]

- | | |
|---------------------------------|------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| a. klechelid → kle-chelid | <i>kle-</i> : abstract prefix to form nouns
<i>chelid</i> : noun stem ('god') |
| b. resechelim → re-secheli-m | <i>re-</i> : plural prefix
<i>-secheli-</i> : noun stem ('friend')
<i>-m</i> : possessor suffix (2nd pers. sg.).
See 27 in 3.3.7 |
| c. remeteet → re-me-teet | <i>re-</i> : plural prefix
<i>me-</i> : probably verb marker
<i>-teet</i> : probably (bound) stem of state verb |
| d. chillebedak → ch-il-lebed-ak | <i>Note</i> : Only 3 morphemes because verb stem is broken up by past tense <i>-il-</i> (infix):
<i>ch-lebed</i> : verb stem
<i>-il-</i> : past tense marker (infix)
<i>-ak</i> : object pronoun (1st pers. sg.) (suffix) |
| e. rengud → reng-ud | <i>reng</i> : noun stem ('spirit')
<i>-ud</i> : possessor suffix (1st pers. pl. incl.) |

f. kausechelei → kau-sechelei

kau-: reciprocal prefix to form verbs
sechelei: noun stem ('friend')

g. oudengua → ou-dengua

ou-: prefix to form verbs from nouns
dengua: noun stem ('telephone')

h. klemengetel → k-l-emenget-el

Note: Only 3 morphemes because verb stem is broken up by morpheme *-l-* to form nouns (infix):

k—emenget: verb stem (from *kemanget*)
-l-: infix to form abstract nouns from state verbs
-el: possessor suffix (3rd pers. sg.)

i. klaumekemad → k-l-au-meke-mad

Note: Only 4 morphemes because reciprocal prefix *kau-* is broken up by morpheme *-l-* to form nouns—cf. (h)

k—au-: reciprocal prefix
-l-: infix to form abstract nouns from state verbs
-meke-: possibly a separate morpheme added to *-mad* 'die' to create *mekemad* 'war'
-mad: probably the intransitive verb stem meaning 'die'

Note: It is also possible that *mekemad* is a single morpheme (unrelated to *mad* 'die')

j. omerael → o-me-rael

o-: prefix to derive action nouns from action verbs
me-: verb marker
rael: noun stem ('road, way')

[Exercise 3]

chelechedal: oblig. poss.
 berdel: oblig. poss.
 belechel: opt. poss. (*balech*)
 chelmengel: oblig. poss.
 bedengel: oblig. poss.
 duchel: opt. poss. (*dauch*)
 rongel: oblig. poss.
 berngel: oblig. poss.
 bdelul: opt. poss. (*bedul*)
 kekul: oblig. poss.
 klokkel: opt. poss. (*klalo*)

belengel: oblig. poss.
 desechel: oblig. poss.
 sesengel: opt. poss. (*ses*)
 kedngel: oblig. poss.
 bekellel: opt. poss. (*bekall*)
 bekesel: opt. poss. (*bakes*)
 kelebsengel: opt. poss. (*kelebus*)
 bul: opt. poss. (*bau*)
 dekedekel: opt. poss. (*dekedek*)
 rekel: oblig. poss.

[Exercise 4]

uulk-ulkel: 4	chubs-chebsel: 2
taut-tutel: 5	kadikm-kadekmel: 2
chur-chural: 1	kabs-kebsel: 2
tuich-tichel: 5	rasech-rsechel: 3
chades-chedesel: 2	kob-kebengel: 2
ngakl-ngklel: 3	tinget-tngétel: 3
chikl-chiklel: 1	llach-llechul: 2
llomes-llemesel: 2	iikr-ikrel: 4
miich-michel: 4	ieleb-elebel: 5
tech-techel: 2	reng-rengul: 2
kaeb-kebel: 5	sikt-sektel: 2
dui-diul: 5	dauch-duchel: 5

[Exercise 5]

klalo-klokkel:	A of stem changes to O; extra K in possessed form; final O of stem lost
chelid-chedul (with full E):	weak E of stem becomes full E in possessed form (very unusual!); LI entirely lost
iaes-esel (with full E):	vowel cluster IAE reduced to single full E
chedil-delal:	CHE entirely lost; I of stem weakens to weak E
bobai-bobongel:	AI changes to O
lild-lidel:	second L of stem lost
ilumel-imelel:	LU entirely lost
ongraol-ongulel:	R lost; AO changes to U
dereder-derdellel:	second E of stem (a stressed full E) deleted in possessed form; final R of stem becomes LL before possessor suffix
chemachel-chemelel:	ACH entirely lost
soaes-seoesel:	unusual change of OAE to EOE
siik-skel:	Double vowel II entirely lost

[Exercise 6]

- a. tet: tik, tim, til, tid, detmam, detmiu, deterir (irregular stem *det-* in three plural forms)
- b. oluches: olechesek, olechesem, olechesel, olechesed, olechesam, olechesiu, olechesir
- c. mad: medak, medam, medal, medad, medemam, medemiu, mederir
- d. char: cherak, cheram, cheral, cherad, cheremam, cheremiu, cherir
- e. ker: kerik, kerim, keril, kerid, keremam, keremiu, kerrir

[Exercise 7]

There are, of course, many possibilities for each possessed form. Make sure students' translations are accurate. Discuss any noun phrases of possession that have specialized or idiomatic meanings.

[Exercise 8]

- a. A sensei *er kid* a mlo *er a Guam*.
(6) (2)
- b. Ak milsa a hong *er a Siabal* *er a chelsel* a skidas.
(6) (1)
- c. A chad *er a Merikel* a mle merur *er a ngelekel*.
(6) (5)
- d. A resecholid el chad *er a Huiribing* a mo merael *er a klukuk*.
(6) (4)
- e. A ngelekel a tilobed *er a skuul* *er tia el mlo merek el rak*.
(3) (4)

[Exercise 9]

- a. techellel a sensei *er a ureor* 'the teacher's opportunity for work'
- b. mlil a Toki *er a omilil* 'Toki's car for leisure (driving)'
- c. bilel a daiksang *er a ureor* 'the carpenter's work clothes'
- d. hong *er a renglekir* *er a reksi* 'their children's history book(s)'
- e. dictionary *er a Droteo* *er a tekoi* 'Droteo's English dictionary'
er a Merikel

SUGGESTIONS FOR ADDITIONAL ACTIVITIES

1. Give students a chance to familiarize themselves with the *New Palauan-English Dictionary* by having them look up various noun stems and possessed forms that are introduced in this lesson. You can assign data from any of the lists in the lesson—(16–20), (22), (24), (26), (28), (32), (34), and (40) are especially useful—and ask students to verify the correctness of noun stems and possessed forms, determine whether an item is unpossessible vs. (optionally or obligatorily) possessed, and so on. Ask students to read each dictionary entry entirely so that they may begin to understand that many Palauan noun stems are part of a complex, interlocking network of related and derived forms. You might illustrate this point with such noun stems as *balech* ‘slingshot’, *boes* ‘gun’, *rael* ‘road, way’, or *chelim-/chelmengel* (obligatorily possessed) ‘companion’. Thus, when students look, for instance, at the *NPED* entry for *balech*, they will find a large array of related forms: *belechel* (the possessed form), *omalech* (an action verb meaning ‘to hit with a slingshot’), *blalech* (a “resulting” state verb meaning that someone or something has already been hit with a slingshot), *kebalech* (a reciprocal verb meaning ‘(people) hit each other with slingshots’), and so on. By doing this kind of dictionary work, students should begin to develop an awareness of the rich and complex derivational (word-formation) processes of their language.
2. As an in-class exercise or contest, students may want to quiz each other on the correct possessed forms of nouns by making up questions similar to Exercise 1 or 4. They may also wish to quiz each other along the lines of Exercise 3—i.e., presenting possessed forms and then asking whether they are obligatorily or optionally possessed (and if the latter, what the basic noun stem is). Students should be challenged to find unusual or exceptional examples.
3. Choose an appropriate text of naturally written Palauan (from a written legend, story, letter, etc.). Ask students to show their knowledge of Lesson 3 by identifying and/or analyzing noun stems, possessed forms, noun phrases of possession, possessor phrases, other kinds of relational phrases, and so on. In such an exercise, you could go to any level of detail you wish—e.g., once a possessor suffix is found, which of the seven possible combinations of person and number is it? Or once a noun phrase of possession is isolated, does it involve “true” possession or some kind of description or characterization? There are many possibilities for expanding this exercise, depending on the time you have and what you feel the students need to practice.

4

Teacher's Manual PALAUAN PRONOUNS

GENERAL COMMENTS

1. The material in this lesson comes from Chapter 4 (“Palauan Pronouns”) of the PRG. The general organization is the same: a distinction is first made between *independent pronouns* and *bound pronouns* (called *affix pronouns* in the PRG), and then the various types of independent and bound pronouns are discussed separately. In discussing the *independent pronouns*, quite a lot of time is spent explaining the different functions of the *emphatic* vs. *non-emphatic pronouns*. To make the difference between these two types of independent pronouns clear, extensive use is made of the concepts of *new* vs. *old information* and *contrastive emphasis*, both of which were covered in the PRG. The contrasting functions of emphatic vs. non-emphatic pronouns are made explicit for students by stating two *principles*—one for using emphatic pronouns, and the other for using non-emphatic pronouns (see 20-21 in 4.4.3).
2. In discussing the distribution of the *non-emphatic pronouns*, we cannot avoid mentioning certain kinds of sentences with *post-verbal subjects* and matching sentence-initial pre-verbal *non-emphatic pronouns* (see 4.6 through 4.6.2), which also include *yes-no questions* (see 4.6.3). Related to these are sentences involving *noun phrases of possession* in which the possessor is moved (“preposed”) to sentence-initial (pre-verbal) position (where it replaces the pronoun)—i.e., sentences like

A ngelekek a meringel a chimal. ‘My child’s hand hurts.’

Although such sentences are quite common in Palauan, their derivation is rather complex. Therefore, discussion of them has been separated from the main text and put into *Note 13* after 4.6.3.

3. Treatment of the *bound pronouns* in Lesson 4 is restricted to the *object pronouns* and the *prefix pronouns*, since the *possessor pronouns* (= *possessor suffixes*) were covered completely in Lesson 3 as part of “Noun Possession”. Because the bound pronouns must be attached to verb stems, it is impossible to discuss them without showing the verb forms

of which they are a part. In other words, when an *object pronoun* like *-ak*, *-au*, *-ii*, etc., is suffixed to a verb stem, we get an entire *perfective* verb form such as *cholebedak*, *cholebedau*, *cholebedii*, etc. In the same way, when a *prefix pronoun* like *ku-*, *chomo-*, *lo-*, etc., is attached to a verb stem, we derive an entire “prefix pronoun” verb form (called a *hypothetical* verb form in the PRG) such as *kurael*, *chomorael*, *lorael*, etc.

Because object pronouns and prefix pronouns are integral parts of perfective verb forms and hypothetical verb forms, respectively, studying them will necessarily entail studying the verb forms themselves. Thus, in discussing the *object pronouns*, it will be necessary to introduce students to such topics as the internal structure of perfective verb forms and how they differ phonetically from imperfective verb forms (4.9.2), the application of vowel weakening principles to perfective verb forms (4.9.3), and so on. In discussing the *prefix pronouns*, it also becomes necessary to introduce a few of the structures in which hypothetical verb forms actually occur. Deciding how far to go in this area was very difficult indeed, because the grammatical constructions in which hypothetical verb forms occur are very wide-ranging and involve some advanced semantic concepts. An attempt was made to limit examples of hypothetical verb forms to cases that are fairly easy to grasp—e.g., after *negative expressions* such as *ng diak* or *ng dimlak* (4.10), in *imperative* sentences (4.10.6), and in sentences making *proposals* (4.10.7). Later in this textbook an entire lesson will be devoted to the uses of the so-called hypothetical verb forms, which in the current lesson are referred to as “prefix pronoun” verbs.

4. Both the object pronouns and the prefix pronouns have a large number of phonetic variants for any given person-number category. Most of these are introduced through examples within the text, and a summary chart is presented in 4.11. Students may get discouraged or confused by the large number of forms, but we unfortunately cannot avoid mentioning them. They will all turn up at one point or another in everyday speech and therefore must be considered when giving as complete a picture as possible of the Palauan pronoun system.
5. The most important points, both general and specific, that students should learn in Lesson 4 are listed below.

[4.1]

- a. The *possessor suffixes* studied in Lesson 3 can be considered a kind of *pronoun* because of the similarity of distinctions made (first vs. second vs. third person, singular vs. plural, etc.).

[4.2]

- b. There are two types of pronouns—*independent* vs. *bound*.

[4.3]

- c. The two types of independent pronouns, *emphatic* vs. *non-emphatic*, share the seven basic pronoun distinctions. Each type has some unique phonetic characteristics (see *Note 1*).

[4.4-4.4.2]

- d. The distribution of emphatic pronouns is fairly wide: they occur after the relational word *er* or the specifying word *er* and in *equational sentences* as well. In equational sentences, they are *emphatic* and supply *new information*.

[4.4.3]

- e. *Emphatic* pronouns also occur as *sentence subjects*, in which case they contrast with Palauan *non-emphatic* pronouns (which *only* occur as sentence subjects). The contrast in function and meaning between emphatic vs. non-emphatic pronouns in sentence subject position can be summarized in terms of the two principles given in (20) and (21) of 4.4.3. These principles make crucial use of the concepts of *new* vs. *old information* and *contrastive emphasis*.

[4.4.4-5]

- f. Emphatic pronouns have even further uses in *coordinate noun phrases*, in expressions with *di*, and so on (see also *Note 10* and the summary chart—Part A—in 4.7).

[4.5]

- g. Third person pronouns are being used properly only when they have a clear *antecedent* (from the context or the situation). Within *complex sentences* (with at least two clauses), a third person pronoun can be used in the second clause if its antecedent appears in the preceding clause. A similar principle operates to govern proper pronoun use in *dialogs*.

[4.6-4.6.3]

- h. *Non-emphatic pronouns* (third person only) can occur in *sentence-initial pre-verbal position* in sentences with *post-verbal subjects* (including certain types of *yes-no questions*). Some sentence types in Palauan seem to *require* a post-verbal subject—e.g., sentences with *idiomatic expressions* based on *reng* (4.6.2), sentences with (affirmative or negative) *expressions of existence*, and sentences with *soal* and *chetil*. Palauan also has a common sentence type in which a *possessor* (originally part of a *noun phrase of possession*) is returned to sentence-initial position (see *Note 13*). To focus on the international difference between statements and yes-no questions, have students read the examples of (41-2) first as statements, then as questions.

[4.9-4.9.1]

- i. When an *object pronoun* is suffixed to a verb stem, a *perfective* verb form results. Only *transitive* verbs (verbs that have both a *doer* and a *receiver*) can have perfective forms, which indicate an action that is brought to completion or finished entirely. By contrast, *imperfective* verb forms indicate actions in progress or not yet completed.

[4.9.2-3]

- j. There are several important *formal* differences between Palauan imperfective and perfective verb forms. Imperfective verb forms usually show a *verb marker* in the form of *me-* (*mengiil*) or *o-* (*omes*), which seems to be absent (but is actually phonetically modified, as we will see later) in the perfective forms. In addition, there is often an alternation (change) in the consonant of the stem (e.g., L of imperfective *melasech* vs. D of perfective *dosechii*). Finally, because the object pronoun suffixes are always *stressed*, they often cause *vowel weakening* within the preceding verb stem (e.g., imperfective *o-MA-kes* vs. perfective *be-ke-SII*).

[4.9.4]

- k. Object pronouns are unique in Palauan because they make an eighth distinction: there is a special *zero suffix* form to indicate a third person plural *nonhuman* object, as in *cholebed* ‘hits them—**nonhuman**’. This zero suffix form contrasts with the third person plural *human* object form (e.g., *cholebedeterir* ‘hits them—**human**’).

[4.9.6-7]

- l. The object pronouns have quite a few variant forms, especially in the third person singular, and there are many irregularities among common Palauan verbs (see 56-9).

[4.10-4.10.1]

- m. When a *prefix pronoun* is attached to a verb stem, a “prefix pronoun” verb form results. Such verb forms (*kusuub*, *chomosuub*, *losuub*, etc.) are used in a wide range of grammatical constructions (e.g., after the negative expressions *ng diak* and *ng dimlak*). The prefix pronouns only make five distinctions because second person singular and plural both use the same form (*cho*)*mo-*, etc., and third person singular and plural both use *lo-*, etc.

[4.10.2-3]

- n. Prefix pronouns can be added to either *imperfective* or *perfective* verb forms. With imperfective verb forms, the prefix pronoun usually replaces the verb marker *me-* or *o-* (e.g., *kunguiu*, *longuiu*, etc., from imperfective *menguiu* ‘to read’). With perfective

verb forms, the prefix pronoun normally precedes the entire verb form, but as a *reduced variant* (e.g., *lengesuir* from perfective *ngosuir* from imperfective *olengeseu* ‘to help’). Prefix pronouns can also be attached to the past tense forms of both imperfective verbs (see 65a–b) and perfective verbs (see 69b and 69e).

[4.10.4-5]

- o. Prefix pronouns can also be added to nouns and to the individual parts of complex verb phrases.

[4.10.6-7]

- p. Imperative verb forms and propositive verb forms are merely specialized usages of “prefix pronoun” verb forms.

SPECIFIC COMMENTS

[4.1]

- 1. The introduction is a general overview of what students should already know about pronouns. You should remind students that the *possessor suffixes* studied in Lesson 3 can be considered a type of pronoun (and therefore can also be called *possessor pronouns*).

[4.2]

- 1. The format of seven pronoun distinctions shown in (4) is a good basis for discussing all Palauan pronoun types, since these seven distinctions occur among the *emphatic*, *non-emphatic*, and *possessor pronouns*. From this basic system, it is easy to expand to the system of eight distinctions for the *object pronouns* or to “step down” to the five distinctions of the *prefix pronouns*.

[4.3]

- 1. The main point of *Note 1* is to remind students that emphatic and non-emphatic pronouns are always spelled as separate words, in spite of certain pronunciation changes (involving vowel loss).

[4.4]

- 1. In covering the rather complex distribution of Palauan *emphatic pronouns*, we first introduce the relatively easy case in which emphatic pronouns occur after *er* in relational phrases.

[4.4.1]

1. Another position of occurrence for emphatic pronouns is discussed here—namely, following the specifying word *er*. In this case, the emphatic pronoun indicates the *sentence object*. This is relevant, of course, only when the verb is *imperfective*.
2. *Note 3* introduces emphatic pronouns in sentences where the original object noun has been made into a topic and moved to sentence-initial position. When this movement occurs, an emphatic pronoun is left behind after the specifying word *er*. You may wish to skip *Note 3* entirely at this point.

[4.4.2]

1. In this section, emphatic pronouns are shown as Noun #2 in *equational sentences*, a structure that students are already familiar with from 2.3.3. Emphatic pronouns used as Noun #2 in equational sentences are focused and emphatic (hence, the use of the term). Equational sentences such as 14B, 15B, and 16B are a good way to introduce the concept of *new information*.

[4.4.3]

1. Once the concept of new information has been introduced (in 4.4.2 above), it is possible to show how Palauan emphatic pronouns in *subject position* provide new information. In addition, emphatic pronouns in subject position often carry a strong sense of *contrastive emphasis*.
2. Because both emphatic and non-emphatic pronouns occur in *subject position*, we must study such contrasting sentences as 18B vs. 19B to understand the true difference in meaning and function. Students should see that the contrast depends crucially on the context—i.e., on what kind of information is being asked for by Speaker A. Although the discussion in this section is long, the main points are summarized in (20) and (21) as two principles: a principle for using emphatic pronouns, and a principle for using non-emphatic pronouns. It might be helpful to write these principles on the blackboard as a reminder while you are discussing relevant examples with the class.
3. *Note 5* provides further contexts in which *contrastive emphasis* determines the use of emphatic pronouns, while *Note 7* indicates that contrastive emphasis does not seem to apply in a particular group of contexts. *Note 6* makes an interesting correction to earlier statements about the distribution of Palauan *a*.

[4.4.4]

1. If students find the term “coordinate” (in *coordinate noun phrase*) intimidating, you might use “compound” (or even “joined”) instead. The sentence structures of (23c–d) are too complicated to explain to students at this point.

2. *Note 8* attempts to explain the grammatical processes for forming sentences with coordinate noun phrases. It may be omitted from the discussion if you wish.

[4.4.5]

1. This section and *Note 10* give further structures in which emphatic pronouns occur. Students should find them interesting because they relate to ideas studied earlier—*equational sentences* and *appositional phrases*.

[4.5-4.5.1]

1. This section is a reminder about the general principles of proper pronoun usage. The main point is that third person pronouns are being used appropriately (in a *dialog* or a *complex sentence*) only if their *antecedent* (or referent) is clear. Just as the term *antecedent* implies, the referent (a full noun or noun phrase) must always *precede* the pronoun that it corresponds to. *Note 11* serves to reconfirm that this is always the case in Palauan. Observant students may remember from their English grammar that a referent may *follow* its corresponding pronoun in certain English sentences such as “Because he got sick, John went to the hospital.” In this kind of sentence (with a subordinate clause sentence-initially), it is entirely acceptable for *he* and *John* to refer to the very same person.
2. In the Palauan sentences (29a–d), the pronouns and their antecedents are as follows:
 - 29a: pronoun *ng*, antecedent *John*
 - 29b: pronoun *ng*, antecedent *Toki* (but see *Note 12*)
 - 29c: pronoun *ng*, antecedent *sensei*
 - 29d: pronoun *te*, antecedent *resechelik*
3. In the Palauan sentences (30a–c), the antecedents of *ngii* are as follows—30a: *babier*; 30b: *George*; 30c: *Toki*.

[4.6]

1. Sentences with *post-verbal subjects* are brought up here because they illustrate a major distributional feature of Palauan *non-emphatic* pronouns. When a full sentence subject occurs in a position following the verb phrase, as in (31b), (32b), and (33b), we find that a *non-emphatic* pronoun must simultaneously occur in sentence-initial position (pre-verbally). It may be helpful to tell students that such sentences have a kind of “double” subject—i.e., not only a non-emphatic pronoun before the verb phrase but also a (full) subject after it, which must agree with each other in number (i.e., singular vs. plural).

[4.6.1-2]

1. Once the idea of sentences with post-verbal subjects has been introduced, it is not difficult to explain that this sentence type is *obligatory* with certain kinds of phrases or expressions. Thus, post-verbal subjects are obligatory in sentences containing *idiomatic expressions* (idioms) with *reng* (see 4.6.2.a), affirmative or negative *expressions of existence* (see 4.6.2.b), and any forms of the *obligatorily possessed nouns* *soal* and *chetil* (see 4.6.2.c).
2. The idiomatic expressions in (38a–c) can be analyzed as follows:
 - 38a: *moalech a rengul*:
 word-for-word meaning: his heart is withered (like leaves)
 actual meaning of entire expression: he is disappointed
 - 38b: *ultebechel a rengul*:
 word-for-word meaning: his heart is held steady/moored (like a boat)
 actual meaning of entire expression: he is honest; he is mature and responsible
 - 38c: *doaoch a rengul*:
 word-for-word meaning: his heart is indecisive/inconsistent
 actual meaning of entire expression: he keeps changing his mind

The word-for-word meaning and the actual meaning of the entire expression correspond most closely in (38c). Students will analyze more expressions of this type in Exercise 4 below.

[4.6.3]

1. In this section, two more sentence types are introduced in which pre-verbal non-emphatic pronouns and post-verbal subjects are involved. The *yes-no questions* given in (41–2) are not difficult because they have the very same grammatical structure as the corresponding statements. Make sure the class pronounces the sentences of (41–2) out loud so that the characteristic rise in intonation will be heard. *Note 13* may be skipped at this point if you think that your students have become “overloaded” with too many grammatical concepts (post-verbal subjects, pre-verbal matching pronouns, yes-no questions, etc.). However, since this note presents a very common type of sentence in Palauan, you might want to consider at least giving an example—namely,

A ngelekek a meringel a chimal. ‘My child’s hand hurts.’

[4.7]

1. The summary chart detailing the differences between emphatic and non-emphatic pronouns is very important in bringing together all the information on this rather complicated topic. Go over the summary chart thoroughly in class, and ask students to write it down separately in their notebooks. Sections of the chart, with appropriate examples, can be written on the blackboard on different days, over a period of several classes.

[4.8]

1. Remind students that there are three types of *bound pronouns*, but that the *possessor pronouns* have already been dispensed with in Lesson 3 (where they were called *possessor suffixes*).

[4.9-4.9.1]

1. The seven-distinction format for the *object pronouns* given in (43) is preliminary, and of course an eighth distinction—the *zero* object pronoun suffix—will be introduced in 4.9.4 below. The combination of a verb stem followed by a (suffixed) object pronoun constitutes a Palauan *perfective* verb form. Review the differences in meaning and function between perfective and imperfective verb forms, and make sure students understand that only *transitive* verbs will have perfective forms.

[4.9.2-4.9.3]

1. The purpose of these sections is to highlight the major differences in form between perfective and imperfective verb forms. The most obvious differences are as follows:
 - a. Imperfective verb forms have the structure *verb marker* (*me-* or *o-*) + *verb stem* (e.g., *mengiil*, *omes*, etc.). There is, of course, no suffix after the verb stem. (This is oversimplified, but useful enough for students at this point.)
 - b. Perfective verb forms have the structure *verb stem* + *object pronoun* (e.g., *choieli*, *mesa*, etc.). The verb marker seems to be missing—at least, it does not occur in the form of a prefix *me-* or *o-* before the verb stem. (In fact, the verb marker **is** actually reflected in many perfective verb forms, but in an unusual way: it appears as a vowel or consonant *within* the verb stem. It is most obvious as -M- in such forms as *cheMiil*, *ngMasech*, etc. This aspect of Palauan perfective verb forms is too advanced to introduce to students now and will be dealt with in great detail in Lesson 6.)
 - c. While imperfective verb forms have one particular consonant (e.g., NG of *mengelebed*), the corresponding perfective forms often have another (e.g., CH of *cholebedii*). These patterns will be covered fully in Lesson 6.
 - d. When the perfective and imperfective forms of a verb are compared phonetically, the perfective forms show evidence of the very same *vowel weakening processes* that occur in the possessed forms of nouns (see 3.3.1).
2. If students have a thorough grasp of vowel weakening as it relates to the possessed forms of nouns, they should have no trouble understanding the modified principles in (45–7) or the three-step derivation in (48). Details aside, the most important point for students to realize is made in the last paragraph of 4.9.3: because the Palauan language, like all others, is *systematic* and consistent, the same *general rules* (in this case, for vowel

weakening) often apply quite broadly to many different classes of words (possessed nouns in Lesson 3, and now perfective verb forms in this lesson). You may tell students that the principles of vowel weakening have yet other applications, which will be studied at appropriate points later in this textbook.

[4.9.4]

1. In this section, the most unique feature of Palauan object pronouns is introduced—namely, that they have a special form to indicate third person plural *nonhuman* objects. This means that the total number of distinctions among Palauan object pronouns rises to eight and that there are three distinctions made within the third person alone, as indicated at the end of 4.9.4. Perfective verb forms that designate third person plural *nonhuman* objects (e.g., *dmasech*, *suesebed*, *cholebed*, etc.) do not appear to have any suffix after the verb stem. However, the very *absence* of a (pronounced) suffix in such forms creates a contrast with the other suffixes *-ak*, *-au*, *-ii*, etc., and therefore has very important informational value. Because the other seven distinctions among perfective verb forms are indicated by suffixes, it is convenient to say that *dmasech*, *suesebed*, *cholebed*, etc., also have a suffix, but of a very special kind—i.e., a *zero suffix that has no phonetic content*. If students are not convinced by the zero-suffix analysis, you can tell them that regardless of what analysis is used, it is still easy to identify the eighth form of perfective verbs: (1) there is, in fact, nothing directly following the verb stem, and (2) an *-M-* or *-U-* or *-O-* usually appears *within* the verb stem (as a modified form of the *verb marker* *me-* or *o-*).

[4.9.5]

1. Students will find perfective verb forms less intimidating if you go over some of the full sets of forms given in (52A–D) and (53), paying attention to the interesting phonetic changes. More practice on perfective verb forms can be found below in Exercise 6. Full sets of perfective forms of common Palauan verbs should also be written on the blackboard. In addition, you may wish to have students write full sentences containing perfective verb forms on the model of (53a–h), paying special attention to the third person forms.

[4.9.6]

1. Ask students to look at the perfective forms of *olekar* in (54) and explain what phonetic changes have taken place. The inserted consonant *-NG-* is, of course, the main reason for giving this example. However, two additional changes have occurred: (1) the *-le-* of imperfective *olekar* has been lost in the perfective forms (see also 54, where *olekiis* is affected in the same way), and (2) the full vowel *A* of imperfective *olekar* is reduced to *weak E* in the first seven forms (where there is a stressed object pronoun suffix).

2. The examples of (55) can be used as additional practice for students in identifying the phonetic changes that occur in the perfective forms. A few typical changes are given below:
 - a. *consonant alternation*: the stem-initial consonant of the imperfective form changes to another consonant in the perfective form—e.g., L → T (*meluk*—*tukur*), L → D (*melul*—*durur*), and NG → CH (*mengam*—*chumur*, *mengut*—*chutur*).
 - b. loss of *o-*: *oker*—*korir*, *omech*—*mechir*, etc.
 - c. insertion of *-o-* into the perfective form: *meleng*—*longir*, *olengeseu*—*ngosuir*, etc.

[4.9.7]

1. Since the four verbs *omes*, *oba(ng)*, *medenge(i)*, and *melai* are so common in Palauan, you should go over these sets of forms carefully with your students. After each verb, the unusual phonetic features are pointed out in detail.

[4.9.8]

1. This section makes an interesting *semantic* observation—namely, that because of their meaning certain Palauan verbs have only two perfective forms (third person singular and third person nonhuman plural). Formally (i.e., phonetically), there is nothing unusual about these verbs.

[4.10]

1. The *prefix pronouns* described in this section are presented as *hypothetical pronouns* in the PRG (see, for example, Chapters 4 and 19). Originally, “hypothetical pronoun” was chosen for *semantic* reasons because it seemed to be the best cover term for most of the situations in which such pronouns were actually used. The term “hypothetical” was intended to be a kind of summarizing term for concepts such as “supposed”, “unrealized”, “not real”, and so on. In this textbook, however, we will avoid the term “hypothetical” because it is conceptually too difficult. Instead, we will use the term *prefix pronoun*, which is easier for students to grasp because it focuses on the observable structure. When semantic issues arise, as they do briefly in this section, we will indicate separately the environments in which prefix pronouns occur—e.g., after *negative expressions*, and so on.

[4.10.1]

1. Palauan *prefix pronouns* are unique in that they make only five person-number distinctions. The reason is that prefix pronouns have no singular vs. plural distinction in the second and third persons.

[4.10.2-3]

1. Variant phonetic forms of the prefix pronouns turn up in various constructions. Thus, in the past tense forms of *imperfective* verbs, we have *lu-* instead of *lo-*, *du-* instead of *do-*, etc. (see 66). Additional variants which exhibit *vowel weakening* occur before the verbs *mo* and *me(i)* (see 67–8) and before *perfective* verb forms in general (see 69). Students should be reminded that all the verb forms in (69) contain both a *prefix pronoun* and an *object pronoun* (suffix), as follows:

Form	Prefix Pronoun	Object Pronoun
a. kbosii	k-	-ii
b. lesesebii	le-	-ii
c. lengai	le-	(zero)
d. lengesuir	le-	-ir
e. mka	m-	-a

[4.10.4-5]

1. In these two sections, we present examples of prefix pronouns being attached directly to *nouns* (or emphatic pronouns) and simultaneously to all the parts of *complex verb phrases*.

[4.10.6-7]

1. *Imperative verb forms* in Palauan are simply perfective or imperfective verb forms with a second person prefix pronoun, used as *commands*. *Propositive verb forms* are just perfective or imperfective verb forms with a first person plural *inclusive* prefix pronoun, used as *proposals* or *suggestions*.

[4.11]

1. Because the Palauan pronouns (especially the bound pronouns) have so many variants, a summary chart such as (80) is essential. Students should rewrite this chart in their notebooks for easy reference, and it should be written and left on the blackboard for a period of time.

KEY TO STUDY QUESTIONS

[4.13: Palauan Pronouns: Study Questions]

[Question 1: Group A: Pairs of Contrasting Terms]

1. While *non-emphatic pronouns* occur only in subject position, *emphatic pronouns* occur in subject position as well as other positions (e.g., after relational or specifying *er*, etc.). Emphatic pronouns in subject position provide new information and often imply contrastive emphasis, while non-emphatic pronouns in subject position refer only to old information. See Principles (20) and (21) in 4.4.3 for fuller definitions.
2. *Independent pronouns* are spelled as separate words, while *bound pronouns* are attached (as prefixes or suffixes) to noun or verb stems. Emphatic and non-emphatic pronouns are independent, while possessor, object, and prefix pronouns are bound.
3. When A asks B a question, certain information is already assumed or known by A, while other information is requested by A. Any information that A specifically requests is *new information*, while information that A assumes or knows is *old information*. When B answers A, he will use an emphatic pronoun (for new information) in sentence subject position if A is requesting that the subject be identified for the first time (e.g., by asking a question with *techa* 'who?'). If, however, the identity of the sentence subject is already known or assumed and some other type of information is being requested, B will use a non-emphatic pronoun (for old information) in subject position.
4. A *perfective verb* (structure: verb stem + object pronoun) indicates an action that is finished or brought to completion (i.e., "perfection"), while an *imperfective verb* (structure: verb marker + verb stem) indicates an action that is not yet completed—i.e., still in progress. See 4.9.2 for details of the systematic phonetic differences between Palauan perfective and imperfective verb forms.

[Question 1: Group B: Single Terms]

1. A *pronoun* is a word that refers to the speaker (first person), the person spoken to (second person), or the person or thing spoken about (third person). Third person pronouns *substitute* for full nouns in the proper context and can only be used appropriately if their referent (*antecedent*) is clear.
2. *Possessor pronouns* are attached as *suffixes* to *noun stems*. They indicate the *possessor* and make seven person-number distinctions.
3. *Contrastive emphasis* is a kind of *focus* or *emphasis* made by *emphatic pronouns* in certain positions (i.e., sentence subject and as Noun #2 in equational sentences). Contrastive emphasis always involves the introduction of *new information* of the type "this and only this (but not any others that may be involved)".

4. A *coordinate noun phrase* is a structure consisting of two (or more) nouns or pronouns joined by the connecting word *me* 'and'. Any pronoun occurring in a coordinate noun phrase must be of the *emphatic* type (see 23a–d).
5. The *antecedent* is the full noun (phrase) to which a pronoun refers. To use a third person pronoun properly in a Palauan sentence or dialog, the antecedent must be clearly identifiable and must *precede* the corresponding pronoun.
6. A *complex sentence* is one which has at least two major parts (clauses) joined by such connecting words (conjunctions) as *me* 'and so', *e* 'and then', *e le* 'because', etc.
7. A *post-verbal subject* is a subject noun phrase that occurs in a position following the verb phrase. Post-verbal subjects occur optionally or obligatorily, depending on the sentence type. When we have a post-verbal subject, a non-emphatic pronoun (agreeing in number—i.e., singular vs. plural) must occur simultaneously in sentence-initial pre-verbal position.
8. *Pre-verbal position* refers to sentence-initial position directly before the verb phrase. A third person non-emphatic pronoun will occur in pre-verbal position when a full subject noun phrase occurs post-verbally. Such a pronoun must agree with the post-verbal subject in number (singular vs. plural).
9. An *idiomatic expression* (or *idiom* for short) is any group of words whose overall meaning or interpretation *cannot* be derived simply by adding together the meanings of the individual parts. Almost all Palauan expressions with *reng* 'heart, spirit' are idiomatic. (Examples of idioms in English: *kick the bucket*: slang for "die"; *rain cats and dogs* = rain very hard; *off his rocker*: slang for "crazy", etc.)
10. An *expression of existence* asserts either that someone or something exists or existed (*affirmative* expression of existence), or that someone or something does not or did not exist (*negative* expression of existence). Affirmative expressions of existence are introduced by *ng ngar er ngii*, *ng mla er ngii*, etc., while negative expressions of existence are introduced by *ng diak*, *ng dimlak*, *ng dirhak*, etc. Palauan sentences with these expressions of existence always exhibit post-verbal subjects (see 4.6.2.b).
11. A *yes-no question* is a question phrased so that the answer can be "yes" or "no". Palauan yes-no questions often have the same grammatical structure as statements, but are identified by a sharp rise in intonation at the end (e.g., *Ke mo er sei?* 'Are you going there?'). One common type of yes-no question contains a post-verbal subject (e.g., *Ng me a sechelim?* 'Is your friend coming?').
12. An *object pronoun* is a type of bound pronoun that is suffixed to verb stems to derive *perfective verb forms*. Object pronouns identify (and put some focus on) the object of the verb and make eight distinctions (including a third person plural *nonhuman* object indicated by a *zero* suffix).

13. *Agreement* is a general grammatical principle which states that Palauan third person pronouns must match (i.e., “agree with”) any accompanying full noun in terms of the distinctions singular vs. plural and human vs. nonhuman. Agreement occurs between
 - a. A possessor suffix and any following noun indicating the specific third person possessor. *Example:*
blil a Droteo (sg.) vs. *blirir a resechelik* (pl.)
 - b. An object pronoun and any following noun indicating the specific third person object. *Example:*
chillebedii a ngalek/bilis (sg., human/nonhuman)
 vs. *chillebedeterir a rengalek* (pl., human)
 vs. *chillebed a bilis* (pl., nonhuman)
14. The idea of *zero suffix* is used to indicate the eighth distinction among Palauan object pronouns (i.e., third person plural *nonhuman* object). Because the *absence* of a suffix in forms like *cholebed*, *suesebed*, etc., contrasts with the *presence* of phonetically realized suffixes like *-ak*, *-au*, *-ii*, etc., in the other forms, we can say that *cholebed*, *suesebed*, etc., have a zero suffix (i.e., one that is structurally important but which has no phonetic content).
15. A *prefix pronoun* is a bound pronoun that is prefixed to verb stems. Prefix pronouns always indicate the sentence subject, and the verb forms in which they occur have a wide variety of uses (e.g., after negative expressions as in *Ng diak kusuub*. ‘I don’t study.’).
16. A *negative expression* states that someone or something does *not* exist, or that something does *not* happen. Following any negative expression such as (ng) *diak*, the verb must have a prefix pronoun (see 15 above).
17. The *reduced variants* of the prefix pronouns show fewer consonants as well as vowels reduced to *weak E*. They occur before certain verbs such as *mo* and *me(i)* and with *perfective* verb forms. See 4.10.3 for all details.
18. A *complex verb phrase* is one that has two or more parts (e.g., *mle mo merek* ‘has finished’). If a complex verb phrase occurs in a position where prefix pronouns are required, then a prefix pronoun is copied onto each part of the phrase (e.g., *lebla lebo lemerek*).
19. An *imperative verb form* is a verb with the structure *second person prefix pronoun + verb stem* being used as an order or command, as in *Monguiu er tia el hong!* ‘Read this book!’
20. A *propositive verb form* is a verb with the structure *first person plural inclusive prefix pronoun + verb stem* being used as a suggestion or proposal, as in *Dorael el mo er a chei!* ‘Let’s go fishing!’

[Question 2]

This is a reasonable statement because pronouns have many of the *distributional features* of nouns (sentence subject, sentence object, following *er*, Noun #2 in an equational sentence, etc.). In the proper context, pronouns can *substitute* for nouns (their *antecedents*). Nouns and pronouns show some similar distinctions—singular vs. plural, human vs. nonhuman, etc.

[Question 3]

Independent pronouns: emphatic, non-emphatic. Bound pronouns: possessor (suffixes), object (suffixes), prefix pronouns. See (4) in 4.2 for the seven basic distinctions.

[Question 4]

Most likely you would not know whom your friend is referring to by *te* 'they'. This is because your friend's statement would be spoken *out of context*—i.e., there would be no conversational background (or context) in which the *antecedent* of *te* has already been mentioned specifically.

[Question 5]

Both types of pronouns can occur in *subject position* (where there are interesting contrasts between the presentation of new vs. old information—see 4.4.3). *Non-emphatic* pronouns occur exclusively in sentence subject position (where they can also serve as matching elements for post-verbal subject noun phrases—see 4.6). *Emphatic* pronouns, however, occur more widely—in *relational phrases* after *er*, as sentence object after (specifying word) *er*, as Noun #2 in *equational sentences*, and in several other constructions. The summary chart in 4.7 gives a complete answer to this question.

[Question 6]

- a. *Ak mo er a stoang*: non-emphatic *ak* represents old information, and the focus of the sentence is on *er a stoang* (the direction or goal of movement), which is new information. This sentence would be a reply to the question *Ke mo er ker?* 'Where are you going?'
- b. *Ngak a mo er a stoang*: emphatic *ngak* supplies new information and is the focus of attention in the sentence; it also has a sense of *contrastive emphasis*. The phrase *er a stoang* is old information, since it is already assumed or known what the destination is. Therefore, this sentence would be a reply to such questions as *Ng techa a mo er a stoang?* 'Who is going to the store?' or *Ng mo er a stoa a sechelim?* 'Is your friend going to the store?' In the second case, it would of course be a denial (and a correction) of the questioner's (wrong) assumption.

[Question 7]

We get sentences like *Ng tir*, *Ng mle ngii*, etc., which give new information in the form of a very focused, emphatic answer. See 4.4.2 for a full discussion.

[Question 8]

Contrastive emphasis is expressed by using an emphatic pronoun in subject position (or as Noun #2 in an equational sentence). In English, however, contrastive emphasis is achieved by a device of pronunciation—i.e., by putting extra stress or intensity on the pronoun. In written English, this is shown by underlining, italicizing, capitalizing, or even using a stress mark—e.g., *I'm* going to the store, It was *you*, etc.

[Question 9]

Whenever a coordinate noun phrase contains a pronoun, the pronoun must be in the *emphatic* form. The conjunction *me* 'and' joins the words, as in *kau me ngii*, *kid me tir*, etc.

[Question 10]

In both dialogs and complex sentences, a third person pronoun cannot be properly used unless its fully specified *antecedent* noun phrase precedes. Relevant examples are found in (26–9) of 4.5.

[Question 11]

Non-emphatic pronouns in sentences with *post-verbal subjects* serve as a kind of second “matching” subject in sentence-initial pre-verbal position. Such pronouns must agree in number (singular vs. plural) with the post-verbal subject noun phrase. See (31–3) of 4.6 for examples in which the pronouns *ng* and *te* are used in this way.

[Question 12]

There are several ways of forming *yes-no questions* in Palauan:

- a. Use the corresponding statement but add rising intonation at the end of the sentence:
Ke mo er a chei?
- b. Use a sentence with a post-verbal subject, but also add rising intonation: *Ng kesib a rengum?* or *Ng ngar er ngii a biang?*
- c. Move a post-verbal subject into sentence-initial position without deleting the pre-verbal non-emphatic pronoun (this type is not analyzed in detail in this lesson):
A Droteo ng mla mei?

- d. Move a specific possessor (from within a post-verbal subject) into sentence-initial position without deleting the pre-verbal non-emphatic pronoun: *A sensei ng klebokel a bechil?*

[Question 13]

This study question may be omitted if you did not cover *Note 13* in 4.6.3. Sentence (a) is one in which the subject *chimal a ngelekek* occurs post-verbally, together with matching *ng* in sentence-initial pre-verbal position. In sentence (b), the specific possessor *ngelekek*, which is part of the entire post-verbal subject, has been moved to sentence-initial position, where it replaces the original pronoun *ng*.

[Question 14]

The major differences are explained clearly in (a–e) of 4.9.2.

[Question 15]

As noted in 4.9.3, all the object pronoun suffixes are stressed (except, of course, the zero pronoun). This means that any originally *stressed* full vowel (or even vowel cluster) in the verb stem becomes *unstressed* when an object pronoun is added. Due to the loss of stress, the full vowel (or vowel cluster) of the stem will be affected by *weakening*. *Examples*: full vowel A of *oleKAR* becomes weak E in *okerNGAK*, *okerNGAU*, etc.; full vowel E of *mengeLEbed* becomes weak E in *cholebeDAK*, *cholebeDAU*, etc. See (45-7) in 4.9.3 for the *principles of vowel weakening* in perfective verb forms.

[Question 16]

The answer to this question is provided as part of the definition of *agreement* in Question 1, Group B, 13 above.

[Question 17]

The *zero suffix* provides an eighth distinction among object pronouns that is not observed in any of the other pronoun types. The zero suffix uniquely identifies a third person plural object that is *nonhuman*.

[Question 18]

The perfective forms of *omsa(ng)* 'to give' are as follows:

meskak	meskid
	meskemam
meskau	meskemiu
msa(ng)	mesterir

All of these forms mean 'gives (something to) me, you, him/her, etc.' There does not seem to be an eighth form due to the meaning. Most of the forms of *omes* 'to see' are distinguished from those of *omsa(ng)* by having an extra weak E between the verb stem and the K or T that precedes the object pronoun suffix.

[Question 19]

The set of Palauan prefix pronouns makes only five distinctions, fewer than any of the other pronoun types. This is because no singular vs. plural distinction is made for second person or third person forms. See (62) in 4.10.1.

[Question 20]

As explained in 4.10.4, prefix pronouns can attach to a noun or to an *emphatic* pronoun functioning as Noun #2 in an *equational sentence*. *Examples:*

A sechelik a diak lidaiksang.	'My friend isn't a carpenter.'
Ng dimlak ltir (a silsebii a blai).	'It wasn't they (who burned down the house).'

[Question 21]

In such circumstances, a copy of the appropriate prefix pronoun is attached to each part of the complex verb phrase. Good examples are given in (75-6) of 4.10.5.

[Question 22]

Commands are simply second person prefix pronoun verb forms, and proposals are just first person plural inclusive prefix pronoun verb forms. Examples are found in 4.10.6 and 4.10.7, respectively.

KEY TO EXERCISES

[4.14: Palauan Pronouns: Exercises]

[Exercise 1]

In addition to having students provide the correct pronoun, you may also wish to have them identify the pronoun type, give the person and number, and (for independent pronouns) state the function or use (sentence subject, sentence object, and so on). For third person pronouns, students should be able to locate the antecedents.

- a. Ng kmal klebokel a mlim.
Ke milecherar er ker?
- b. Kom mekerang?
Aki mo er a ocherolel a Toki.
- c. Ng ngar er ker a Satsko?
Ngaukai. Ng dirkak lemei.
- d. A renglekir a sebechir el mo er a che el di tir.
- e. Te mo oudengua er ngii?
Ng diak. Kemam a mo oudengua er ngii.
- f. A Toki a dilu el kmo ng smecher, me ng diak leko er a blim.
- g. Ngii di el chad a soal a budech.
- h. Kede mla lmuches(+~~zero~~) a babier el rokui.
- i. A sechelik a mo er a Guam el mo kie er a blil a bechil.
- j. A sensei ng mo er a Beliliou ngii me techang?
- k. Ngara uchul me a ngelekem a diak loureor?
Ngaukai. Ng kmal mesaik. Ak kmal merur er ngii.
- l. Ng dirkak kbo kmerek er a subelek.
- m. Lak mongedecheduch! Ng kiram el mesuub er tiang!
- n. Dora! Te mengiil er kid.

[Exercise 2]

The speaker wants information about:

- a. person(s) who went to money-raising party (question word: *techa* 'who?')
- b. what they are studying (question word: *ngara* 'what?')
- c. the number of your friends (question word: *tela* 'how many?')
- d. the reason for your anger (question word: *ngara me* 'why?')
- e. your grade (how many points) (question word: *tela* 'how many?')
- f. the time of their return (question word: *er oingarang* 'when?')
- g. the place (source) from which the crab emerged (question word: *er ker* 'where?')
- h. how the boy fell (special question word: *mekera* 'do what?')
- i. what things you are going to prepare for the party (two question words *ngara* 'what?' joined by *me* 'and')
- j. the price of the rice (question word: *tela* 'how much?')

[Exercise 3]

- a. *le-* (prefix pronoun, third person singular), *k-* (prefix pronoun, first person singular)
- b. *le-* (prefix pronoun, third person singular), **zero** suffix on *ngmai* (object pronoun, third person plural nonhuman), *-ek* (possessor pronoun, first person singular)
- c. *le-* (prefix pronoun, third person singular), *-(k)ak* (object pronoun, first person singular), *-ak* (possessor pronoun, first person singular), *-ii* (object pronoun, third person singular)
- d. *-ek* (possessor pronoun, first person singular), *-(e)terir* (object pronoun, third person plural human), *-ek* (possessor pronoun, first person singular)
- e. *le-* (prefix pronoun, third person singular), *le-* (prefix pronoun, third person singular), **zero** suffix on *lengai* (object pronoun, third person plural nonhuman)

[Exercise 4]

After each expression with *reng*, we give (1) the word-for-word (i.e., literal) meaning, and (2) the (idiomatic) meaning of the entire expression.

- a. *milkol k a rengul*: (1) one's spirit is dark, (2) (person is) stupid

- b. *moded a rengul*: (1) one's spirit is flat/level, (2) (person is) easygoing/even-tempered
- c. *kikiongel a rengul*: (1) one's spirit is dirty, (2) (person is) obstinate/uncooperative
- d. *kedidai a rengul*: (1) one's spirit is high, (2) (person is) stubborn/condescending/arrogant
- e. *dmolech a rengul*: (1) one's spirit is deep, (2) (person is) wise/prudent; (person is) not thirsty
- f. *olseked er a rengul*: (1) push/crowd one's spirit, (2) (person) sticks to something/remains firm or resolved
- g. *olsarech er a rengul*: (1) press one's spirit down, (2) (person) holds in/controls emotions, anger, etc.
- h. *omak er a rengul*: (1) anchor/tie up one's spirit, (2) (person) takes the edge off (his/her) hunger
- i. *tmuu er a rengul*: (1) enter into one's spirit, (2) (something) occurs to (person)/enters (person's) mind
- j. *ngar er a eou a rengul*: (1) one's spirit is below, (2) (person) is humble/respectful

Note: For *milkolk* in (a), there is an additional expression *milkolk a bdelul* (lit., one's head is dark) that also means "stupid".

[Exercise 5]

- a. Ng diak kimolamech a dekoool.
- b. A rechedam a dimlak lekiiesii a kliokl.
- c. A rubak a dimlak lsengerenger.
- d. Ng diak kbo kuruul a kall.
- e. Ng dimlak kullengeseu er a Toki el meruul a subelel.
- f. A ngelekem a diak lengar er a skuul.
- g. A rubak a dimlak lengar er tiang.
- h. Ng diak debo dungil el smecher.
- i. Ngara me ng dimlak mlangel?
- j. Ng dimlak kbosii a babii.

[Exercise 6]

In addition to writing out the correct forms, going through the pronunciation, and checking for correct spelling, you may ask students to focus on some of the formal changes that distinguish the perfective from the imperfective forms (e.g., alternation of stem-initial consonant, presence vs. absence of the verb marker *me-* or *o-*, vowel reduction or deletion, appearance of -U- or -M- within the verb stem of the zero-suffix forms, etc.). A possible format for this additional practice is found in observations (a-e) on *mengelebed* vs. *cholebedii* in 4.9.2. Some of the verbs below have different meanings depending on whether the object is human or nonhuman. This is noted for your convenience, but you may ask students to discover these differences on their own as a kind of semantic exercise.

- a. *meluth*: 'to point at, appoint, assign (*person*); point at (*thing*); pick (*fruit*, etc.); allocate (*land*, *goods*, etc.)'

tutkak	tutkid
	tutkemam
tutkau	tutkemiu
tutkii	tutketerir
	tmutk

- b. *mengabl*: 'to carry (*person*, *thing*) under the arm'

choblak	choblid
	choblemam
choblau	choblemiu
choblai	choblterir
	chuabl

- c. *mengat*: 'to smoke (*fish*, etc.); dry (*wrapped tapioca*); give (*person*) steambath'

chotak	chotid
	chotemam
chotau	chotemiu
chotur	choteterir
	chemat

- d. *mengebangel*: 'to face towards (*person*, *thing*); look at (*person*, *thing*) close'

chobengelak	chobengelid
	chobengelemam
chobengela	chobengelemiu
chobengelii	chobengelterir
	chobangel

- e. *meleleb*: 'to cover, submerge (*thing*); cover (*person*) (with blanket, etc.)'

elebak	elebid
	elebemam
elebau	elebemi
elebii	elebeterir
	iueleb

The word-initial E in the first seven forms above is pronounced as a *full* E, even though it is in an unstressed syllable.

- f. *melengerenger*: 'to encourage, allow (*person*) to behave poorly; waste (*food, money, time, etc.*)'

dongerengerak	dongerengerid
	dongerengeremam
dongerengerau	dongerengeremi
dongerengerii	dongerengereterir
	dongerenger

- g. *merechorech*: 'to steal (*thing, person*—e.g., wife, girlfriend, etc.); capture, kidnap (*person*)'

rucherechak	rucherechid
	rucherechemam
rucherechau	rucherechemi
rucherechii	rucherecheterir
	ruchorech

- h. *merodech*: 'to try, aim at (*thing*) blindly; trick (*person*) to get information'

rodechak	rodechid
	rodechamam
rodechau	rodechemi
rodechii	rodecheterir
	remodech

- i. *mesmechokl*: 'to put (*things*) in order; put (*thing, person*) in correct position; correct (*person*) for mistaken statement; instruct (*person*) about correct method'

sumecheklak	sumecheklid
	sumecheklemam
sumecheklau	sumecheklemi
sumecheklii	sumecheklterir
	sumechokl

j. *oldermerem*: 'to push (*thing, person*) under water; force (*long object*) into ground, etc.)'

odermeremak	odermeremid
	odermerememam
odermeremau	odermerememiu
odermeremii	odermeremeterir
	odermerem

k. *oldurokl*: 'to send (*person, thing*)'

odureklak	odureklid
	odureklemam
odureklau	odureklemiu
odureklii	odureklterir
	odurokl

l. *olluut*: 'to make (*person*) return; send, give (*thing*) back'

olutak	olutid
	olutemam
olutau	olutemiu
olutii	oluteterir
	oluut

m. *olsisechakl*: 'to teach (*subject*); teach, instruct (*person*); train (*animal*)'

osisecheklak	osisecheklid
	osisecheklemam
osisecheklau	osisecheklemiu
osisecheklii	osisecheklterir
	osisechakl

n. *omart*: 'to hide (*person, thing*)'

mertak	mertid
	mertemam
mertau	mertemiu
mertii	merteterir
	mart

o. *orrebet*: 'to drop (*thing*), let (*thing*) fall; drop, remove (*person, name*) from list'

orebetak	orebetid
	orebetemam
orebetau	orebetemiu
orebetii	orebeteterir
	orebet

[Exercise 7]

Ask students to identify any unusual features of the zero-suffix forms.

- a. *melaod*: 'to catch (sardines) between prongs of spear; spear (fish);
comb out (lice) from hair'
tmodii tmaod
- b. *melboid*: 'to pull/press trigger of (gun, etc.); turn knob of (lantern, etc.)'
tibidii tiboid
- c. *melchesech*: 'to stuff (mouth, etc.) with food; stuff (clothing, etc.) into box, etc.'
sochesechii sochesech
- d. *meledaes*: 'to clear out (yard, etc.); clear off (floor, etc.); explain'
dmedesii dmedaes

The first E of the perfective forms is a *full E*, even though it is in an unstressed syllable.

- e. *mengaus*: 'to sprinkle lime on; weave; mend'
ch(o)usii chemaus
- f. *mengeched*: 'to husk (coconut)'
chochedii chemeched
- g. *meredem*: 'to put handle on (knife, spear, etc.); install; attach'
rodemii ruedem
- h. *meringet*: 'to chew (food); crush (rock, sugar cane, etc.)'
ringetii reminget
- i. *mesubech*: 'to break open (clam, earth, etc.); gather (large taro)'
subechii suubech
- j. *oldirekorek*: 'to overdo (activity, etc.)'
odirekerekii odirekorek
- k. *olechib*: 'to avoid, deflect, avert; disregard (advice, etc.)'
ochebir ochib

- l. *oliuid*: 'to copy; transfer (food, etc.)'
oidii oiuid
- m. *olstich*: 'to darken (color); tighten (screw, etc.)'
osichii oslich
- n. *omachel*: 'to split (firewood); (boat) move up and down through (ocean)'
mecheli machel
- o. *orrumk*: 'to weigh down (boat, etc.)'
oremkii orumk

[Exercise 8]

- a. *melib*: kulib, (cho)molib, etc.
- b. *mengoi*: kungoi, (cho)mongoi, etc.
- c. *omechei*: kumechei, (cho)momechei, etc.
- d. *omed*: kumed, (cho)momed, etc.
- e. *orrebet*: kurrebet, (cho)morrebet, etc.

SUGGESTIONS FOR ADDITIONAL ACTIVITIES

1. Choose one or more short texts of naturally written Palauan (from a story, letter, etc.). If necessary, rewrite according to the spelling conventions for pronouns followed in this textbook. Have students analyze the text to discover all the pronouns. Students should be able to identify each pronoun by type, function, person-number distinction, etc. If you cannot find anything suitable, feel free to develop some texts on your own.
2. Have a contest in class in which students compete to produce possessed nouns or perfective verb forms correctly. For possessed forms, give the noun stem (e.g., *bail*), and the student must give all seven possessed forms correctly. If any mistake is made, the contestant is eliminated. For perfective verb forms, give the corresponding *imperfective* verb (e.g., *mengelebed*), and the student must present all eight perfective forms correctly. Use the *NPED* to find nouns or verbs with unusual forms.
3. Ask students to make a comparison between the pronoun systems of Palauan and English. Some similarities and many differences will be found. These can be organized in lists or in outline form in a 2–4 page report. It would be helpful to coordinate with your students' English teacher so that he or she might do a review of English pronouns at the same time.

5

Teacher's Manual PALAUAN VERBS

GENERAL COMMENTS

1. Although it was necessary to introduce varying amounts of material on verbs in Lessons 1–4, it is here in Lesson 5 that all of the core information on verbs is presented. After mastering this lesson, students will be able to identify verbs by criteria of meaning, distributional features, and internal structure. They will also have a broad idea of the amazing variety of verb types and verb forms in Palauan, as well as a sense of the dynamics of verb derivation. Special emphasis is placed on the fundamental relationship between the *basic form*, the *imperfective form*, and the *perfective forms of transitive action verbs*, and a large number of study questions and exercises are provided to give students enough practice in this all-important area.

The materials in this lesson generally correspond to those in Chapter 5 of the PRG, although there have been expansions in some areas and omissions in others. In this lesson, there is expanded discussion of the Palauan *verb marker* (prefix *me-*, infix *-m-*, *-u-*, etc.) in order to facilitate presentation of *transitive action verbs* and their three inter-related forms (basic form, imperfective form, perfective forms) and to prepare students for the analysis of further verb types (state verbs, causative verbs, reciprocal verbs, reduplicated verbs, etc.) in later lessons. A large amount of extra data has been added so that students can get as complete a picture as possible of the internal structure of Palauan imperfective and perfective verb forms.

While this lesson emphasizes the form and internal structure of Palauan verbs, lengthy semantic discussions (e.g., the meaning difference between perfective vs. imperfective verb forms) are left aside for later lessons. In addition, certain difficult linguistically-oriented concepts of PRG Chapter 5 have been modified or omitted. Most importantly, the intimidating (and now recognized as erroneous) term “ergative verb” (e.g., for forms such as *mechelebed* ‘get hit’, *mechesimer* ‘get shut’, etc.) has been replaced here by the easier terms “basic form” (focusing on the structure) and “processive form” (focusing on the meaning). In addition, the derivation of Palauan imperfective verb forms has been reformulated in 5.6.3 as a consonant substitution process (e.g., imperfective *mengelebed* is derived from the basic form *mechelebed* by replacing CH by NG). This takes the place of the complicated analysis of imperfective forms given in PRG 5.5 and eliminates the controversial term “imperfective marker”.

2. Because the Palauan verb system is really very complex—and therefore extremely interesting!—it is a tremendous challenge to present it to students in a “user-friendly” way. It is also very difficult to decide how much information should be presented in this general lesson on verbs, because one topic inevitably seems to lead to two or three others! For this reason, Lesson 5 may seem overly long, or the choice of topics somewhat arbitrary. By encouraging students to stick with it, you will enable them to develop a core of basic concepts that will make many later lessons much easier. It is also worthwhile to keep reminding students that what they are studying—the verb system of their native language—is a vastly complex and amazing conceptual system that is unique among the thousands of languages of the world.
3. The most important points that students should learn in this lesson are summarized below:

[5.1]

- a. Palauan verbs can be identified by describing their *meaning*, their *distributional features*, and (most emphasized in this lesson) their *internal structure*.

[5.2–5.3.1]

- b. Palauan *action verbs* describe actions or events and are either *transitive* or *intransitive*, with each type occurring in a characteristic sentence pattern. Palauan *state verbs* differ from action verbs in several important ways: (1) they describe states, conditions, qualities, or the existence of something; (2) they form their past tense with the auxiliary verb *mle* (vs. the infix *-il-* or *-l-* for action verbs); and (3) with the auxiliary *mo* they always indicate a change of state.

[5.4–5.4.3]

- c. There are about a half dozen major sentence (or clause) patterns in Palauan which allow us to summarize the distribution of Palauan verbs (or verb phrases). These sentence patterns include elements such as the *subject noun phrase* (in pre-verbal or post-verbal position), the *object noun phrase*, the *verb phrase* itself (with an action or state verb in a particular tense), and various *relational phrases*. Additional sentence patterns are observed in Palauan *equational sentences* and in (verb-initial) *imperative* and *propositive sentences*.

[5.5–5.5.4]

- d. By means of infixation (past tense marker *-il-*) and the addition of *auxiliary verbs* such as *mle* and *mo*, Palauan verbs can make various distinctions of *tense*. The *present tense* (which is a “plain”, unmarked form of the verb) expresses either an action or

state *in progress* at the present moment or a *general or habitual statement*. The *past tense* describes an action or state that occurred or was in progress in the past, with a major grammatical difference depending on whether we have an action verb or a state verb (use of *-il-* vs. *mle*). The *future tense* is expressed by using the auxiliary *mo* directly before the verb (e.g., *mo merael* 'will travel'), and the auxiliary verb *mle* is used with a verb (e.g., *mle meruul* 'has made, prepared') to indicate a *recent past event* or *past experience*.

[5.6–5.6.1]

- e. The essential nature of Palauan verb structure can be found in the way that the *verb marker* (prefix *me-*, etc. or infix *-m-*, *-o-*, etc.) combines with *independent* or *bound* stems to derive various groups of verbs. *Transitive action verbs* represent a major class of Palauan verbs, and each transitive action verb should be understood in terms of its *basic* (or *processive*) form—e.g., *mechelebed* 'get hit', derived from verb marker *me-* + (independent noun stem) *chelebed* 'whip, club, etc.'—and its related *imperfective* form (*mengelebed*) and *perfective* forms (*cholebedak*, *cholebedau*, *cholebedii*, etc.).

[5.6.2]

- f. The *perfective* forms of transitive action verbs are related directly to the basic form and are derived by a particular set of rules or principles (see 1-3 in 5.6.2).

[5.6.3–5.6.3.1]

- g. The *imperfective* form of a transitive action verb can also be derived from the basic form by applying a set of *consonant alternation* rules (see 36-7 in 5.6.3). In several groups of verbs that are phonetically specifiable, the consonant alternation rules do not apply.

[5.7–5.7.2.1]

- h. Regardless of whether the stem of a transitive action verb is *independent* or *bound*, the derivation of its imperfective form and all perfective forms is completely regular.

SPECIFIC COMMENTS

[5.1]

1. This introduction reminds students that the criteria already used for identifying one part of speech—nouns—can equally be applied in identifying another part of speech—namely, verbs. The three major criteria are *meaning*, *distributional features*, and *internal structure*.

[5.2]

1. This section concentrates on the meaning of verbs and makes distinctions between (1) noun vs. verb, (2) transitive vs. intransitive action verb, and (3) doer (linguistic term: “agent”) vs. receiver (“direct object”, “recipient”, “affected”, etc.). All of these concepts should be clear to students as they have already been introduced at one point or another in previous lessons. Formulas are given for sentence patterns containing transitive vs. intransitive action verbs, with a good number of example sentences. *Note 1* in Section 5.2 offers a slight qualification of the description of *transitive* action verbs previously given—i.e., it is possible for certain transitive action verbs to occur without an object when the nature of that object is so general or obvious as to be predictable.
2. After the example sentences of (1) are presented, students are asked to identify the doer and receiver in each case. You may wish to use this question as an in-class exercise. Sample answer: in (1d), the *doer* is *mechas* ‘old woman’ and the *receiver* is *ius* ‘crocodile’.

[5.3]

1. The meaning categories of Palauan verbs are further pursued in this section, where *state verbs* (as opposed to *action verbs*) are covered in some detail. The distinction between *temporary* vs. *permanent* qualities is made, and attention is given to *ngar* (past tense: *mle*), the state verb of *existence*. In *Note 2*, the small but interesting category of Palauan *transitive state verbs* is illustrated.

[5.3.1]

1. Once students have been adequately introduced to the *semantic* distinction between action vs. state verbs, it is easy to have them grasp the major *formal* difference between these two verb types. Basically, action verbs change their *internal structure* to derive the past tense (e.g., *mengelebed*, past: *milengelebed*), while state verbs use an auxiliary word (e.g., *smecher*, past: *mle smecher*). To explain these differences, we must introduce the concepts of *past tense marker* and *infix*, since the past tense with action verbs is normally derived by *infixing* (or inserting) the past tense *morpheme* *-il-* or *-l-* within the verb form itself. We must also introduce the concept of *auxiliary verb* to explain the function of *mle*, which adds the meaning of “past tense” to any state verb which it accompanies.
2. Although this section concentrates on the *past tense marker*, some students will be immediately curious about the prefix *me-* or *m-* observed in many Palauan verbs. A quick explanation of this *me-* or *m-* as the Palauan *verb marker* is given in *Note 3*, together with some additional phonetic variants of the *past tense marker*. The Palauan verb marker will of course be covered extensively later in this lesson, as well as in Lesson 6.
3. Once students show a good understanding of the material in 5.3, you may wish to have them read *Note 4*. This note presents a somewhat advanced semantic argument to support

the distinction between action verbs vs. state verbs. It introduces the auxiliary verb *mo* and the idea of *change of state*.

[5.4-5.4.1]

1. Much of the information presented here on the distribution of Palauan verbs (verb phrases) has already been introduced, and the chart entitled “Distribution of Palauan Verbs” involves only a small number of modifications, as described in 5.4.1. As *Note 5* explains, the sentence patterns presented to students in the main part of the text are actually oversimplified because they do not provide for extra relational phrases. In the three examples given, the extra relational phrase is analyzed as follows: (a) *er a elii*—temporal phrase, (b) *er a uum*—locational phrase, and (c) *er a sechelik*—source phrase.

[5.4.2]

1. In this section and in *Note 6*, further Palauan sentence types are described in which the sentence subject occurs in post-verbal position. Imperative and propositive sentences are brought up once again as unusual sentence types in which the verb (phrase) occurs in the very initial position of the sentence.

[5.4.3]

1. This section is a kind of summary or review of certain basic ideas that have been assumed (though not necessarily completely explained) in earlier parts of the textbook. The three major issues that are brought to students’ attention are as follows:
 - (a) The basic unit for analyzing Palauan sentences is the *verb phrase* (rather than any single, isolated, one-word verb form).
 - (b) Related to the issue in (a) above, the Palauan word *a* functions as an introducer of major sentence parts—*verb phrases* and *noun phrases* (as opposed to single verbs or nouns).
 - (c) In discussing any Palauan transitive action verb (including causative verbs), it is impossible to avoid the essential distinction between *perfective* and *imperfective* forms.

[5.5–5.5.1]

1. In this and the following sections, we give a broad survey of *tense* in Palauan. The *present tense* is the most basic in terms of form because it is *unmarked*—i.e., it does not contain any specific morpheme for tense at all. Thus, present tense forms such as *mechiuaiu* ‘to sleep’, *medakt* ‘to be afraid’, and *mechelebed* ‘get hit’ simply have the structure *verb marker* + *verb stem*. All *transitive action verbs*, whether *imperfective* or *perfective*, are also *unmarked* in the present tense. Thus, imperfective *mengelebed* ‘to hit’ contains the verb marker *me-* followed by the verb stem *ngelebed* (whose initial consonant has been

changed from CH to NG), while perfective *cholebedak*, *cholebedau*, *cholebedii*, etc., contain the verb marker (as an infix -o-), the verb stem *chelebed*, and an object pronoun suffix (-ak, -au, -ii, etc.).

2. Palauan verb forms in the present tense have two major functions: (1) they indicate current, ongoing, in-progress actions or states, or (2) they express actions or states that occur repeatedly or habitually or that represent general statements. Comparison with the functions of English present tense verb forms may help you clarify some of the ideas presented here, so you may wish to have students read and discuss *Note 7*.
3. *Note 8* covers two cases in which particular types of verbs have rather specialized meanings in the present tense. Thus, Palauan *perfective* verb forms in the present tense are used to convey the idea of *imminent* action and can therefore be used to give *warnings* or *suggestions*. In addition, the *basic* (or *processive*) form of a transitive action verb—e.g., *mechelebed* ‘get hit’—can also be used to express warnings or suggestions, but from the point of view of the person affected. As such they are very similar in effect to *passive* sentences in English.

[5.5.2–5.5.2.6]

1. The main point to impress upon students is that Palauan *past tense* verb forms are overtly *marked* in either of two ways: (1) with *action verbs*, the *past tense marker* is an *infix* such as -il- or -l- or a *prefix* such as *ule-*, while (2) with *state verbs*, the past tense is formed with the help of an *auxiliary verb* *mle* ‘was, were’ that precedes the verb. Students should review 5.3.1 carefully at this point (including *Note 3*).
2. Because all types of verbs in Palauan can occur in the past tense, the different groups are dealt with separately, as follows:
 - (a) Sec. 5.5.2: Past tense of state verbs: use auxiliary verb *mle*.
Example: *mle medakt*
 - (b) Sec. 5.5.2.1: Past tense of action verbs of *foreign origin*: use auxiliary verb *mle*.
Example: *mle otsir*
 - (c) Sec. 5.5.2.2: Past tense of (native) action verbs that contain the verb marker prefix *me-* or *m-*: use infix -il- or -l-.
Example: *milechiuiiau/mlechiuiui*
 - (d) Sec. 5.5.2.3: Past tense of (native) action verbs that contain the verb marker prefix *o-* (including causative verbs): use prefix *ule-* or *ul-*.
Examples: *ulureor*, *ulemekdakt*
 - (e) Sec. 5.5.2.4: Past tense of intransitive action verbs that contain the verb marker infix -(e)m-, -o-, or -u-: use infix -il- (or -ir-).
Examples: *chiliis*, *rirurt*

- (f) Sec. 5.5.2.5: Past tense of perfective verb forms (which usually contain a verb marker in the form of an infix *-(e)m-*, *-o-*, or *-u-*): use *-il-* (or *-ir-*).
Examples: *chillebedii*, *rirellii*
- (g) Sec. 5.5.2.6: Past tense of prefix pronoun verbs (prefixed with *ku-*, *(cho)mo-*, *lo-*, etc.): use the prefixes *kul-*, *(cho)mul-*, *lul-*, etc.
Example: *kulsuub*

3. In the last three examples of (22) and the last two examples of (23), it is brought to students' attention that the infixed past tense marker has the form *-ir-* rather than the expected *-il-*. In every case, this *-ir-* occurs when there is also a preceding (stem-initial) R—e.g., *ruebet* 'to fall'—*rirebet*, (perfective) *rullii* 'does it completely'—*rirellii*, etc. In technical terms, this is a perfect example of total *assimilation*: i.e., the L of the past tense marker *-il-* changes to R, thereby becoming identical to another R in its phonetic environment. Students will take another look at this issue in Study Question 12 below.

[5.5.3-5.5.4]

1. In these sections, the remaining topics on Palauan tense are covered. The auxiliary verb *m̄la* combines with action verbs to indicate a *recent past event* or *past experience*. The auxiliary verb *mo* combines with any verb to indicate a *future event* or state. When *mo* is followed by a state verb, there is often a connotation of *change of state*.

[5.6-5.6.2]

1. Quite a lot of detail on the variant forms of the Palauan *verb marker* is introduced in 5.6. Students should understand that this grammatical unit (morpheme) has three major variants: prefix *me-* or *m-*, prefix *o-*, and infix *-em-*, *-m-*, *-o-*, or *-u-*. Students should definitely learn to recognize the verb marker, since it is an essential part of the structure of many Palauan verb forms. An understanding of all the forms of Palauan *transitive action verbs* begins with a verb's *basic form*, which has the internal structure *verb marker* + *verb stem* (e.g., *mechelebed* 'get hit', from verb marker *me-* + independent noun stem *chelebed* 'whip, bat, club, etc.'). If we focus on the *meaning* of such forms (e.g., *mechelebed* means that "someone experiences or undergoes the process of hitting"), we may wish instead to use the term *processive form* (of the verb).
2. Once the basic form of a transitive action verb has been determined, we can easily derive all of its *perfective forms*. While many facts about perfective forms have already been introduced, the most important ones are summarized in (1-3) of 5.6.2. Students should definitely understand that (1) perfective verb forms show the *same initial consonant* as is found in the stem part of the verb's *basic form* (e.g., the basic form *mechelebed* and all of the perfective forms *cholebedak*, *cholebedau*, *cholebedii*, etc., share CH), and (2) in most (present tense) perfective verb forms the *verb marker* appears as an *infix* after the initial consonant (e.g., the O of *cholebedak*, the EM of *remuul*, the U of *sueseb*, etc.).

[5.6.3-5.6.3.1]

1. The imperfective forms of Palauan transitive action verbs are derived from the corresponding basic forms by changing the stem-initial consonant (e.g., *mengelebed* is derived from *mechelebed* by changing basic CH to NG). The various patterns of *consonant alternation* used to derive the imperfective forms of transitive action verbs are summarized in (36) and in *Note 11* at the end of 5.6.3. Although the phonetic details are too complicated for students, as a teacher you may find it interesting that there are some general patterns in the consonant alternation being described here. Thus, it is the *back* consonants CH (glottal) and K (velar) that become a *back* sonant NG (velar nasal). Also, with the exception of NG, it is the *front* consonants T and D (both dental) and S (alveolar) that become a *front* sonant L (lateral). Finally, the *labial* consonant B becomes a *labial* sonant M (bilabial nasal).
2. As indicated in *Note 10*, in certain verbs the consonants T, D, S, and NG become (the sonant) R rather than L. As explained after the relevant examples, this always occurs when there is an R elsewhere in the stem. We have already seen instances of this phonetic process of *assimilation* in connection with the examples of (22) and (23).
3. *Note 11* gives examples of the B-M alternation, and students are asked to analyze these data further in Study Question 21.
4. Once students have been introduced to the various patterns of consonant alternation used to derive the imperfective form from the corresponding basic form, we look at cases in which there is no consonant alternation at all (and therefore the imperfective form and basic form of a given verb are identical phonetically).

[5.7-5.7.2.1]

1. In these sections, a wide range of additional examples are provided to familiarize students with the internal structure of transitive action verbs. Students are introduced to the distinction between basic forms derived from *independent* (noun) stems vs. basic forms derived from *bound* stems. Exercises 9 and 10 below ask students to work with the data in lists (40) and (41) and produce various related verb forms.
2. *Note 12* at the end of 5.7.2.1 covers one more interesting topic relating to transitive action verbs—namely, the fact that two totally different stems can produce *homonyms* in the imperfective forms. Thus, we have, for example, imperfective *melabek* ‘to iron (clothes)’ related to the bound stem *-ngabek-* (cf. perfective *ngobekii*) alongside phonetically identical imperfective *melabek* ‘to patch’ related to the independent stem *tabek* (cf. perfective *tobekii*).

[5.8]

1. This section on “Additional Types of Palauan Verbs” is a quick summary of those types of Palauan verbs that must still be covered in detail in later lessons of the textbook.

KEY TO STUDY QUESTIONS

[5.10: Palauan Verbs: Study Questions]

[Question 1]

Note: The definitions below have been made as short and concise as possible. Consult the relevant sections of the text for additional details.

[Group A: Pairs of Contrasting Terms]

1. *Action verbs* describe actions, activities, or events, while *state verbs* describe states, conditions, or qualities. Examples: *Action verb*: *mengelebed* 'to hit', *merael* 'to travel'. *State verb*: *ungil* 'good', *smecher* 'sick'.
2. *Transitive verbs* are action verbs that involve a *doer* and a *receiver*, while *intransitive verbs* involve a *doer* only. Examples: *Transitive verb*: *mesebek* 'to kick', *omekdakt* 'to frighten'. *Intransitive verb*: *remurt* 'to run', *oureor* 'to work'.
3. With transitive action verbs, the *doer* is the person who carries out or causes an action, event, etc., while the *receiver* is the person or thing affected by that action. Example: *Ak chillebedii a bilis*. 'I hit the dog'. *Doer*: *ak*. *Receiver*: *bilis*.
4. These terms relate to Palauan state verbs. A *temporary* quality or state may change (e.g., *ungil* 'good', *smecher* 'sick'), while a *permanent* one is (relatively) unchanging (e.g., *metongakl* 'tall', *mellomes* 'smart').
5. A *prefix* is a morpheme that is attached before a stem (e.g., verb marker prefix *me-* in *merael*), an *infix* is a morpheme that is inserted into a word or stem (e.g., past tense marker *-il-* in *liluut*), and a *suffix* is a morpheme that is attached after a stem (e.g., third person singular object pronoun suffix *-ii* in *cholebedii*).
6. The three major tenses of Palauan are as follows: (a) *present* (not marked by any morpheme), indicating current actions or states or expressing general or habitual actions; (b) *past* (indicated by past tense marker infix *-il-* for action verbs and by the auxiliary verb *mle* for state verbs), referring to actions or states in the past; and (c) *future* (marked by the auxiliary verb *mo*), indicating actions or states in the future.
7. The *perfective forms* (of a transitive action verb) are derived directly from the *basic form* and have the structure *verb stem* (with infixed verb marker) + *object pronoun*—e.g., *cholebedii* from basic form *mechelebed*. However, the *imperfective form* (of a transitive action verb) is derived from the basic form by (usually) changing the first consonant of the stem—e.g., imperfective *mengelebed* from basic form *mechelebed*. In terms of meaning, perfective forms indicate completed, "perfected" actions, while imperfective forms refer to actions that are in progress or incomplete.

8. The basic forms of certain Palauan verbs are derived by prefixing the verb marker *me-* to a stem which is itself an *independent* noun (i.e., a noun that can occur alone as a separate word)—e.g., basic form *mechas* ‘get blackened’ from *me-* + *chas* ‘soot, ink’. By contrast, the basic forms of other Palauan verbs are derived by prefixing *me-* to a stem which is *bound* (i.e., one that cannot occur independently but must always be attached to some other morpheme)—e.g., basic form *medeu* ‘get folded, creased’ from *me-* + (bound stem) *-deu*.

[Group B: Single Terms]

- 1–2. The *state verb of existence* *ngar* (past: *m̄la*) is used to assert that someone/something exists (existed) in a particular location—e.g., *A sechelik a m̄la er a Guam*. ‘My friend was in Guam’. The state verb *ngar* also occurs very commonly in the *expressions of existence* *ng ngar er ngii* ‘there is/are’ and *ng m̄la er ngii* ‘there was/were’, which are used to “introduce” the existence of someone/ something into a conversation—e.g., *Ng ngar er ngii a beab er a chelsel a skidas*. ‘There’s a mouse inside the drawer.’
3. The *past tense marker* is a morpheme that is used to indicate the past tense of (transitive or intransitive) *action* verbs. It usually has the form of an infix *-il-* or *-l-* (e.g., *milechiuaiu/ mlechiuaiu*) or a prefix *ule-* or *ul-* if the original verb begins with *o-* (e.g., *ulsiik* from *osiik*).
4. An *auxiliary verb* is one that “helps” another verb express an additional idea such as tense. Palauan *state* verbs use the auxiliary verb *m̄le* to express *past tense* (e.g., *m̄le smecher*), and both *action* and *state* verbs use the auxiliary verb *mo* to express *future tense* (e.g., *mo mechiuaiu, mo smecher*).
5. A *verb phrase* (as opposed to a single verb) is a group of associated words that function as the “core” of a sentence and express an action or state together with tense, etc. Typical verb phrases include auxiliary verbs (e.g., *m̄le ungil, mo smecher, m̄la mesuub*) or certain qualifying words (e.g., *km̄al ungil, di mililil*).
6. The *verb marker* is a morpheme whose sole function is to “mark” or identify certain words as verbs. The verb marker occurs in most verb forms and has the following phonetic variants:

prefix *me-* or *m-*, as in *meruul, mekngit, milil*

prefix *o-*, as in *omoes, omekdakt, oumlai*

infix *-em-*, *-m-*, *-o-*, or *-u-*, as in *remos, lmuut, cholebedii, sueseb, kmeed*

See 5.6 for a complete list with more examples.

7. The *verb stem* is the basic part of a verb to which certain other morphemes (for example, the verb marker *me-*) are attached to derive an actual verb form. Many *independent nouns* can actually function as verb stems: for example, when the verb marker *me-* is prefixed to the independent noun *chelebed* ‘whip, club’, we get *mechelebed* ‘get hit’, which is the basic

form of a transitive action verb. In many other cases, however, the verb stem does not correspond to an independent noun, but is in fact *bound* (e.g., *-deu* in *medeu* ‘get folded, creased’). Cf. Group A-8 above.

8. A *general statement* expresses a broad generalization or commonly accepted fact. Its verb is normally in the present tense, as in the sentence *A rechad er a Sina a menga a beras*. ‘Chinese people eat rice.’
9. A *habitual statement* comments about a habit or repeated action and is normally in the present tense—e.g., *A Droteo a me er tia er a bek el sils*. ‘Droteo comes here every day.’
10. The *basic form* of a (transitive action) verb has the structure *verb marker + stem*, where the stem is either an independent noun or a bound morpheme. Typical examples are *mechelebed* ‘get hit’ (from an independent noun *chelebed* ‘whip, club’) and *medeu* ‘get folded, creased’ (from a bound stem *-deu*). Certain processes are applied to the basic form to derive the imperfective and perfective forms.
11. The *processive form* of a (transitive action) verb is identical to the *basic form*. This term is used, however, when we wish to focus on the *meaning* of such forms, which always express the idea “someone/something undergoes or is affected by the *process* (of the particular verb)”. Therefore, the basic form *mechelebed* has a processive meaning—i.e., ‘get hit’.

12–13.

The auxiliary verb *mila* is used together with another verb form (e.g., *mila mesuub* ‘has studied’, *mila mesa* ‘has seen’) to indicate a *recent past* event—i.e., one that just occurred a short while ago. The combination of *mila* + verb is also used to express *past experience*—i.e., it indicates whether someone has done something on one or more occasions in the past, has never done that action, and so on.

14. *Alternation* refers to the fact that the phonetic form of a morpheme changes during a particular process of derivation. Two major types of alternation are noted in this lesson:
 - a. At the end of 5.6.2, we see that the Palauan verb marker alternates between being a *prefix* (*me-*) in *mechelebed* and an *infix* (*-o-*) in the corresponding perfective forms *cholebedak*, etc.
 - b. At the end of 5.6.3, we list and discuss the patterns of *consonant alternation* that are used to derive imperfective forms from the corresponding basic form (e.g., the alternation *CH* to *NG* is used to derive imperfective *meNGelebed* from basic *meCHelebed*).
15. *Homonyms* are forms that are phonetically identical (and spelled the same) even though they really represent two (or more) different words with different meanings and origins. Because of the consonant alternation rules, we get some imperfective forms of transitive action verbs that are homonyms. For example, *melilech* #1 means ‘to dip into water’ and is related to perfective *dilechak*, *dilechau*, etc., while *melilech* #2 means ‘to throw down,

smash open' and is related to perfective *tilechak*, *tilechau*, etc. See Note 12 at the end of 5.7.2.1 for more details.

[Question 2]

The best approach is to define each part of speech in terms of the three criteria of *meaning*, *distributional features* (i.e., positions occupied within sentences), and *internal structure*. See 5.1 for more details.

[Question 3]

These patterns are presented in 5.2 and 5.3 (see also the summary list in 5.4):

- a. for transitive action verbs: **Subject Noun + Transitive Action Verb + Object Noun**
- b. for intransitive action verbs: **Subject Noun + Intransitive Action Verb**
- c. for state verbs: **Subject Noun + (intransitive) State Verb**

One or more *relational phrases* can be added to each of the patterns above.

[Question 4]

As explained in 5.3.1, action verbs (transitive or intransitive) use an *infix* (the past tense marker *-il-* or *-l-*) to derive their past tense forms (e.g., *milechiuaiu*, *mlechiuaiu*), while state verbs use the independent *auxiliary verb* *mle* (e.g., *mle smecher*).

[Question 5]

Verbs in sentence-initial position are found in *imperative* (command or request) sentences (*Mketmeklii a delmerab er kau!* 'Clean up your room!') or in *propositive* (proposal or suggestion) sentences (*Debo dekelatk!* 'Let's remember each other!'). See 5.4.2.b for more information.

[Question 6]

In general, decades of linguistic studies have shown that the sentences of all languages are composed of major structural (and conceptual) units such as noun phrases, verb phrases, and (for English and other European languages) prepositional phrases, which themselves may consist of further sub-units (or be represented merely by a single word of the proper part-of-speech category). The main justification for considering a group of words to be a *phrase* is that such words operate or "behave" together as an *entire unit* when particular grammatical processes are applied.

- a. *Noun phrases* function in Palauan as the (pre-verbal or post-verbal) sentence subject, as the sentence object, or as the "object" of the relational word *er*. One major type of noun phrase is the *noun phrase of possession*—e.g., *blil a Droteo* 'Droteo's house'—which is illustrated below in each of the three major functions of a noun phrase:

- (1) subject: A *blil a Droteo* a *kmal klou*.
'Droteo's house is very large.'
- (2) object: Kede *milengesbreber er a blil a Droteo*.
'We were painting Droteo's house.'
- (3) after *er*: A *ngelekek a ngar er a blil a Droteo*.
'My child is at Droteo's house.'

Now, to show that *blil a Droteo* behaves as a *phrase*, we can look at the following grammatical processes:

- (1) The entire subject noun phrase can be moved from post-verbal position (see 5.4.2.a) to pre-verbal position, or vice versa. Thus, the noun phrase *blil a Droteo* appears in its entirety as sentence subject in both of the sentence types below:
 - a. Ng *kmal klou a blil a Droteo*. (post-verbal subject)
 - b. A *blil a Droteo* a *kmal klou*. (pre-verbal subject)
- (2) If, in the proper context, we were to refer to Droteo's house by a pronoun ("it"), then the pronoun would substitute for the entire noun phrase. Thus, in the second member of the pair below, the emphatic pronoun *ngii* completely replaces the object noun phrase *blil a Droteo*:
 - a. Kede *milengesbreber er a blil a Droteo*.
 - b. Kede *milengesbreber er ngii*.
- (3) In a similar way, a special type of pronoun substitution for *blil a Droteo* in a locational phrase introduced by *er* gives the second member of the pair below:
 - a. A *ngelekek a ngar er a blil a Droteo*.
 - b. A *ngelekek a ngar er sei*.

In (b) above, the demonstrative word *se(i)* 'there, that place' replaces the entire noun phrase *blil a Droteo*.

- b. *Verb phrases* also function in Palauan as entire structural and conceptual units. As conceptual units, they include reference to the tense (e.g., *mo kutmeklii* 'will clean up') or to certain qualifying ideas (e.g., *kmal ungil* 'very good'). A good test for verb phrases is to see what groups of words can substitute for a single (one-word) verb form in a particular context. For example, if we start with

Ak *kiltmeklii a delmerab*. 'I cleaned up the room.'

we can replace the single verb form *kiltmeklii* as follows:

Ak *mo kutmeklii a delmerab*. 'I will clean up the room.'

Ak *mlo kutmeklii a delmerab*. 'I went to clean up the room.'

- Ak *m̄la kutmeklii* a delmerab. 'I have cleaned up the room.'
 Ak *di kutmeklii* a delmerab. 'I'm just cleaning up the room.'

By this method, all of the underlined groups of words in the sentences above can be identified as *verb phrases*.

- c. *Relational phrases* also function as entire units in providing sentences with information about the place, time, cause, etc. of an action or state. Since all relational phrases have the minimum structure (relational word) *er* + *noun*, they are necessarily phrases, not single words.
- d. To summarize, because the major structural (and conceptual) units of Palauan are *phrases*, it is possible to present the sentence patterns of 5.3 and 5.4 in a simple and condensed form.

[Question 7]

The distribution of Palauan *a* is given in terms of *noun phrase* and *verb phrase* in (1–4) of 5.4.3.b.

[Question 8]

The distinctions of tense are given in 5.5.1 through 5.5.1.4. Palauan verb forms differentiate between present tense (unmarked), past tense (marked in various ways), recent past tense (marked with *m̄la*), and future tense (marked with *mo*).

[Question 9]

Palauan imperfective verbs in the present tense convey two major types of meaning:

- a. an action in progress at the present moment—e.g., *Ke menga a ngarang?* 'What are you eating?'
- b. a habitual action or general statement—e.g., *A rechad er a Sina a menga a beras.* 'Chinese people eat rice.'

[Question 10]

As noted in 5.5.2.1, Palauan verbs of foreign origin (even action verbs) form their past tense with the auxiliary verb *m̄le* (which is usually used to form the past tense of state verbs).

[Question 11]

The phonetic variants of the Palauan *past tense marker* are summarized below:

- a. an infix *-il-/-ir-* or *-l-* occurs with:

- (1) intransitive action verbs: *milechiuaiu/mlechiuaiu*, *liluut*, *riros*
- (2) transitive action verbs—imperfective form: *milenga/mlenga*, *mirruul*
- (3) transitive action verbs—perfective form: *killii*, *dilsechii*, *rirellii*
- b. a prefix *ule-* or *ul-* occurs with the following *o*-initial verbs:
 - (1) action verbs in *o-/ou-*: *ulemail* (from *omail*), *ulusbech* (from *ousbech*)
 - (2) causative verbs in *omek-*, *ole-*, etc.: *ulemekdakt* (from *omekdakt*), *ullengeseu* (from *olengeseu*)
- c. an infix *-l-* (preceded by the vowel U) with prefix pronoun verbs (see 5.5.2.6): *kulsuub*, *lulsuub*, etc.

[Question 12]

The phonetic principle that allows us to predict when the infixed past tense marker appears as *-ir-* instead of *-il-* is very general and straightforward: *-ir-* will occur if there is an R anywhere else in the stem. Thus, in *mirruul*, *mirrasm*, and *mirrael*, the directly following verb stem begins with R. In forms like *rirebet*, *riros*, and *rirurt* (see 22), where the past tense marker *-ir-* is infixed within the verb stem itself, there is an R preceding (or both preceding and following). The perfective forms *rirellii* and *riruul* (see 23) show a similar situation, with an R of the stem preceding the infixed past tense marker.

[Question 13]

Palauan verb phrases containing the auxiliary verb *m̄la* convey two types of meaning:

- a. an action that has occurred in the recent past—e.g., *Kom m̄la ouchais er a resecheliu?* ‘Have you told your friends?’
- b. past experience—e.g., *Ke m̄la melamech a buuch?* ‘Have you ever chewed betel nut?’

[Question 14]

As explained in 5.5.4 and Note 4, the auxiliary verb *mo* combined with action or state verbs results in different interpretations:

- a. *mo* + action verb: simple future event—e.g., *Aki mo merael er a klukuk.* ‘We will leave tomorrow.’
- b. *mo* + state verb: future change of state—e.g., *Ng mo mekngit a eanged er a klukuk.* ‘The weather will get worse tomorrow.’
- c. *m̄lo* + action verb: (someone) went somewhere and performed an activity—e.g., *A rengalek a m̄lo milil er a kurangd.* ‘The children went to play at the playground.’
- d. *m̄lo* + state verb: past change of state—e.g., *Ng m̄lo smecher a rubak.* ‘The old man got sick.’

[Question 15]

The Palauan verb marker has no specific meaning that we can translate easily into English. Rather, it has a purely grammatical function—namely, to mark or identify particular words as verbs. See 5.6 for a summary of the different phonetic forms of the verb marker, together with examples.

[Question 16]

We can refer to *mechelebed* as the *basic form* of a transitive action verb when we are emphasizing its *internal structure*—i.e., verb marker + stem—and how it can be used as a basis or starting point for deriving certain other forms of transitive action verbs (e.g., imperfective and perfective forms). By contrast, we can use the term *processive form* when focusing on the *meaning* of *mechelebed*, since it has the interpretation “someone is affected by or undergoes the *process* of (hitting)”.

[Question 17]

In answering this question, students should try to follow the format of the discussion in 5.6.1-5.6.2, but they should use a new verb other than *mechelebed*. They should make reference to the characteristic features of perfective verb forms described in (1–3) of 5.6.2.

[Question 18]

The answer to this question is very straightforward: patterns of consonant alternation are summarized in (36) of 5.6.3 (with numerous examples given in 35), while cases of no consonant alternation are summarized in (38) of 5.6.3.1.

[Question 19]

There are many types of bound morphemes already observed—e.g.,

- a. *prefixes*: plural prefix *re-* or *r-* (*rengalek*, *rekebil*, etc.); prefix pronouns *ku-*, *lo-*, etc. (*kusuub*, *losuub*, etc.); verb marker prefix *me-*, *m-*, *o-* (*meruul*, *milil*, *omail*)
- b. *suffixes*: possessor suffixes *-ek*, *-em*, *-el*, etc. (*bilek*, *bilem*, *bilel*); object pronouns *-ak*, *-au*, *-ii*, etc. (*cholebedak*, *cholebedau*, *cholebedii*)
- c. *infixes*: verb marker *-m-*, *-u-*, etc. (*smecher*, *ruebet*); past tense marker *-il-*, *-l-*, etc. (*milechiuaiu*, *mlechiuaiu*)

The distinction between *independent stem* vs. *bound stem* is important in classifying subtypes of Palauan transitive action verbs:

- a. Many Palauan transitive action verbs have basic forms derived by prefixing the verb marker *me-* or *o-* to an otherwise independent noun (see the examples of 40).

- b. However, another large group of Palauan transitive action verbs shows basic forms in which the verb marker prefix precedes a bound (noun) stem (see the examples of 43).

As noted towards the end of 5.7.2, all Palauan transitive action verbs derive a full set of corresponding imperfective and perfective forms regardless of whether their basic form contains an independent or bound stem.

[Question 20]

As observed in *Note 12*, we can determine that there are two different verbs *melabek* because the related forms show different stem-initial consonants. Thus, in this case, *melabek* 'to iron (clothes)' is related to the basic form *meNGabek* and perfective forms *NGobekii*, *NGuabek*, etc., while *melabek* 'to patch' is related to the basic form *meTabek* and perfective forms *Tobekii*, *Tuabek*, etc.

[Question 21]

The relevant forms are as follows:

<i>Basic Form</i>	<i>Imperfective Form</i>	<i>Perfective Form</i> 3rd sg.	<i>Perfective Form</i> 3rd (nonhum) pl.
obail	omail	milii	mail
oboes	omoes	mosii	moes
obekall	omekall	mekellii	mekall

The relationship between the *perfective forms* and the corresponding *basic form* is really exceptional in these cases because the perfective forms do *not* share the consonant of the basic form. Instead, they share M with the *imperfective form*. This situation is the *opposite* of that observed with all other transitive action verbs (where the consonant of the perfective forms matches that of the basic form).

KEY TO EXERCISES

[5.11: Palauan Verbs: Exercises]

[Exercise 1]

- a. (1) mo melengoes 'will boil', (2) redil, (3) odoim
- b. (1) mla dosengii 'has sliced', (2) techa, (3) ngikel
- c. (1) rirecherechii 'stole', (2) chad er a ngebard, (3) bechil a sechelik
- d. (1) meriik 'are looking around for', (2) bulis, (3) rubak
- e. (1) millamech 'used to chew', (2) ak, (3) buuch

[Exercise 2]

- a. mo mengelim 'will accompany'—transitive action verb; mo 'go'—intransitive action verb
- b. me tuab '(will) come and stop'—intransitive action verb; merolung 'is about to go' (from *merael*)—intransitive action verb
- c. eko '(will) go'—intransitive action verb
- d. mle meses 'was strong'—state verb
- e. omdaol 'shake, trill'—intransitive action verb

[Exercise 3]

- a. doall '(skin) red or black-and-blue'—temporary
- b. bechiil 'married'—temporary or permanent depending on the persons involved!
- c. mellemau 'blue, green, black-and-blue'—temporary (possibly permanent)
- d. mechut 'old, decayed, spoiled'—permanent
- e. cheduakl 'bow-legged'—permanent
- f. bekngiuk 'moldy, mildewed'—permanent
- g. keritbetbechel '(surface, skin) rough or bumpy'—temporary or permanent
- h. dengerenger 'naughty, mischievous'—temporary
- i. keroke 'finished for good'—permanent
- j. meiko 'blind'—temporary or permanent
- k. bekerurau 'generous, charitable'—usually permanent, perhaps temporary
- l. beches 'new'—temporary
- m. telechib 'short, brief'—temporary
- n. beralm 'watery, (color) light'—temporary or permanent
- o. kladikm 'right-handed'—usually permanent

[Exercise 4]

The verb phrases should be rewritten in the past tense as follows:

- a. kildur
- b. mle otsir
- c. mle metitur
- d. mle mellomes
- e. uluchedeng

[Exercise 5]

Students' answers should follow the format of the example given. The perfective forms of all of the verbs in (35) can be found in the *NPED*.

[Exercise 6]

Students' answers should follow the format of the example given. The perfective forms (present and past) of all of the verbs in (38) can be found in the *NPED*.

[Exercise 7]

Possible additional verbs following the patterns of (38) would be:

- a. stem-initial L: meleng, meledes, melatk, melich
- b. stem-initial R: merusech, merus, meruul, merutech
- c. stem-initial S: mesamk, mesab, mesauch, mesarech

[Exercise 8]

A typical answer should look like this:

Example: **Basic Form:** metirem, **Imperfective Form:** merirem

Perfective Forms (Present Tense):

3rd pers. sg.: tiremii

3rd pers. nonhum. pl.: tuirem

Perfective Forms (Past Tense):

3rd pers. sg.: tirremii

3rd pers. nonhum. pl.: tilirem

The same stem-initial consonant T occurs in both the basic form and the perfective forms.

[Exercise 9]

Students' answers should follow the format of the example given. All of the relevant verb forms can be found in the *NPED*.

[Exercise 10]

Some additional sample answers for this exercise might be:

Basic Form	Bound Stem	Related Verb or Noun Form
a. mechitakl 'get sung'	-chitakl	chelitakl (n.) 'song'
b. melakl 'get buried'	-dakl	delekull (n.) 'Palauan money given at funeral'
c. mesikes '(boat) get poled'	-sikes	olikes (n.) 'pole for boat'

[Exercise 11]

A few sample answers would be:

- a. mecheseb: mil(e)cheseb, mlcheseb (with syllabic L)
- b. meka: mil(e)ka, mleka
- e. medul: mildul, mldul (with syllabic L)
- j. merot: mirrot (with *-ir-* instead of *-il-* before *r*)

SUGGESTIONS FOR ADDITIONAL ACTIVITIES

1. There are many types of details presented in this lesson that you could utilize as the subject matter of a student contest. Individual students could compete by having two minutes each at the blackboard to write down as many items that fall into a particular category—e.g.,
 - a. as many transitive action verbs that they can think of
 - b. as many basic forms (or corresponding perfective forms) that show a particular stem-initial consonant—e.g., L, D, CH, etc.
 - c. as many intransitive verbs that have an *infix* verb marker (e.g., *lmuut*, *remurt*, *tuab*, etc.)
 - d. as many verb forms that take *-ir-* or *-r-* as the past tense marker
 - e. as many state verbs indicating temporary states

2. Find a paragraph or two of written Palauan from a story, letter, textbook, etc., and have students identify all the *verb phrases* in this passage. Each verb phrase should be described in as much detail as possible: action or state verb; if an action verb, transitive vs. intransitive; if a transitive verb, perfective vs. imperfective; what tense, etc.
3. Each student in the class can be assigned a different transitive action verb. They must conjugate the verb in full, giving the basic form, the imperfective form, and all the perfective forms. Both present and past tense verb forms should be provided.

6

Teacher's Manual

PALAUAN VERB MARKER & RELATED VERB FORMS

GENERAL COMMENTS

1. Although most of the core material on Palauan verbs has been presented in Lesson Five, this lesson goes more deeply into certain issues and covers a few remaining topics relating to the meaning and interpretation of selected verb forms (e.g., *perfective* vs. *imperfective*). While many of the earlier materials are reviewed through examples and charts that students should already be quite familiar with, the approach is rather new: the verb system of Palauan is now presented by focusing on the *verb marker* and how it is realized (as a prefix or infix—or not at all!) in different groups of Palauan verbs. It is interesting to note that this lesson contains no new grammatical (or phonetic) terminology, although the expanded discussions of certain terms will definitely make earlier ideas richer and more meaningful for students. Such terms that are very much enhanced by the additional presentation in this lesson include *verb marker*, *independent* vs. *bound*, *consonant alternation*, *vowel weakening*, and *perfective* vs. *imperfective*.
2. The materials in this lesson correspond to what is presented in Chapters 6 and 12 of the PRG. Chapter 6 emphasizes both the phonetic form and distribution of the Palauan verb marker, and much of the introductory discussion there is easily made accessible to students. Quite a few sections of that chapter, however, are concerned with the underlying phonological processes by which various groups of Palauan verbs are thought to be derived. These discussions are far too technical and linguistically oriented for high school students (introducing, for example, phonetic concepts such as *metathesis*, *dissimilation*, and *vowel blending*), and therefore are totally omitted from Lesson 6. Chapter 12 of the PRG is concerned entirely with the meaning and use of Palauan perfective vs. imperfective verb forms, and many of the examples and pragmatic explanations given there have been incorporated into Lesson 6 (see Sections 6.9 to 6.9.6). A few extended discussions about contextual restrictions (see Section 12.5 of PRG Chapter 12) have been omitted because they are too long and involved, although the relevant examples have been used as several Study Questions (i.e., 21–25).
3. The most important points that students should learn in Lesson 6 are listed below:

[6.1–6.3]

- a. The Palauan *verb marker* has two major forms (prefix and infix), each with several phonetic variants. The Palauan verb marker prefix characteristically occurs in certain classes of Palauan verbs (e.g., imperfective and basic forms of transitive action verbs: *MEngelebed*, *MEchelebed*), and the verb marker infix typically occurs in certain other classes of verbs (e.g., perfective forms of transitive action verbs: *chOlebedii*). Palauan transitive action verbs involve three essential forms—namely, the basic form, the imperfective form, and the perfective forms. Most imperfective forms differ from the corresponding basic and perfective forms because of *consonant alternation*.

[6.3.2–6.3.3]

- b. There are certain groups of derived verbs that are semantically or structurally quite easy to isolate (e.g., causative verbs in *omek-*, etc. and derived verbs in *ou-*) whose prefixes most likely contain the verb marker.

[6.4–6.4.3]

- c. The verb marker infix (*-em-*, *-m-*, *-o-*, *-u-*) occurs in quite a few intransitive action verbs, as shown in (11). However, the infixed verb marker is most prominent and obvious within the *perfective* forms of transitive action verbs. It is possible to make some generalizations about how the variant phonetic forms of the infixed verb marker are distributed, as indicated in the list of (13) and the subsequent discussion in 6.4.3.

[6.6–6.7.3, including Note 7]

- d. There are quite a few interesting cases (notably, perfective verbs in the past tense—see 6.6.a.2) where the Palauan verb marker does not appear at all.

[6.8–6.8.4]

- e. The processes of *vowel weakening*, seen extensively in Lesson 3 in the derivation of possessed nouns, apply broadly in the derivation of perfective verb forms as well. Thus, we see that perfective verb forms in Palauan often demonstrate the following processes: single vowel weakening (reduction to weak E or total deletion), double vowel shortening, and vowel cluster shortening.

[6.9–6.9.6]

- f. The essential difference in meaning between perfective vs. imperfective forms (i.e., completed, finished action vs. ongoing, in-progress action) is reflected in various ways depending on the tense. Certain common verbs such as *omes* and *orrenge*s show interesting differences in meaning in their perfective vs. imperfective forms.

4. With the current lesson, students really complete the essential core material on the Palauan verb system. After mastering this material, they should have a very clear idea of what makes this system so complex and so unique. In subsequent lessons, a few remaining verb types will be discussed (state verbs, causative verbs, reciprocal verbs), but these will be very easy to present now that Lessons 5 and 6 have been completed.

SPECIFIC COMMENTS

[6.2]

1. Everything presented here is review material. Remind students that the *intransitive action verbs* in (1) can be distinguished from the *state verbs* listed there by the process of past tense formation (use of infix *-il-* vs. auxiliary word *mle*). Make sure students also understand the contrast between *independent* vs. *bound* stems.

[6.2.1]

1. Everything presented in this section, too, is review material. Using *mengelebed* as a typical example of a *transitive action verb*, we present the interrelationship between the *basic* form, the *imperfective* form, and the *perfective* forms. Remind students that we refer to *mechelebed* as a *basic* form from the viewpoint of its *internal structure* (i.e., **verb marker *me-* + noun stem**), while we use the term *processive* form when focusing on the *meaning* (i.e., the subject undergoes the *process* of hitting and *mechelebed* means 'get hit').
2. The rules of consonant alternation in imperfective forms are presented just as they were in 5.6.3. *Note 1* is a reminder that there are some exceptions or variations to the "standard" types of consonant alternation presented in (3).

[6.3]

1. All of the material here should already be familiar to students. This section covers the consonant alternation $B \rightarrow M$ that occurs in transitive action verbs with B-initial stems. The issue of stems that are independent vs. bound is brought up again after the long list in (5).
2. *Note 2* presents some new data to students as well as a new type of alternation: the vowel U or O of a stem changes to the consonant M in the imperfective form (e.g., *omades* from stem *uades*). These examples actually contribute to a useful phonetic generalization—namely, any sound involving the lips, whether it is the *bilabial* consonant B in the examples of (5) or the *lip-rounded* vowels U or O given in *Note 2*, is changed to the *bilabial* nasal consonant M when deriving the imperfective form of a transitive action verb.

3. The purpose of *Note 3* is to cover a small group of exceptions to the principles of consonant alternation. Some of the verbs in this group are quite common: *oker* 'to ask', *osiik* 'to look for', etc.

[6.3.1]

1. The B → M consonant alternation is now introduced within the group of *intransitive* action verbs. Some students may notice that intransitive action verbs with the prefixed verb marker *o-* are mentioned here for the first time. They were not included in the preliminary list given in section (b) of 5.6. *Note 4* covers a minor category of exceptions.

[6.3.2]

1. All of the causative prefixes *omek-*, *ol-*, *om-*, etc., seem to include the verb marker prefix *o-*. No new information about causative verbs is introduced here.

[6.3.3]

1. Verbs derived with the prefix *ou-* (which itself seems to contain the verb marker prefix *o-*) represent some new material for students. Students should realize that *ou-* has a range of semantic functions, from indicating possession or control over an object (as in 8) to describing an activity that involves the corresponding noun stem (as in 9). Note that *ou-* is even attached to certain nouns of foreign origin (e.g., *oustoa*, *ousidosia*, *ousibai*, *ouskuul*, *oukita*, etc.). In the examples of (10), certain verbs in *ou-* are used as *transitive* verbs (*oublai*, *oucharm*, *ousers*, *ouskuul*, and *ousbech*), while others are used as *intransitive* verbs (*oustoa* and *oukita*).

[6.4]

1. As noted in this section, intransitive action verbs with the infixed verb marker may be related to independent or bound stems. *Note 5* covers the small class of Palauan *state* verbs that contain an infixed verb marker, of which *smecher* and *kmeed* are perhaps the most common.

[6.4.1]

1. The perfective forms of Palauan transitive action verbs are probably the largest and most prominent class of verbs in which the infixed verb marker occurs. Although many of the points were already introduced in Lessons 4 and 5, it is most important for students to understand details of the following:
 - a. the internal structure of perfective verb forms, especially the suffixed *object pronoun* (which is always *stressed* except for the *zero suffix* for third person plural *nonhuman* objects);

- b. the method of deriving perfective verb forms directly from the basic form, by changing the verb marker *prefix* to an *infix* (e.g., *MEchelebed* → *chOlebedii*);
 - c. the various forms of *vowel weakening* that occur in Palauan perfective verb forms (presented extensively in 6.8 below).
2. As a preliminary example of vowel weakening, students see that the vowel between L and B of *mengelebed* (*me-nge-LE-bed*) gets pronounced as a full E because it is *stressed*, while this same vowel is reduced to a weak E in the first seven perfective forms (e.g., *cho-le-be-DAK*, *cho-le-be-DII*, etc.) because it has become unstressed. In the eighth perfective form *cho-LE-bed*, however, the vowel is again a full E because it is stressed (i.e., the *zero suffix* has not been able to “attract” the stress away from the originally stressed vowel).

[6.4.2-6.4.3]

1. The list in (13) gives numerous examples of the infixed verb marker variants as they occur in perfective verb forms. The description in (6.4.3.a–d) is an attempt to give some rules or principles governing the distribution of these variants. The major patterns proposed there are valid in the great majority of cases. The occurrence of the infixed verb marker variant *-u-* (see 13d and 6.4.3.d) is interesting because it represents the phonetic principle of *dissimilation*. In other words, the infixed U occurs within stems that already contain a B or an M precisely because an infixed verb marker with M (*-m-* or *-em-*) could *not* cooccur in the same phonetic environment. Because the stem already has a bilabial *consonant* B or M, the infixed verb marker must be as *dissimilar* as possible—therefore, it becomes the *vowel* U.

[6.5]

1. The verb marker summary presented here should be given extra emphasis. Copy it on the blackboard and leave it there while students are working on this lesson.

[6.6]

1. In examining the *past* tense forms of various Palauan verbs, we see that the verb marker occurs in three patterns:
 - a. The verb marker prefix *me-* is maintained, although the past tense marker *-il-* (or *-l-*) is infixed within it: *mengelebed* → *milengelebed*.
 - b. The verb marker prefix *o-* combines with the past tense marker to form a “blended” prefix *ule-* (or *ul-*): *omes* → *ulemes*.
 - c. The verb marker infix (in several variants) is lost altogether: *sosebii* → *silsebii* (note loss of O), *dmasech* → *dilasech* (note loss of M), *lmuut* → *liluut* (loss of M again).

[6.7-6.7.3]

1. While the verb marker is observed as a prefix or an infix in many very important classes of Palauan verbs (e.g., transitive action verbs in their basic, imperfective, and perfective forms; intransitive action verbs; causative verbs), there are other groups of verbs in which the verb marker does not appear at all. These are described in 6.7.1.a–e and in 6.7.2-3.
2. *Note 6* mentions a group of interesting exceptions, while *Note 7* makes the generalization that the verb marker infix will be deleted automatically before the vowel *i* in unstressed syllables. Students should see the connection between the data in this note and the examples presented in 6.6.a.2.

[6.8-6.8.4]

1. In these sections it is shown that the very same principles of *vowel weakening* that apply to *possessed nouns* (as first discussed in 3.3 and 3.3.1-8) also apply within *perfective* verb forms. Students should realize that the *phonetic* processes of vowel weakening are so general that they apply regardless of what part of speech or type of derivation is involved—i.e., they apply equally in the derivation of possessed nouns from noun stems (as in 15) or in the derivation of perfective verb forms from corresponding stems (as in 16–21). The subtypes of vowel weakening found in perfective verb forms are summarized below:
 - a. (6.8.1) A single full vowel is reduced to a weak *E*: see the examples of (17).
 - b. (6.8.2) A single full vowel is deleted entirely: see the examples of (18).
 - c. (6.8.3) A double vowel is shortened to the corresponding single vowel: see the examples of (19).
 - d. (6.8.4) A vowel cluster (diphthong) is shortened by the deletion of one of the vowels: see the examples of (21).

[6.9-6.9.4]

1. The material in these sections, discussed here for the first time, relates to the meaning difference between Palauan *perfective* vs. *imperfective* verb forms. In general, students should understand these contrasting terms in the following way:
 - a. *Perfective* verb forms indicate actions viewed by the speaker as finished, brought to completion, “perfected”. They always involve specific objects that are totally affected, used up, or consumed by the action involved. They designate single events as opposed to habitual or recurring actions.

- b. *Imperfective* verb forms do not view actions as completed but rather as ongoing or in progress. Any object involved will not be totally affected, used up, or consumed by the action designated by the verb. Imperfective verb forms are also appropriate for expressing general or habitual statements (especially in the present tense).
2. Most cases of contrast between perfective vs. imperfective verb forms in the past tense (see 6.9.1) are quite straightforward. Note that sentences (23b), (24b), and (25b), with *imperfective* verb forms, can be supplemented with a clause like *er se er a leme a sensei* ‘when the teacher came’. Such sentences would then mean that the particular activity designated by the imperfective verb was in progress in the past when some other (interrupting) event occurred. Comparison with English may also be helpful here. In the past tense, Palauan perfective forms usually correspond to the English simple past (*wrote, ate, cleaned*), while Palauan imperfective forms are paralleled by the English past progressive (*was writing, was eating, was cleaning*). See also the comment in *Note 8* about English verbs like *eat up, mess up*, etc.
3. For *recent past* events with the auxiliary word *m̄la* (see 6.9.2), the contrast between perfective and imperfective is similar to that observed for (remoter) past tense events in Paragraph 2 above. Therefore, perfective *m̄la rullii* (or *m̄la remuul*) would mean ‘has made [it/them—nonhuman] (completely)’, while imperfective *m̄la meruul* means ‘has been making’. As (28a–b) show, imperfective *m̄la meruul* (or *m̄la menguii*, etc.) can also convey the idea of *past experience* (“have you ever...?”).
4. The interpretation of future tense forms (*mo* + perfective verb vs. *mo* + imperfective verb) shows nothing unexpected (see 6.9.3).
5. While imperfective verb forms in the present tense (see 6.9.4) designate either a current action in progress (32) or a general or habitual statement (33), perfective verb forms in the present tense have a connotation of imminency or warning (34). As such, they are really statements about the very immediate future.
6. *Note 9* at the end of 6.9.4 is a brief attempt to relate the distribution of the specifying word *er* to the various functions of perfective and imperfective verb forms. You may wish to review 2.7.4 if students are hazy on this point.

[6.9.5-6.9.6]

1. These two sections simply present two very common Palauan transitive action verbs—*omes* and *orrenge*s—and discuss the range of meanings covered by their perfective and imperfective forms.

KEY TO STUDY QUESTIONS

[6.11: The Palauan Verb Marker: Study Questions]

[Question 1]

Since all of the terms in 6.10 are repeated from earlier lessons, you may want to have students give definitions (and illustrations) orally in class. This is also a good opportunity for a review quiz.

[Question 2]

Prefix *me-*, *m-*, or *o-* (*o-* blended with past tense marker to form *ule-*); infix *-em-*, *-m-*, *-o-*, or *-u-* (after first consonant of the stem).

[Question 3]

This interrelationship is explained carefully in 5.6.1 and again in 6.2.1, using the sample transitive action verb *mechelebed* (basic form), *mengelebed* (imperfective form), and *cholebedak*, *cholebedii*, etc. (perfective forms).

[Question 4]

These are the basic forms of transitive action verbs and have the fundamental structure **verb marker ME- + noun stem**. Again, the term *basic form* focuses on the *internal structure*, while the term *processive form* refers to the *meaning* (e.g., *mechelebed* 'get hit', *medul* 'get sunburned', etc.).

[Question 5]

Most imperfective forms are derived from the corresponding basic form by a rule of *consonant alternation*—see (3) in 6.2.1.

[Question 6]

- a. With the basic form (*mla*) *mengim*, the focus is on the party drinks and the fact that they have undergone the process of getting consumed.
- b. With imperfective (*mla*) *melim*, the focus is on the doer (subject) and what action the doer performed on the object (*ilumel*).

[Question 7]

All details are immediately found in 6.3.2. The causative prefix does contain the verb marker *o-*.

[Question 8]

See 6.4 for all details. Students should mention that the verb marker infixes *-em-*, *-m-*, *-o-*, and *-u-* occur in *intransitive action verbs*, the *perfective* forms of *transitive action verbs*, and a few *state verbs*.

[Question 9]

These are all *intransitive action verbs* formed from a noun stem by infixing the verb marker. The stems *chiis*, *luut*, and *rebet* are independent, while *ngelt-* is bound (must occur as an obligatorily possessed noun *ngeltel*).

[Question 10]

With full E, the syllable in question is *stressed*, while with weak E it has become *unstressed*. In the perfective forms *cholebedak*, etc., the *object pronoun suffix* is automatically stressed.

[Question 11]

There is a reasonable degree of predictability. See 6.4.3 for all details.

[Question 12]

Not necessarily. The verb marker is lost completely before the infixed past tense marker *-il-* in (a) perfective verb forms (e.g., *dilsechii*, *lilengir*, etc.) and (b) in intransitive action verbs (e.g., *liluut*, *chiliis*, etc.).

[Question 13]

These are all listed in 6.7.1.a–e. The reciprocal verbs in 6.7.2 (which act like state verbs in that they use the auxiliary word *mle* in the past tense—e.g., *mle kautoketok*) also show no verb marker.

[Question 14]

Just as in the case of possessed nouns (e.g., *kar* → *ker-UL*), where the possessor suffix is always stressed, in perfective verb forms (e.g., *mechelebed* → *cho-le-be-DII*) the object pronoun suffix is always part of a stressed syllable. Vowel weakening occurs in both of these classes of words when an originally stressed vowel or vowel cluster becomes unstressed due to the addition of the suffix, which always “draws away” the stress.

[Question 15]

A single (full) vowel is either reduced to a weak E or is deleted altogether; a double vowel is reduced to the corresponding single vowel; and a vowel cluster is shortened by the deletion of one of its vowels.

[Question 16]

Vowel weakening always occurs when a vowel or vowel cluster becomes unstressed (loses its stress). This happens when an automatically stressed suffix is added, as is the case with the first seven perfective forms. In the eighth perfective form, however, the zero suffix has no phonetic content and therefore no ability to affect (attract) stress. For this reason, vowels and vowel clusters are never weakened in the eighth perfective form (for third person plural nonhuman object).

[Question 17]

See the Specific Comments on 6.9 in the section above, where a condensed answer to this question is given.

[Question 18]

The two sentences do differ in meaning. Sentence (a), with imperfective *menga*, is a general question about whether the person addressed is able to eat fish. As such, it could be uttered at any time. By contrast, sentence (b), with perfective *kolii*, is a question about whether the person addressed can finish eating (i.e., eat up) some particular fish entirely. Therefore, it could only be uttered in a specific situation (e.g., at the dinner table) when the fish is actually available.

[Question 19]

Sentence (a) refers to past experience and has a general object: "Have you (ever) smoked cigarettes?" Sentence (b), however, refers to a single event and has a specific object connected with that event: "Have you smoked your cigarette?" The perfective form (*mle*) *chomechii* in (b) is appropriate because it implies that a specific object (*chemelem el dekol*) was entirely consumed. By contrast, imperfective (*mle*) *melamech* in (a) does not involve a specific object and therefore implies the smoking of cigarettes in general.

[Question 20]

Perfective verb forms in the present tense imply imminent action, warnings, or precautionary suggestions. See (34a–c) in 6.9.4.

[Question 21]

Sentence (b) makes no sense because it involves a *contradiction*: while perfective (*mle*) *chueuii* would imply that I have finished reading the book, the second clause (*eng di...*) claims just the opposite—namely, that I have *not* finished reading it yet!

[Question 22]

Because imperfective *milengiis* in (a) focuses on the action of digging as it was going on (proceeding) in the past, it is quite compatible to state the period of time (7 a.m. to 9 a.m.) during which the ongoing activity took place. In (b), however, perfective *kilisii* focuses on the completion of the activity, and therefore an expression denoting a single point in time (i.e., the moment of completion) would be more appropriate than one describing a period of time.

[Question 23]

- a. 'I was reading the book when Toki arrived.'
- b. 'I had read the book when Toki arrived.'

In (a), I was still in the process of reading the book at the moment of Toki's arrival, while in (b) I had already finished reading the book by that time.

[Question 24]

- a. 'I'd like to see (and talk with) the priest.'
- b. 'I'd like to get a look at/catch a glimpse of the priest.'

In (a), my intentions are more serious: I would like to meet the priest and have an opportunity to talk with him. In (b), however, my intentions are more casual: I would just like to see what the priest looks like (as he walks by, etc.).

[Question 25]

- a. 'I came here to see (and talk with) your father.'
- b. 'I didn't have a chance to get a look at the animals.'
- c. 'Did you (happen to) hear the thunder last night?'
- d. 'Were you listening to the radio yesterday?'
- e. 'Would you like to hear (a little) news about (what) Toki (did) when she went to Japan?'

KEY TO EXERCISES

[6.12: The Palauan Verb Marker: Exercises]

Note: Because Lesson 6 contains a lot of review material, many exercises from Lesson 5 would also be useful here as review exercises. See especially Lesson 5, Exercises 5–10.

[Exercise 1]

Additional sample answers:

- remiid:* (a) intransitive action verb (past tense: *ririid*)
 (b) verb marker is infix *-em-*
 (c) *riid* is an independent noun stem meaning 'departure, action of getting lost'
- otikereker:* (a) state verb (past tense: *mle otikereker*)
 (b) verb marker is prefix *o-*
 (c) *-tikereker* is a bound stem occurring only in this verb
- smingd:* (a) state verb (past tense: *mle smingd*)
 (b) verb marker is infix *-m-*
 (c) *singd* is a bound stem occurring only in this verb and in the intransitive verb *oumesingd*
- tuubokl:* (a) intransitive action verb (past tense: *tilubokl*)
 (b) verb marker is infix *-u-*
 (c) *tubokl* is a bound stem occurring in this verb and in *melubokl*, *oltubokl*, etc.

[Exercise 2]

Additional sample answers:

- | | | | |
|---------------------|------------------------|-------------------------------------------|---------------------------|
| <i>melechemakl:</i> | (a) <i>metechemakl</i> | (b) <i>tuchemeklii</i> , <i>tuchemakl</i> | (c) T → L |
| <i>omedikl:</i> | (a) <i>obedikl</i> | (b) <i>medeklii</i> , <i>medikl</i> | (c) B → M |
| <i>mengiut:</i> | (a) <i>mekiut</i> | (b) <i>kiuetii</i> , <i>kmiut</i> | (c) K → NG |
| <i>meringet</i> | (a) <i>meringet</i> | (b) <i>ringetii</i> , <i>reminget</i> | (c) no alternation |

[Exercise 3]

Additional sample answers:

- bail:* noun, 'clothing'; *oubail* 'to wear (clothing)'
- beketekoi:* state verb, 'talkative'; *oubeketekoi* 'to talk constantly about (something)'
- chais:* noun, 'news'; *ouchais* 'to inform, announce, report'
- dengerenger:* state verb, 'naughty, mischievous'; *oudengerenger* 'to misbehave'

[Exercise 4]

Additional sample answers:

- chualb*: (a) 3rd pers. pl. nonhum. obj.
 (b) verb marker: infix *-u-*
 (c) *mengalb* 'to whittle (wood), strip off (betel nut fiber)'
 (d) CH → NG
- tikuii*: (a) 3rd pers. sg. obj.
 (b) verb marker is absent
 (c) *meliko* 'to hold in (open) palm of hand'
 (d) T → L
- kosadel*: (a) 3rd pers. pl. nonhum. obj.
 (b) verb marker: infix *-o-*
 (c) *mengesadel* 'to decrease amount of'
 (d) K → NG
- mertii*: (a) 3rd pers. sg. obj.
 (b) verb marker is absent (Note: the *me* of *mertii* is part of the stem—cf. basic form *obart*, imperfective *omart*)
 (c) *omart* 'to hide'
 (d) B → M

[Exercise 5]

The verb marker is always deleted before the past tense infix *-il-* (or *-ir-*) in perfective verb forms. Here are some typical examples:

choremeklii—chirremeklii	kolii—killii
chualb—chilalb	ngmai—ngilai
tmiko—tiliko	sueseb—sileseb
smodii—silodii	

[Exercise 6]

Additional sample answers:

1. (c): vowel cluster AI reduces to I
2. (a): single vowel U is deleted
7. (b): double vowel EE shortens to E
10. (c): vowel cluster EA reduces to E
13. (a): single vowel I is deleted
20. (b): double vowel UU shortens to U

SUGGESTIONS FOR ADDITIONAL ACTIVITIES

1. Give students a selected text in Palauan and have them identify and isolate each verb form. For every verb form that they have discovered, students should give as complete an analysis as possible by answering questions such as the following:
 - a. What is the verb type? (transitive action, intransitive action, state, causative, etc.)
 - b. What is the form of the verb marker, if any?
 - c. What is the tense of the verb, and how does this particular verb derive its past tense?
 - d. If it is a transitive action verb, what is the basic form, the imperfective form, and the perfective forms?
 - e. If it is an imperfective form, what consonant alternation is observed, if any, between the imperfective form and the basic form?
 - f. If it is a perfective form, what process of vowel or vowel cluster weakening is observed, if any?
2. Have students look through the *NPED* and choose 10 to 15 verbs at random. Each verb should then be analyzed by answering questions such as those presented in Suggestion 1 above. Students should look for verbs with the (verb marker) prefixes *me-*, *o-*, and *ou-*, as well as for causative verbs with *omek-*, *ol-*, etc. They should also include state verbs with the prefixes *be-*, *beke-*, *seke-*, etc.
3. Have students write a one- or two-page essay about what they feel is really unusual or unique about the Palauan verb system. This question could also be a topic of class discussion, with students' ideas being listed on the blackboard.
4. Coordinate with the English teacher and arrange for him or her to do a comparative study of English and Palauan grammar in that class. Now that students have an extensive knowledge of Palauan verbs, it would be useful to compare English and Palauan on such issues as (a) transitive vs. intransitive verbs, (b) system of verb tenses, (c) methods of forming the past tense (e.g., English uses suffix *-ed* as in *work—worked* or internal vowel alternation as in *run—ran*), (d) how to express ideas of *causative*, *reciprocal*, etc., in the verb system, and so on.

7

Teacher's Manual PALAUAN STATE VERBS

GENERAL COMMENTS

1. The materials in this lesson, though presented in a somewhat different order, correspond to the content of PRG Chapter 7. The main purpose of this lesson is to give students a complete picture of Palauan *state verbs*. Because the important contrast between *state verbs* and *action verbs* has already been introduced (e.g., in 5.3), students should have no difficulty with this lesson, which focuses more narrowly on the various types of Palauan state verbs and clarifies their *meaning* and *internal structure*.
2. In terms of new information, the most important sections of this lesson are those dealing with *resulting state verbs* (7.7, 7.7.1–2) and *expected state verbs* (7.8, 7.8.1–2, 7.8.2.1–5, 7.8.3). These two types of state verb complete the wide range of forms that are associated with *transitive action verbs*. Thus, in addition to *mengatech* (basic form), *melatech* (imperfective), and *ngotechii*, *ngmatech*, etc. (perfective), we now have *nglatech*, *ngeltachel* (resulting state forms) and *ngetachel*, *ngetechall* (expected state forms). You may wish to take several common transitive action verbs and make sure that students can readily produce the five categories of forms given here for *mengatech*—i.e., basic, imperfective, perfective, resulting state, and expected state.
3. Although most of the terminology needed to explain Palauan state verbs (see the list of terms in 7.14) is fairly straightforward, one major change has been made. Whereas the PRG and the NPED both use the term *anticipating state verb* for forms like *ngetachel* or *ngetechall*, in this textbook we have substituted the term *expected* (or *required*) *state verb*, which is easier to explain to students. Similarly, we use *expected state suffix* rather than *anticipating state suffix* for *-el*, *-uul*, *-all*, etc.
4. Several ideas from earlier lessons are particularly important in the analysis of Palauan state verbs. If students are not totally familiar with the following, be sure to define the terms and review the ideas with examples or illustrations:
 - a. Most state verbs are complex in the sense that they contain two or more *morphemes* (meaning-bearing units). In addition, the structure of such complex forms always consists of a *stem* (which may be *independent* or *bound*) to which a *prefix*, *infix*, or

suffix is attached. Furthermore, the *verb marker* (in *prefix* or *infix* form) plays a big role in the internal structure of many Palauan state verbs.

- b. All state verbs form their *past tense* by using the *auxiliary word* *mle*.
 - c. In Palauan expected state verbs, we observe the entire range of *vowel weakening* processes, which are of course directly related to the position of the *stressed syllable*.
5. The most important points, both old and new, that students should learn from this lesson are summarized below:
- a. As noted in (2) above, most Palauan transitive action verbs have a network of interrelated forms: basic, imperfective, perfective, resulting state, and expected state.
 - b. See the points in (4a–c) above.
 - c. *Complex state verbs* (those with at least two morphemes) fall into the following major categories (see the summary in 39b–h):
 1. contain *verb marker* as prefix (*meched*) or infix (*kmeed*)
 2. use *beke-*, *seke-*, *be-* (all with specialized meanings)
 3. indicate *resulting state* (*nglatech*)
 4. indicate *expected state* (*ngetachel*)
 - d. A small group of state verbs (see 7.4) use the verb marker prefix to indicate *plural* (*mechetngaid*).
 - e. *Resulting state verbs* (see 7.7) focus on the *recipient* of an action and describe the state that the recipient is in as a *result* of the action's having been performed.
 - f. *Expected state verbs* (see 7.8) also focus on the recipient of an action, but not in terms of a state the recipient is already in. Rather, the recipient (person or thing) is “waiting” to undergo the particular action or process—i.e., it is *expected* or *required* that the recipient will be affected by the action in the near future.
 - g. Just as the phonetic processes of *vowel weakening* applied to Palauan possessed nouns and to the perfective forms of transitive action verbs (see 3.3, 3.3.1–8, 4.9.3, 6.8), they also apply in the derivation of *expected state verbs*. It is easy to find cases in which each of the major types of vowel weakening occurs within expected state verbs—i.e.,
 1. a single vowel reduces to weak E
 2. a single vowel deletes entirely
 3. a double vowel shortens
 4. a vowel cluster shortens

- h. In expected state verbs formed with the suffix *-el* (where the syllable directly preceding *-el* is always *stressed*), an unexpected *full vowel* often appears in the stressed syllable (see 7.8.3). The linguistic explanation for this, though quite interesting, is rather abstract, since it involves setting up “underlying stems” (see *Note 8*).
- i. As will be seen in greater detail in Lesson 8, many Palauan *resulting state verbs* and *expected state verbs* can also function as *nouns*.
- j. As seen in 7.11, Palauan has an interesting derivational process in which transitive action verbs are formed from simple (or complex) state verbs (e.g., *mengikiongel* from *kikiongel*).

SPECIFIC COMMENTS

[7.1]

- 1. In this introductory section, we review various facts about state verbs already presented in earlier lessons: the *meaning* of state verbs (as opposed to action verbs), the relevance of the distinction *transitive* vs. *intransitive*, the use of *mle* for past tense, the use of the *verb marker*, and so on.

[7.2-7.3]

- 1. In 7.2 we give examples of *simple* state verbs, which consist of a single morpheme and do not show any evidence of containing the verb marker. By contrast, in 7.3 we look at various *complex* state verbs that consist of two (or more) morphemes, one of which is the *stem* and the other a form of the verb marker (as prefix or infix). As expected, when the Palauan verb marker occurs as part of a state verb, it may be attached either to an *independent* or a *bound* stem.

[7.4]

- 1. This section introduces a new, but rather limited grammatical phenomenon—i.e., the use of the verb marker prefix *me-* to indicate *plural* with a small number of state verbs that designate size, dimension, or certain other qualities (as seen in *Note 1* at the end of 7.4).

[7.5-7.5.4]

- 1. A lot of data is presented here to illustrate the use of the prefixes *beke-* and *seke-* (each with phonetic variants) to derive state verbs that fall into several meaning categories. Thus, state verbs prefixed with *beke-* or *seke-* can refer to (1) *habit*, *tendency*, or *frequency*, (2) *ability* or *skill*, or (3) various types of *smells* (*beke-* only). Further points of interest relating to *beke-* and *seke-* are as follows:

- a. These prefixes can be attached either to independent stems, as in (9), or to bound stems, as in (10).
- b. It is impossible to predict whether a given stem will be prefixed with *beke-* or *seke-*, or even both. Furthermore, we cannot necessarily predict whether a given state verb formed with *beke-* or *seke-* will refer to the first meaning category (habit, tendency) or the second (ability, skill), although it is easy to recognize when such an item refers to a type of smell.
- c. As mentioned in *Note 2*, if both *beke-* and *seke-* can be attached to one and the same stem, there is often no difference in meaning. However, *Note 5* brings up a few interesting cases in which there is in fact a contrast between the first meaning category (habit, tendency) and the second (ability, skill). You should reassure students that there is a lot of variation among native speakers in this area of state verb derivation.
- d. *Reduplication* is also a factor in the derivation of some state verbs with *beke-* and *seke-* (see 7.5.3).

[7.6]

1. In this section, we present a small class of Palauan state verbs derived with the prefix *be-*. This derivational process is very straightforward.

[7.7]

1. *Resulting state verbs* are very important because (1) they occur quite frequently in Palauan and (2) they are part of a closely-knit network of forms associated with *transitive action verbs*. As noted in General Comment 2 above, you should emphasize to students that Palauan transitive action verbs have five major interrelated forms, as follows:
 - a. Basic form: *mengatech* 'gets cleaned'
 - b. Imperfective form: *melatech* 'to clean'
 - c. Perfective forms: *ngotechii* 'cleans it (completely)', *ngmatech* 'cleans them (nonhuman) (completely)'
 - d. Resulting state form: *nglatech*, *ngeltachel* 'cleaned'
 - e. Expected state form: *ngetachel*, *ngetechall* 'is to be/should be cleaned'
2. If you apply the explanation in the second paragraph of 7.7 to the various examples given in (15–18), students should understand the function and meaning of Palauan resulting state verbs.

[7.7.1]

1. The phonetic features of resulting state verbs presented here should pose no problem. Make sure that students understand why a resulting state form and its corresponding *basic* form (as opposed to the *imperfective* form) share the same stem-initial consonant (e.g., the K of *klimd* and *mekimd*). The various observations made in (a–e) and *Note 6* point to interesting phonetic phenomena, but nothing surprising or strange to students at this point.

[7.7.2]

1. The resulting state forms of causative verbs will be brought up again in the lesson on Palauan causative verbs.

[7.8]

1. As mentioned earlier, we are using the new term *expected state verb* (or *required state verb*) instead of the PRG and NPED term *anticipating state verb* (abbreviated V.A.S. in NPED entries). The main purpose of this introductory section is to explain the meaning and illustrate the use of such verb forms.

[7.8.1]

1. Expected state verbs are the most complicated type of state verb from the phonetic point of view. As indicated in (23), there are six major variants of the expected state suffix. The patterns are competing with each other to some extent, as quite a few verbs show two alternate expected state forms.

[7.8.2, 7.8.2.1–5]

1. One of the most striking features of expected state verbs is that they exhibit the very same processes of *vowel weakening* found in other parts of Palauan grammar (e.g., in the possessed forms of nouns, in perfective verb forms, etc.). It is important for students to realize that the processes of vowel weakening observed here are very general and apply “across the board” in many categories of words. These processes are one of the really unique aspects of the Palauan phonetic (phonological) system.
2. The processes of vowel weakening found in Palauan expected state verbs are presented according to the format of 6.8 and 6.8.1–4, where the identical processes are illustrated for perfective verb forms. You should spend time analyzing specific examples from (25) to (29), where the following subtypes of vowel weakening (always in *unstressed* syllables) are presented: (1) a single vowel reduces to weak E or deletes entirely; (2) a double vowel shortens to the corresponding single vowel; and (3) a vowel cluster (diphthong) shortens to a single vowel.

3. *Note 7* at the end of 7.8.2.4 introduces an interesting alternation between the consonants S and K that is found in expected state verbs and certain other derived words.

[7.8.3.1]

1. This section makes students aware of the interesting appearance of certain full vowels in the stressed syllables of expected state verbs in *-el*. Upon initial analysis, it seems as if the vowel A of *ngetachel* (*nge-TA-chel*) or the vowel O of *sesobel* (*se-SO-bel*) is “unexpected” or unpredictable, and you may wish to leave the discussion at this level. However, some students may be interested and challenged by the “deeper” explanation in *Note 8*, where the appearance of A and O in forms like *ngetachel* and *sesobel* is explained in terms of theoretical “underlying (or abstract) stems”. Although this approach really gets to the heart of how Palauan phonetic processes “generate” the actual pronunciation of words, it is probably too advanced for most students, and you will most likely choose to skip the entire contents of this note. See *PRG*, section 7.8, pgs. 183–4, for additional analysis.
2. *Note 9* introduces the idea that certain resulting state verbs and expected state verbs can also function as nouns, sometimes with rather specialized meanings. It is also pointed out that some state verbs can also be formed by simultaneously attaching both the resulting state infix *-(e)l-* and the expected state suffix *-el* to the same stem (e.g., *ngeltachel*). More information will be presented in Lesson 8.

[7.9]

1. Students are already familiar with the distinction in past tense formation exhibited by action verbs (which infix *-il-* or *-l-*) as opposed to state verbs (which use the auxiliary word *mle*). In this section, we examine a small number of verbs that are “sitting on the fence”—i.e., which have past tense forms indicating that they can be used either as action verbs (e.g., *milkar*) or as state verbs (e.g., *mle mekar*). Most students should agree with the semantic interpretation of the pairs in (30) and (31), but this is a somewhat difficult area where some differences in usage are found among native speakers. See also *PRG*, *Note 3* (for Chapter 7), Page 501.

[7.10]

1. In this section, the small group of *transitive state verbs* is presented, together with sentence examples.

[7.11]

1. This section covers a derivational process by which transitive action verbs such as *mengikiong* ‘to make (something) dirty’ are formed from state verbs (*kikiong* ‘dirty’). The phonetic details involved (consonant alternation, vowel weakening) should already be totally familiar to students.

[7.12]

1. The material in this section—the prefix pronoun forms of state verbs—is given for purposes of completeness. The grammatical discussion uses familiar terms and should be easy for students to grasp.

[7.13]

1. This summary of the different types of Palauan state verbs could be written on the blackboard, with students responsible for changing the examples on a daily basis.

KEY TO STUDY QUESTIONS

[7.15: Palauan State Verbs: Study Questions]

[Question 1]

Because most of the terms in the list of 7.14 have already been defined and illustrated in previous lessons, only the new terms will be presented here:

- a. *Complex state verb*: As opposed to a simple state verb, a complex state verb is one that contains two (or more) morphemes—a stem plus a prefix, suffix, or infix. Based on this definition, all of the following types of state verbs are complex:
 - (1) state verbs containing the verb marker as prefix (*mekngit*) or infix (*smecher*)
 - (2) state verbs prefixed with *beke-* (*bekerurt*) or *seke-* (*sekerurt*)
 - (3) state verbs prefixed with *be-* (*betimel*)
 - (4) resulting state verbs (*nglatech*)
 - (5) expected state verbs (*ngetachel*)
- b. *Resulting state verb* and *resulting state infix*: Resulting state verbs are derived from the stems of corresponding transitive action verbs by inserting the resulting state infix *-el-* or *-l-* after the initial consonant of the stem. Resulting state verbs are used to focus on the recipient of an action (which will be the sentence subject) and indicate the state which the recipient (a person or thing) is in as a result of the action's having been performed. *Example*: *chellebed* (cf. basic *mechelebed* 'get hit', imperfective *mengelebed* 'to hit') means that someone is in the state of having been hit.
- c. *Expected state verb* and *expected state suffix*: Expected (or required) state verbs are derived from the stems of corresponding transitive action verbs by adding the expected state suffix, which has the variant forms *-(e)l*, *-iil*, *-uul*, *-all*, etc. Expected state verbs are used when the recipient (which will be the sentence subject) is expected or required to undergo a particular process or action in the near future. *Example*: *ngetechall* (cf.

basic *mengatech* 'get cleaned', imperfective *melatech* 'to clean') means that something is to be cleaned, needs to be cleaned, should be cleaned, and so on.

- d. *Underlying (or abstract) stem* (only necessary to define if you will ask students to study Note 8): An underlying stem is a special theoretical form set up so that we can predict all of the actually-occurring forms of a given verb. The underlying stem will normally contain all the full vowels that turn up in one form or another of the verb. The actually-occurring form can be produced ("generated") by applying the rules of vowel weakening to the underlying stem. Of course, the position of the stressed syllable is essential.

Example: the underlying stem for "burn" is SESOB.

1. In *meseseb* (basic form), *meleseb* (imperfective form), etc., the stress is on the second syllable: *me-SE-seb*, *me-LE-seb*. Therefore, the E of the underlying stem remains *full*, while the O of the underlying stem is reduced to a *weak E* because it is unstressed.
2. In *sesobel* (expected state form), the stress occurs on the syllable before the suffix *-el*: *se-SO-bel*. Therefore, the O of the underlying stem remains as a full vowel, while the E of the underlying stem is reduced to a *weak E* because it is unstressed.

[Question 2]

In general, state verbs describe (temporary or permanent) states, conditions, or qualities, while action verbs describe actions, activities, or events.

[Question 3]

Yes. While the great majority of state verbs are intransitive, there is a very small group of transitive state verbs: *medenge(i)*, *medakt*, *meduch*, and *metitur*. See 7.1.a.2 and 7.10.

[Question 4]

The major difference is in the method of past tense formation: infix *-il-* for action verbs vs. auxiliary word *mle* for state verbs. See 7.1.b.1.

[Question 5]

The definition and examples are given in 7.2.

[Question 6]

Examples with bound stems are given in (2), while examples with independent stems are given in (3).

[Question 7]

The phonetic variants of the verb marker infix are *-m-*, *-em-*, *-o-*, and *-u-*. See (4) for examples.

[Question 8]

The concept of plural applies only to a very restricted group of Palauan state verbs. If the sentence subject is plural, a state verb of size or dimension modifying the subject must “agree”. This agreement is shown by prefixing the verb marker *me-*, which in this special situation designates plurality. See 7.4 and *Note 1* for additional discussion.

[Question 9]

The main categories of meaning covered by *beke-* and *seke-* are (a) habit, tendency, or frequent pursuit, (b) ability or skill, and (c) smell. See 7.5.1–7.5.4 for examples.

[Question 10]

While the majority of words formed with *beke-* and *seke-* involve independent stems, there are nevertheless quite a few cases with bound stems, as indicated in (10) of 7.5.1.

[Question 11]

State verbs derived with the prefix *be-* usually describe states or conditions characterized by the presence (often in excess) of what the associated noun refers to. See 7.6 for examples and further discussion.

[Question 12]

Resulting state verbs exhibit the general meaning “someone or something (the recipient) is currently in a particular state or condition as a result of having undergone some process or action”. The following sentence, in which the recipient is the subject, illustrates the typical usage of resulting state forms:

A ulaol a nglatech. ‘The floor has been cleaned/is clean.’

See (16–18) of 7.7.

[Question 13]

Sentence (a) is a normal transitive sentence (with an imperfective verb form: *meluches*) in which more or less equal focus is placed on the doer (*sensei*) and the recipient (*babier*) of the action. In (b), however, with the resulting state verb *lluches*, strong focus is put on the recipient (*babier*) and the state which it is in (“written”) as a result of someone

having carried out the action involved. The focus on the recipient in sentences like (b) is enhanced by the fact that the doer is not even mentioned at all.

[Question 14]

As indicated in 7.7.1, the resulting state infix is normally *-l-* or *-el-* (but note that *-r-* is also possible when the verb stem begins with R, as in *rruul*). Resulting state verbs are derived by inserting *-l-* or *-el-* after the first consonant of the verb stem, which can always be determined by checking the basic form of the corresponding transitive action verb. Therefore, a resulting state verb and its related basic form will always share the same stem-initial consonant (e.g., *chelsbreber*—*mechesbreber*, *teluk*—*metuk*, and so on).

[Question 15]

As illustrated by the forms in (20) of 7.7.2, the resulting state forms of causative verbs are derived by replacing the first vowel and consonant of the causative prefix by *ul-* (or *ur-* before an R).

[Question 16]

Expected state verbs have the general meaning “someone or something is expected or required to undergo a particular process or action in the near future”. English equivalents are numerous: e.g., we can translate *ngetachel* as “should be cleaned, must be cleaned, is to be cleaned, ought to be cleaned, needs to be cleaned, etc.” The following sentence is typical, where the subject of the expected state verb is the person or thing expected to undergo the process:

A ulaol a ngetachel. ‘The floor ought to be cleaned.’

Note that strong focus is placed on the subject (the potential recipient of the action) and that the doer is not mentioned at all.

[Question 17]

All of the variants of the expected state suffix are listed with examples and phonetic characteristics in (23a–c) of 7.8.1.

[Question 18]

The well-known processes of vowel weakening apply broadly to Palauan expected state verbs. These processes always occur in an unstressed syllable. Numerous examples illustrating the four types of weakening (a–d) can be found in the lists of 7.8.2.1–5.

[Question 19]

You may wish to omit this question if you are not having students read *Note 8* in 7.8.3. In order to explain the appearance of such vowels as A and O in the expected state forms *ngetachel* and *sesobel*, linguists would propose setting up “underlying stems” such as those described in *Note 8*.

[Question 20]

Some examples are given in *Note 9*.

[Question 21]

A verb like *mekar* must be analyzed as an action verb in some cases and a state verb in others. Thus, its English equivalents will be different depending on whether we are referring to an action (*milkar* ‘woke up’) or a state (*mle mekar* ‘was awake’).

[Question 22]

Quite a few transitive action verbs (which often have a causative meaning) can be derived from the stems of state verbs. The imperfective forms of such verbs are derived by prefixing the verb marker *me-* to the state verb stem and carrying out the proper consonant alternation. See (34) and (36) of 7.11 for examples.

[Question 23]

The rules for attaching prefix pronouns to state verbs depend on the form of the original state verb (i.e., simple vs. complex, prefixed vs. infix verb marker). See 7.12 for details and examples.

KEY TO EXERCISES

[7.16: Palauan State Verbs: Exercises]

[Exercise 1]

Additional Sample Answers:

klebokel—Type (a); simple state verb

melusech—Type (b); complex state verb with verb marker prefix *me-* + stem *lusech*

chedereder—Type (c); resulting state verb; resulting state infix *-l-* is inserted into (bound) stem *chedereder* (cf. basic form *mechedereder* and imperfective form *mengedereder*)

kedall—Type (d); expected state verb; expected state suffix *-all* is added to (bound) stem *kad* (cf. basic form *mekad* and imperfective form *mengad*)

[Exercise 2]

When students write their own sentences, they should pay attention to the following details from particular examples:

- a. The *existential state verb* *ngar* (past tense: *m̄la*) must always be used in a sentence with a *locational phrase*—e.g., *A buik a ngar er a sers*.
- b. *metitur* is a *transitive state verb* and therefore requires an object.
- c. *mekeherei* is plural and must cooccur with a plural subject.
- f. *teloadel* is a *resulting state verb* whose subject designates the recipient of the action. The doer of the (completed) action will not be expressed.
- g. *smechekill* is an *anticipating state verb* whose subject is the person or thing expected to undergo the action. The doer of the (future) action will not be expressed.
- h. *klemudel* contains both the *resulting state infix -le-* (a rare phonetic variant) and the *expected state suffix -el*. Even so, it functions normally as a *resulting state verb*.

[Exercise 3]

Students should have no difficulty finding additional items. See the *NPED*, pgs. 11–13 and 301–2.

[Exercise 4]

Examples of reduplicated syllables: *li* of *bekelilangel*, *sel* of *beheselsel*, etc. Additional examples can be found in the *NPED*, pgs. 11–13 and 301–2.

[Exercise 5]*Sample answers:*

mengoir: kloir '(hair, etc.) evened out by cutting'
 meremech: rremech 'squeezed out, grasped'
 mesibech: selibech '(branches, etc.) broken off'
 mengisois: chelisois '(things) piled up one on top of the other'

[Exercise 6]*Sample answers:*

mengoir: (no regularly occurring expected state form)
 meremech: remachel, remechall 'is to be squeezed out/grasped'
 mesibech: sbochel '(branches, etc.) are to be broken off'
 mengisois: chisisiiall '(things) are to be piled up one on top of the other'

[Exercise 7]*Sample answers:*

meleng—lengiil: Type (a). Full E in second syllable of *meleng* is reduced to weak E when unstressed in *lengiil* (*le-NGIIL*).
 oburech—brechall: Type (b). Vowel U is deleted in expected state form.
 metooch—tochall: Type (c). Double vowel OO is shortened to O in expected state form.
 mechedermaot—chedermotall: Type (d). Vowel cluster AO is shortened to the single vowel O in expected state form.

[Exercise 8]*Additional examples:*

- a. klou → menglou 'to enlarge, amplify'

Sample sentence: Ng sebechem el kilungii a ngerel a tibi?
 'Can you turn up the volume of the TV?'

- b. chuodel → menguodel 'to pretend to be old'

Sample sentence: Ngara uchul me ke di menguodel er kau?
 'Why are you pretending to be old?'

[Exercise 9]

Additional sample answers:

- a. omoes—beakl: vowel cluster OE changes to EA.
- b. olengeseu—ngesoal, ngesuill: in the first alternant, vowel cluster EU changes to OA; in the second alternant, EU reduces to U before suffix *-ill* is added (simple vowel cluster reduction).

[Exercise 10]

Sample answers:

melechudech—dechudech: consonant alternation D → L

mengedeb—kedeb: consonant alternation K → NG

mengesa(ng)—mechesa(ng): consonant alternation CH → NG

[Exercise 11]

Sample answers:

kikingelii: no apparent verb marker; original vowel cluster IO of *mengikiongəl* has been reduced to single vowel I (in unstressed syllable)

kolekeltii: infix verb marker *-o-* inserted after stem-initial consonant; original full vowel O of *mekelekolt* has been reduced to weak E (in unstressed syllable)

SUGGESTIONS FOR ADDITIONAL ACTIVITIES

1. Select a Palauan text (from a written legend, story, etc.) and have students locate all the state verbs found in it. Each state verb should be analyzed as completely as possible. Is it a simple or complex state verb? If complex, what is the internal structure (stem + prefix, infix, or suffix)? If a resulting state verb or an expected state verb, what is the corresponding transitive action verb? What unusual phonetic features does the state verb exhibit?
2. While this lesson is being studied, write a different transitive action verb on the blackboard every day. For each verb chosen, have students provide all the interrelated forms: basic, imperfective, perfective, resulting state, and expected state (with any possible variants). At the end of each class, the next day's verb can be assigned to an individual student, who will then be responsible for presenting all the correct forms on the blackboard and answering any questions that classmates may have.

8

Teacher's Manual

COMPLEX NOUNS IN PALAUAN

GENERAL COMMENTS

1. The material in this lesson corresponds to what is presented in PRG Chapter 8 ("Noun Derivation"). Both this lesson and PRG Chapter 8 are essentially a catalog of various noun types in Palauan whose internal structure is *complex* and which are derived from a given *stem* using different *prefixes*, *infixes*, and *suffixes*. Although very interesting, this is not a particularly difficult lesson because several of the major noun types discussed are actually identical in form to the *expected state verbs* and *resulting state verbs* already presented in Lesson 7. Furthermore, the new types of nouns that are introduced in this lesson (e.g., abstract nouns prefixed with *kle-*, instrument and action nouns prefixed with *o-*, etc.) are derived by very straightforward processes of prefixation, suffixation, and so on, that students should find relatively easy to grasp. In fact, the phonetic processes involved in deriving Palauan complex nouns (e.g., the various rules of vowel weakening) should by now be fully familiar to students, so that somewhat greater focus can be placed in this lesson on the meaning of complex nouns and on how they are used in Palauan sentences. This emphasis on meaning and usage is reflected in a large number of the study questions and exercises.
2. Much of the terminology found in this lesson has already been defined and studied quite extensively. Therefore, students should be able to proceed through this lesson without spending too much time on such familiar concepts as *internal structure*, *morpheme*, *stem* vs. *prefix/infix/suffix*, *independent* vs. *bound*, *transitive action verb* (in *imperfective form*), *simple* vs. *complex*, and so on.
3. The new ideas and approaches that students should learn from Lesson 8 are summarized below:

[8.1]: When we studied Palauan plural nouns (e.g., *rengalek*) and Palauan possessed nouns (e.g., *blik*, *blim*, *blil*, etc.) in earlier lessons, we were looking at two types of nouns with a *complex internal structure*. In this lesson, all of the remaining types of such *complex nouns* will be analyzed from the viewpoints of phonetic characteristics, meaning, and usage in sentences.

[8.2–8.2.4]: Many complex nouns are *formally* identical to certain groups of state verbs studied in Lesson 7. The major groups are as follows:

- a. Complex noun identical in form to expected state verb:
Examples: kall, selokel
- b. Complex noun identical in form to resulting state verb:
Examples: delobech, cheleuid
- c. Complex noun identical in form to resulting state verb derived by simultaneous addition of resulting state infix and expected state suffix:
Examples: cheltuul, telbiil

In addition, group (a) above can contain the expected state forms of *causative verbs* (e.g., *ukiill*), while group (b) can contain the resulting state forms of *causative verbs* (e.g., *ulkar*)—see 8.2.3.

[8.2.1–8.2.2]: When expected state or resulting state verbs come to be used as *nouns*, there is a general shift of meaning along the following lines:

- a. With expected state verbs, the focus shifts from the state or condition that something is in (e.g., *selokel* ‘needs to be washed’) to the actual *item* or *thing* that should undergo the process in question (thus, *selokel* comes to mean ‘laundry’, the very *item* that needs to be washed).
- b. With resulting state verbs, there is a similar change of focus from the state or condition resulting from an action (e.g., *blalech* ‘wounded by a slingshot’) to the actual *person, thing, or part of the body* affected (thus, *blalech* comes to mean ‘wound from a slingshot’ and refers to the injury itself).

While statements (a) and (b) are generally valid, some complex nouns that are formally identical to expected state or resulting state verbs do take on rather unpredictable, specialized meanings, as noted in the text.

[8.3]: By inserting the familiar infix *-el-*, *-l-*, or *-r-* into the stem of a *state verb*, (whether independent or bound), we can derive a *noun* that indicates an *abstract quality*. Many of these derived nouns are of the *optionally possessed* type (e.g., *klengit: kngtik, kngtim, kngtil*, etc.).

[8.4]: By inserting *-l-* after the initial K of many *reciprocal verbs*, we can derive a *noun* indicating the corresponding *abstract quality* (e.g., *kaubuch* ‘to be married to each other’—*klaubuch* ‘marriage’). Unlike the derived nouns in 8.3, all of these derived “reciprocal” nouns are *unpossessible*.

[8.5]: A separate prefix *kle-* has developed (possibly from the initial syllable of such abstract nouns as *klemanget*, *klengit*, and so on—see 8.3) as a way of deriving *abstract nouns* from *simple state verbs* (e.g., *ngeasek* ‘young’—*klengeasek* ‘youth’) or other nouns (e.g., *chelid* ‘god’—*klechelid* ‘religion’).

[8.6–8.7]: The prefix *o-* is used in a very straightforward way to derive Palauan *instrument nouns* as well as *action nouns*. Both of these types are derived from the corresponding transitive action verb in its *imperfective* form (or from the related intransitive action verb).

- a. To form an instrument noun, simply replace the word-initial verb marker *me-* by the prefix *o-* (e.g., *meluches* ‘to write’—*oluches* ‘pencil’).
- b. To form an action noun, simply add the prefix *o-* to the entire action verb (e.g., *meluches* ‘to write’—*omeluches* ‘action of writing’, *merael* ‘to travel’—*omerael* ‘traveling, trip’).

Some instrument nouns have very general meanings (e.g., *osib* ‘any tool for breaking the ground’) and could actually designate different objects depending on the occasion (i.e., *osib* could refer to a plow, a pickaxe, a pitchfork, or some other similar object).

[8.8]: Palauan *residue nouns* are perhaps the most interesting type of complex noun in terms of both derivation and meaning:

- a. They are formed from the *imperfective* forms of *transitive action verbs* by simultaneously adding two elements: a prefix *ule-* which replaces the verb marker *me-*, and the expected state suffix *-el*, *-iil*, *-uul*, *-all*, etc. All of the phonetic changes associated with the expected state suffix (i.e., processes of vowel weakening and the appearance of an unexpected vowel in the *stressed* syllable before *-el*) are also observed in these forms. See the explanation of *ulengmudel* in the first paragraph of 8.8.
- b. Palauan residue nouns have a very specialized meaning—i.e., they indicate any material or substance that remains or is left over after the related action or process has been performed. In other words, all nouns in this category represent waste products or remaining parts that are useless and need to be discarded.

SPECIFIC COMMENTS

[8.1]

1. This introduction reviews such basic concepts as *internal structure*, *morpheme*, *stem* vs. *prefix/infix/suffix*, and so on. The concept of internal structure has already been applied to *verbs* in Lessons 5–7, and in Lessons 2–3 we analyzed the internal structure of certain types of complex nouns (e.g., *plural nouns* and *possessed nouns*). The purpose of the

current lesson is to give a complete picture of the remaining types of complex nouns—to analyze them phonetically and in terms of internal structure, and to observe their meaning and use.

2. Note that in this lesson we are using the term *complex noun* to refer to any word used as a noun that contains two (or more) morphemes. Because complex nouns are necessarily formed by adding at least one *affix* (prefix, infix, or suffix) to a *stem*, it is also possible to refer to them as “derived” nouns. Complex (or derived) nouns contrast, of course, with *simple* (one-morpheme) nouns.

[8.2]

1. The first paragraph of this section gives a quick review of Palauan *resulting state verbs* and *expected state verbs*. If necessary, go back to 7.7, 7.8, etc., to check the phonetic and semantic details. The main point of this section is that many resulting state verbs and expected state verbs can also function—with no phonetic change—as (complex or derived) nouns. An introductory list of complex nouns identical in form to expected state verbs is presented in (2).

[8.2.1–8.2.2]

1. In both of these sections, the *meaning shift* from *verb* to *noun* is explained for expected state verbs as well as resulting state verbs. To make sure that students comprehend how the meaning change occurs, discuss a few examples from (2) and (5) in detail. The examples in (2) and (5) can also be used for two interesting supplementary exercises: (i) have students determine whether the complex nouns are unpossessible or optionally possessed (giving correct forms for the latter type), and (ii) have students use each of the complex nouns in a complete, grammatically correct Palauan sentence.

[8.2.3]

1. The type of information presented in this section represents nothing particularly new from the viewpoint of meaning shift, phonetic changes, etc. For ease of presentation, we have simply separated the discussion of complex nouns that are derived from (i.e., equivalent in form to) the expected and resulting state forms of *causative verbs*.
2. In *ukethall*, note the loss of L after the first K (cf. the imperfective causative form *omeklath*).

[8.2.4]

1. Although containing both the expected state and resulting state affixes, the complex nouns given here have a meaning related to the *resulting* state. Study Question 7 asks students to answer the very questions posed after (11) at the end of this section.

[8.3-8.3.1]

1. The insertion of *-el-*, *-l-*, or *-r-* into the stem of a *state verb* results in a derived noun of *abstract* meaning. Make sure that students understand the contrast between *abstract* and *concrete* and note that some classes of abstract nouns in English can be identified by suffixes such as *-ness* (thickness, blackness), *-t* or *-th* (height, width, etc.).
2. As mentioned in the first paragraph of 8.3, the infix involved here is probably the resulting state infix, but with a very specialized function—namely, to derive abstract nouns from state verbs.
3. As the lists in (12) and (13) indicate, the stems from which these abstract nouns are derived may be either independent (*bekeu*, *sekool*) or bound (*-kngit* of *mekngit*, *-keald* of *mekeald*, etc.).
4. The phonetic variants *-el-* vs. *-l-* vs. *-r-* found in the abstract nouns of (12) and (13) are all predictable. For example, *-r-* always occurs before another R in the stem (e.g., *cherroid* from *cheroid*, *kerrasem* from *mekerasem*, etc.). The interesting alternation between S and K found in *klekool* vs. *sekool* or *klengaked* vs. *mesengaked* was also observed in expected state forms such as *beakl* (vs. *omoes*), *llechukl* (vs. *meluches*), etc. (see Note 7 after 7.8.2.5).

[8.4]

1. A complete analysis of reciprocal verbs will be presented in Lesson 10. Since the infixation of *-l-* to form abstract nouns from reciprocal verbs is very straightforward, it is included in the current lesson on complex nouns. Students should have little difficulty understanding the idea of reciprocity (expressed as “each other” with verbs in English).

[8.5]

1. The derivation of abstract nouns with *kle-* from the stems of state verbs or nouns is very straightforward. There are a few phonetic irregularities—e.g., the vowel or vowel cluster changes in *klungiaol* (cf. *ungil*) and *kldiull* (cf. *dioll*).

[8.6]

1. Almost all Palauan instrument nouns have a concrete meaning, though sometimes quite general—e.g., *orukem* ‘any object used for breaking’, *olaml* ‘any instrument used for cutting grass’, etc. A few instrument nouns with more abstract meanings are presented in (21)—it would be worthwhile to discuss each of these in detail.

[8.7]

1. Because the action nouns presented here refer to an action or process, they are almost always abstract in meaning. Occasionally, an action noun develops a more specialized, concrete meaning—e.g., *omerael* 'trip'.

[8.8]

1. As mentioned earlier, residue nouns represent a particularly interesting subtype of Palauan complex noun because both their formation and meaning are quite unusual:
 - a. They are derived by simultaneously adding a prefix *ule-* and a suffix identical in form to the expected state suffix (*-el*, *-iil*, *-uul*, *-all*, etc.). As a consequence, residue nouns show exactly the same phonetic changes observed in expected state verbs—i.e., appearance of a new, unexpected vowel (or even vowel cluster) in the stressed syllable before *-el*, as well as the usual range of vowel weakening processes.
 - b. They refer to a very specialized category of meaning—i.e., to any material or substance that remains or is left over after the process of the related verb has been carried out. Residue nouns normally refer to substances that have no use and are to be discarded.

[8.9]

1. Noun compounding is a rich, productive process in Palauan, and only a few preliminary details are touched upon here. You can go further into noun compounding by having students do Exercise 16.

[8.10]

1. The summary of Palauan complex nouns given here will be very useful to students and should be written on the blackboard, copied into notebooks, etc. Once the chart is written on the blackboard, examples could be changed on a daily basis.

KEY TO STUDY QUESTIONS

[8.12: Complex Nouns in Palauan: Study Questions]

[Question 1]

Group A:

1. A *simple* noun contains only a single morpheme (or meaning-bearing unit), while a *complex* noun contains two or more morphemes.

Examples: simple noun: *reng, chat, blai*
 complex noun: *klengar, ngelekel, oles, raelbeab*

2. A *meaning shift* is a change of meaning whereby an *expected state verb* or *resulting state verb* comes to be interpreted as a *noun*, often with a rather specialized meaning.

Examples: expected state verb *suobel* 'is to be studied' → noun *suobel* 'homework'
 resulting state verb *rruul* 'done, made' → noun *rruul* 'thing/product made'

3. See Lesson 7, Teacher's Manual, Key to Study Questions, 1-b.

4. See Lesson 7, Teacher's Manual, Key to Study Questions, 1-c.

5. A *causative verb* is a verb prefixed with *omek-*, *ol-*, *ole-*, etc., that has the general meaning "(someone) *causes/makes/forces* (someone, something) to carry out an action or be in a particular state". The expected and resulting state forms of causative verbs are sometimes used as nouns with very specialized meanings.

Examples: causative verb *omeklath* 'to remind': expected state form *uketkall* 'is to be reminded' can be used as noun meaning 'keepsake, memento'

6. A *reciprocal verb* is a verb prefixed with *ke-*, *kai-*, *kau-*, etc., that has the general meaning "(two or more people) carry out the same activity with mutual effect". Abstract nouns can be formed from reciprocal verbs by infixing *-l-* after the word-initial K.

Examples: *kakoad* 'to fight with each other'—*klakoad* 'fighting, battle'; *kaidesachel* 'to race, compete'—*klaidesachel* 'race, competition'

7. See Lesson 2, Teacher's Manual, Key to Study Questions, Question 1, Group 1-b. Quite a few complex (derived) nouns in Palauan are abstract (e.g., those derived with the prefix *kle-* or with the infix *-l-*).

8. An *instrument noun* is derived from the imperfective form of a transitive action verb by replacing the verb marker *me-* with the prefix *o-*. Instrument nouns are *concrete* nouns indicating the instrument (tool, utensil, implement, etc.) used in carrying out a particular action or activity.

Example: *meles* 'to cut'—*oles* 'knife'

9. An *action noun* is derived by prefixing *o-* to any action verb that has the verb marker prefix *me-* (or *m-*). Derived action nouns indicate a particular *action* or *process* viewed abstractly.

Example: *meluches* 'to write'—*omeluches* 'act or action of writing'

10. A *residue noun* is derived from the imperfective form of a transitive action verb by simultaneously adding a prefix *ule-* and a suffix (*-el*, *-iil*, *-uul*, *-all*, etc.) identical in form to the expected state suffix. Residue nouns refer to any material or substance remaining or left over after the action or process of the related verb has been carried out—i.e., they are concrete nouns indicating some type of remainder or waste product.

Example: *melamech* 'to chew'—*ullemachel* 'leftover betel nut cud after chewing'

11. A *compound noun* is derived by combining two separate words, the second of which is always a noun. Palauan compound nouns are very specialized in meaning and often name particular species of flora and fauna, etc.

Example: *malkureomel* 'wild chicken', derived from *malk* (*er a*) *ureomel* 'chicken (of the) forest'

Group B:

1. *Internal structure* of a word—the various morphemes (stem + prefix, suffix, or infix) out of which a word is composed. In studying the various types of complex nouns, we are interested in analyzing their internal structure as well as their meaning.
2. *Morpheme*—a meaning-bearing unit. By definition, simple nouns consist of only one morpheme, while (derived) complex nouns contain two or more morphemes. A morpheme can be either a stem or a prefix, suffix, or infix.
3. *Noun stem*—an independent noun (or a bound portion) to which we can assign meaning and which combines with one or more prefixes, suffixes, or infixes to form a derived word (either another noun, or a verb, etc.).

Example: *chim* (*chimak*, *chimam*, etc.); *rael* (*merael*, *orrael*, etc.)

4. *Prefix*—a morpheme added at the beginning of a word or stem;
infix—a morpheme added within a word or stem;
suffix—a morpheme added at the end of a word or stem.

All three types are used in deriving Palauan complex nouns—e.g.,

prefix: *kle-* as in *klengar*, *ule-* as in *ulellumel*

infix: *-el-* as in *chelat*, *-l-* as in *klaidesachel*

suffix: *-uul* as in *ukeruul*, *-el* as in *suobel*

5. *Transitive action verb*—a verb indicating an action that involves both a doer and a receiver (person or thing affected). Palauan transitive action verbs are used as the basis for deriving many types of complex nouns—e.g.,

- a. complex noun identical in form to expected state verb:
selokel, from transitive action verb *mesilek*
 - b. complex noun identical in form to resulting state verb:
bloes, from transitive action verb *omoes*
 - c. instrument noun: *oles*, from transitive action verb *meles*
 - d. action noun: *omelim*, from transitive action verb *melim*
 - e. residue noun: *ullebakel*, from transitive action verb *melabek*
6. *Independent stem*—occurs separately as an independent word (noun, state verb, etc.); *bound stem*—occurs only “bound” or attached to another morpheme. Both independent and bound stems can serve as the basis for deriving complex nouns.
- Example:* abstract noun related to independent state verb: *blekeu* from *bekeu* ‘brave’
 abstract noun related to bound state verb: *kleald* from *-keald*.
 Note: *-keald* never occurs as an independent form but must always be attached to another morpheme—e.g., *mekeald* ‘hot’

[Question 2]

All Palauan complex nouns consist of a *stem* and at least one *affix* (prefix, infix, or suffix). See the last paragraph of 8.1.

[Question 3]

Both of these types are complex because they consist of a stem and at least one affix:

- (a) plural nouns: prefix *re-* + stem (e.g., *re-ngalek*)
- (b) possessed nouns: stem + possessor suffix (e.g., *ngelek-em*)

[Question 4]

See the discussion of Sections 8.2.1 and 8.2.2 in General Comment 3 above.

[Question 5]

- (a) As noted many times, nouns derived from (i.e., identical in form to) expected state verbs will contain the expected state suffix *-el*, *-iil*, *-uul*, *-all*, etc. Because *-el* always draws the stress to the immediately preceding syllable, that syllable will often show a vowel that does not occur in other forms (e.g., the *o* of *se-SO-bel*, which is not found in the corresponding imperfective form *me-LE-seb*). In addition, forms with stressed suffixes such as *-iil*, *-uul*, *-all*, etc. usually show processes of vowel weakening (see 7.8.1). See (2) for examples.
- (b) Nouns derived from (i.e., identical in form to) resulting state verbs contain an infix *-l-*, *-el-*, or *-r-* after the initial consonant of the stem. See (5) for examples.

[Question 6]

Students should double-check that the derived nouns they use are correctly spelled (especially if in the possessed form) and that the English translations accurately reflect the intended meaning.

[Question 7]

As indicated in 8.2.3, complex nouns derived from (i.e., identical in form to) the expected state forms or resulting state forms of causative verbs have the following phonetic features:

- (a) expected state forms: reduce the original causative prefix *ome(k)-* or *ole-* to *o-* (or *u-*) and add a variant of the expected state suffix (*-el*, *-iil*, *-uul*, *-all*, etc.). See (9) for examples.
- (b) resulting state forms: replace any variant of the original causative prefix with *ul-*. See (10) for examples.

[Question 8]

Sample answer: llechukl: l-l-echuk-l

- (a) The second L in *llechukl* is the *resulting state infix*, which has been inserted within the now divided stem *l...echuk*, which is related to the stem *luches* of (imperfective) *meluches*. The final L of *llechukl* is a variant of the *expected state suffix* *-(e)l*, which draws the stress to the preceding vowel, which appears as U. By a very special phonetic rule, the S of *meluches* changes to K before L (see Note 7 after 7.8.2.5). In addition, the U of the original stem in *meluches* (*me-LU-ches*) is reduced to weak E when unstressed in *llechukl* (*lle-CHUKL*).
- (b) Even though *llechukl* has both a resulting state infix and an expected state suffix, its meaning is restricted to that of a *resulting state verb*—i.e., ‘(has been) written’. As such it can be used in sentences like the following:

Ng llechukl a babier el mo er a sensei? ‘Has the letter to the teacher been written?’

However, when functioning as a noun, *llechukl* refers to some actual written “product”—i.e., anything written—and therefore can have somewhat specialized meanings such as ‘handwriting’ or ‘letter of the alphabet’. When used as a noun, *llechukl* has possessed forms (*llecheklek*, *llecheklel*, etc.).

Additional points:

- (a) In the forms of (11), the expected state suffix shows several variants: *-uul*, *-iil*, *-(e)l*, and *-ull*.
- (b) The S—K alternation is also observed in *kliokl* (cf. *mengiis*) and *cheldukl* (cf. *mengades*).

[Question 9]

Examples of both types are given in (12) and (13) of 8.3.

[Question 10]

Check for accurate spelling of the abstract nouns (especially if in the possessed form) and for correctness of the English equivalents.

[Question 11]

The possessed forms of the abstract nouns listed in (12) and (13) are as follows:

blekeu—blekengel, kldung—kldngil, delengerenger—delengerengerel,
 cheldelekelek—cheldelekelekel, cheleblad—chelebeldil, chelitechut—chelitechetul,
 cherrodech—cherredechel, cherroid—cherridel, klekool—klekolel,
 blulak—blulekngel, delengchokl—delengcheklel, kllou—kl(l)ungel,
 kldeb—kldebengel, kldidai—kldidiul, klemanget—klemengetel, klengit—kngtil,
 klisiich—klisichel, klengaked—klengkedel, kleald—kleldelel, kerrasem—kersemel,
 kerreos—kerresel, cheliuau—cheli(ui)uel, chelsa(ng)—chelsengul,
 klekad—klekekedel, cheluached—cheluchedel, delecherecher—delecherecherel.

[Question 12]

Abstract nouns are derived from reciprocal verbs by inserting the infix *-l-* after the initial K of the reciprocal prefix *kai-*, *ka-*, *kau-*, etc. Additional examples can be found on Pages 120–1 of the *NPED*.

[Question 13]

Abstract nouns can be derived by prefixing *kle-* either to a state verb, as in (17), or to another noun, as in (18). Check students' sentences for accuracy of spelling and grammar, and make sure the English equivalents are also correct.

[Question 14]

The similarities and differences between Palauan instrument and action nouns are clear from the summary of sections 8.6–8.7 in General Comment 3 above. Instrument nouns refer to tools, utensils, implements, etc.—i.e., to any concrete object used in carrying out a particular action or activity. Action nouns refer to an action or process viewed abstractly (equivalent to English 'the action of VERB + ing').

KEY TO EXERCISES

[8.13: Complex Nouns in Palauan: Exercises]

[Exercise 1]

For each transitive action verb, we provide a derived noun identical in form to an expected state verb, together with the English equivalent.

melikes: skokl 'shallow opening in reef through which canoe is to be poled'

melouch: toechel 'Nipa palm'

meluchel: techull 'belt (worn after delivering baby)'

mengabl: chebill 'curtain or partition in house (hanging down to level of armpit)'

mengetiut: chetuotel 'funnel'

mengib: chebingel 'papaya fruit'

mengiuetokl: chiutekill 'vine'

[Exercise 2]

Sample answers: For each of the first eight transitive action verbs, we give a derived noun identical in form to a resulting state verb, together with the English translation. Consult the *NPED* for the remaining items.

melachel: delachel 'good place for setting fishtrap; rocks that surround fishtrap to secure it'

melall: llall 'type of chant (used to ridicule)'

melangch: delangch 'something set aside for one's own use'

melbaet: delbaet 'payment of food or money in exchange for not working'

melbard: delbard 'crossbeam'

meleb: deleb 'ghost'

melechelokl: telechelokl 'clearing in forest'

melekuau: telekuau 'food, garbage, water, etc. left aside (in some container)'

[Exercise 3]

Unpossessible: bloes, blalech, bletech, blurech, seleseb, telechelokl

Optionally possessed: delobech, chelebis, cheleuid, ngeliokl, klengoes, rrodel, rruul

[Exercise 4]

ukiill—unpossessible; *ocheraol*—optionally possessed; *okesongel*—unpossessible;

ukethall—unpossessible

[Exercise 5]

ulkar—unpossessible; *ulitech*—unpossessible; *uleklatk*—optionally possessed;

ulkako—optionally possessed; *uldars*—optionally possessed

[Exercise 6]*Sample answers:*

<i>Complex Noun</i>	<i>Related Transitive Action Verb (Imperfective Form)</i>
delekull '(Palauan) money given at time of funeral'	melakl 'to bury, hide (something) under'
delebedabel 'measured/properly apportioned quantity'	melebodeb 'to weigh, apportion'
deluul 'degree/angle of bend'	meleu 'to fold, bend, crease'
delbochel 'musical composition'	melibech 'to invent, compose'
cheliotel 'food to which coconut milk has been added'	menguit 'to squeeze coconut milk into (food)'

Consult the *NPED* for the remaining examples.**[Exercise 7]***Sample answers:*

chetngaid: cheltngaid 'thinness'—optionally possessed
 cheterochel: chelterochel 'neglect'—optionally possessed
 chituuk: chelituuk 'diligence'—unpossessible
 kedols: kldols 'fatness, thickness'—optionally possessed
 kesib: klsib 'sweat, perspiration'—optionally possessed

[Exercise 8]

Pay attention to the correct spelling of the abstract nouns (especially if in the possessed form) and to the accuracy of the English translations.

[Exercise 9]*Sample answers:*

kaukledem: klaukledem 'state of having a companion (when fishing, etc.)'
 kauteketok: klauteketok 'quarreling, brawl'
 kaucheraro: klaucheraro 'mutual hatred'
 kaumerang: klaumerang 'mutual trust'
 kaoterau: klaoterau 'action of selling things to each other'

[Exercise 10]

See Exercise 8 above.

[Exercise 11]*Sample answers:*

olabek 'instrument for planing'—olbekel—melabek 'to plane (wood), iron (clothes)'
 olad 'grindstone'—oldengel—melad 'to whet/sharpen (something) against stone'
 olangch 'sign, mark, signal'—olengchelel—melangch 'to set aside, identify'
 olangeb 'anything used as temporary cover'—olengebel—melangeb 'to cover'
 olat 'instrument for tearing, letter opener'—oltengel—melat 'to tear, shred'

[Exercise 12]

See Exercise 8 above.

[Exercise 13]*Sample answers:*

meleketek: ulleketokel 'debris or things left over after assembling something'
 melebal: ullebeluul 'dirtied water after washing hands'
 melekodak: ullekedakel 'scraps of *odoim* after slicing'
 melemed: ullemadel, ullemodel, ullemedull 'dirtied water after mopping'
 melemedem: ullemedamel 'scrappings/debris from road making'

[Exercise 14]*Additional sample answers:*

ullebeluul: (1) shows the expected state suffix *-uul* (cf. expected state form *lebeluul*); (2) shows weakening of full vowel A of imperfective *melebal* to weak E (in unstressed syllable).

ullekedakel: (1) shows new vowel A in stressed syllable before suffix *-el*; this same A appears in the expected state form *dekedakel*, but it is not present in imperfective *melekodak*; (2) shows weakening of full vowel O of imperfective *melekodak* to weak E (in unstressed syllable).

ullemadel, ullemodel, ullemedull: (1) first two variants show new vowel A or O in stressed syllable before suffix *-el*; this same O is also found in the expected state form *ngemodel*, but it is not present in imperfective *melemed*; the third variant *ullemedull* has the expected state suffix *-ull*; (2) all variants show weakening of full vowel E found in the second syllable of the imperfective form (me-LE-med) to weak E (in unstressed syllable).

ullemedamel: (1) shows new vowel A in stressed syllable before suffix *-el*; interestingly enough, this vowel does *not* appear in the expected state form *demedomel*, which shows yet another vowel O; (2) shows weakening of full vowel E found in the third syllable of the imperfective form (me-le-ME-dem) to weak E (in unstressed syllable).

[Exercise 15]

The format of the answers should follow that given in Exercise 14 above.

[Exercise 16]

Check students' examples for accuracy of translation and analysis. Look for more compound nouns among the names of various flora and fauna, natural phenomena, parts of the Palauan house and canoe, legendary Palauan names, and so on.

SUGGESTIONS FOR ADDITIONAL ACTIVITIES

1. Students should now be aware of the fact that any given Palauan verb has a large network of interrelated forms, including various derived complex nouns. Take selected lists of examples from the lesson and ask students to supply additional forms—e.g.,

List (2): In addition to the complex noun and related imperfective form given, supply perfective forms, resulting state forms, any instrument or residue nouns, etc.

List (5): In addition to the complex noun and related imperfective form given, supply perfective forms, expected state forms, any instrument or residue nouns, etc.

List (11): Have students supply as many different related forms for each item given—e.g., for *mengat*: perfective *chotur*, *chemat*, *chiltur*, *chilat*; instrument noun *ongat*; action noun *omengat*, etc.
2. Introduce students to the *NPED* by assigning various transitive action verbs (in the imperfective form). For each verb, students should list all the related forms given in the dictionary entry, with English equivalents. Make sure students know the function of every item given and draw their attention to some differences in terminology (e.g., in the *NPED*, expected state verbs are marked V.A.S. because the equivalent term *anticipating state verb* is used there and in the *PRG*). Be sure to include some causative and reciprocal verbs for students to analyze.

9

Teacher's Manual

PALAUAN CAUSATIVE VERBS

GENERAL COMMENTS

1. The materials presented in Lesson Nine cover the topics found in PRG Chp. 9 ("Causative Verbs"). However, we have eliminated certain technical discussions of the causative prefixes *omek-* and *ole-* (9.2.1.1 and 9.2.2.2 of PRG Chapter 9) because (1) they are quite speculative and (2) they involve phonetic rules and formulas beyond the scope of this textbook. By contrast, certain topics that were either omitted from PRG Chapter 9 entirely or only dealt with briefly have been given greater coverage in the current lesson. Thus, you will find expanded discussions on such topics as causative verbs formed from noun stems (9.2.4), the perfective forms of causative verbs (9.5 and 9.5.1), the resulting state forms of causative verbs (9.6), and the expected state forms of causative verbs (9.7).
2. Since causative verb forms were touched upon in earlier lessons, and because so many relevant forms (perfective, imperfective, resulting state, etc.) have already been studied in great detail, students should not find too many surprises in this lesson. The main point for you to emphasize is that because causative verbs are a *subtype* (or subclass) of transitive action verb, they naturally exhibit all of the forms that ordinary transitive action verbs have. Thus, we will see that all causative verbs have *imperfective vs. perfective forms*, a *basic form*, a *resulting state form*, and an *expected state form*. Although the phonetic details for deriving such forms may differ from those of ordinary transitive action verbs, the overall system is nevertheless exactly the same.

SPECIFIC COMMENTS

[9.1]

1. This introductory section presents a basic definition of causative verb as a "(sub)type of transitive action verb in which the subject *causes* or *forces* someone else to do something or be in a particular state." Just like any transitive action verb, a causative verb therefore involves a *doer* (the person *causing* or *forcing* something to happen) and a *receiver* (the person or thing affected—i.e., caused or forced to do something). It might be useful to review the concepts transitive vs. intransitive at this point.

[9.2–9.2.4]

1. In these sections, we examine the different phonetic forms (variants) of the causative prefix and then try to classify causative verbs according to the type of derivation involved:
 - a. In 9.2.1 we see that most causative verbs derived from (intransitive) *state verbs* use the prefix *omek-*. A very small group uses the variants *ole-* or *ol-*, as noted in (4).
 - b. In 9.2.2 we make the generalization that causative verbs derived from *intransitive action verbs* use the variants *ole-* or *ol-*. The further variant *or-* is of course predictable phonetically.
 - c. A very small group of causative verbs is related to *transitive action verbs*, as shown in 9.2.3. All of these causative verbs show the variants *ome-* or *om-*.
 - d. Finally, a large group of causative verbs using the prefixes *ome-* or *om-* can be directly derived from *noun stems*. Many of these causative verbs show interesting and somewhat unpredictable changes in meaning.

[9.2.2]

1. Note 2 at the end of 9.2.2 touches on the question of the possible internal structure of the causative prefix *ol(e)-* (and of the other variants as well). It implies that *ol(e)-*, *omek-*, etc., are internally complex and contain at least the verb marker *o-* and an additional morpheme (a “causative marker”).

[9.2.3]

1. A sentence like (7b) is particularly interesting because it contains a total of three noun phrases—a sentence subject (the *doer* or *causer*), a *first object* (the person being made to do something), and a *second object* (the thing affected by the caused or forced action).

[9.4]

1. Causative verbs, like all transitive action verbs, show the full range of tenses: present, future, past, and recent past.
2. Note 3 at the end of 9.4 deals with examples that vary in acceptability (and interpretation) from speaker to speaker. If the data here is too confusing to students, you may omit reading this note.

[9.5–9.5.1]

1. Before discussing this section on the perfective forms of causative verbs, you may want to have students review earlier sections of Lessons 4 and 5 (e.g., 4.9.2–4.9.5, 5.6.2, etc.). Students should refamiliarize themselves, if necessary, with the object pronoun suffixes (4.9) and especially with the concept of zero suffix (4.9.4).

2. The pattern for deriving the perfective forms of causative verbs differs depending on whether the original prefix is *ol(e)-* vs. *omek-* (see the examples of 11–13 vs. 14). Be sure to point out that the perfective forms of causative verbs show the expected types of vowel and vowel cluster weakening (in the first seven forms, but not in the eighth zero-suffix form), related of course to the location of the *stressed* syllable.
3. In section 9.5.1, we concentrate on the past tense forms of perfective causative verbs. Again, there are two contrasting patterns, depending on whether the original causative prefix is *ol(e)-* vs. *omek-/om(e)-*.

[9.6]

1. Most of the information in this section was already introduced in 7.7.2.

[9.7]

1. A good part of the information in this section was already anticipated in *Note 10* at the end of 7.8.3. The most important points are noted in (c) and (d)—namely, (1) the expected state forms of causative verbs always have some variant of the expected state suffix, and (2) the already familiar processes of vowel and vowel cluster weakening generally apply. Note that in all the expected state forms derived with the suffix *-el*, the stressed syllable directly preceding *-el* shows certain unexpected full vowels or vowel clusters—e.g., *O* in *urechomel*, *EO* in *okeodel*, etc. In addition, note the appearance of *-l-* as a “buffer” between the verb stem and the suffix in *okelall* (cf. *meka*).

[9.7.1]

1. This discussion of resulting and expected state verbs used as (complex) nouns is repeated here for completeness, even though it was already presented in 8.2.3.

[9.8]

1. Although they have no obvious causative meaning, the verbs listed in (21) are clearly causative in form because (1) they show the causative prefixes *ol-* and *or-*, and (2) the patterns for deriving their perfective forms (in both the present and past tenses) are identical to those used for deriving the perfective forms of *ol-* causatives (see 9.5). The perfective forms given in the righthand column of (21) show the expected patterns of vowel and vowel cluster weakening—e.g., deletion of full vowel: *oldingel*→*odngelii*; weakening of full vowel: *oltom*→*otemengii*; shortening of vowel cluster: *oltoir*→*otirii*, and so on.

[9.9]

1. Although the basic forms of *noncausative* transitive action verbs are very useful as the basis or foundation for deriving all the other forms of the verb (imperfective, perfective, resulting state, expected state), the basic forms of *causative* transitive action verbs have

little value in this regard. For this reason, they have not been discussed until this very late point in the lesson. In fact, our earlier discussions have shown that the *imperfective* forms of causative verbs (e.g., *omekdakt*, *ollangel*, *omechar*, etc.) are the most convenient forms to use when deriving the related perfective, resulting state, and expected state forms.

[9.10]

1. Before looking at the verb forms in this section, you may wish to have students review the discussion of prefix pronouns in 4.10. While verbs with prefix pronouns are required in a large variety of grammatical constructions (to be studied in detail in Lesson 17), for purposes of simplicity we have restricted our discussion here to negative expressions (*ng diak* or *ng dimlak* followed by a prefix pronoun verb).

KEY TO STUDY QUESTIONS

[9.13: Palauan Causative Verbs: Study Questions]

[Question 1]

Because almost all of the terms listed in 9.12 have been presented and defined previously, we will focus our attention here on how a particular term applies specifically to causative verbs.

- a. *Transitive action verbs* describe an action and involve a doer and a receiver. Causative verbs also involve these three elements and are therefore a subclass of transitive action verb. With causative verbs, the action is always one in which the doer causes or forces the receiver to do something or be in a particular state. A few causative verbs are also directly derived from the basic forms of transitive action verbs (see 9.2.3)
- b. See the first paragraph of 9.1 for a good general definition of *causative verb*.
- c. In causative sentences, the *doer* is the sentence subject, while the *receiver* is the sentence object. With a causative verb like *omekdakt* 'to frighten', the doer causes the frightening, while the receiver is the person (or animal) affected.
- d. All causative verbs (in the imperfective form) are clearly identifiable because they show a variant of the *causative prefix*—i.e., *omek-*, *ome-*, *om-*, *ole-*, *ol-*, or *or-*.
- e. *State verbs* (with either independent or bound stems) serve as the source from which many causative verbs in *omek-* or *ome-* are derived, as seen in (3) of 9.2.1. A few causative verbs in *ole-* or *ol-* are also derived from the stems of state verbs, as in (4) of 9.2.1.
- f. *Intransitive action verbs* provide the stems from which most causative verbs in *ole-*, *ol-*, or *or-* are derived. See 9.2.2.
- g. As mentioned in Note 2, the various causative prefixes *omek-*, *ole-*, *ol-*, etc., probably contain a variant of the verb marker (as *o-*). Therefore, when we derive the causative form *oltobed* from the intransitive action verb *tuobed*, the infix verb marker *-u-* of

tuobed is dropped in order to avoid a second occurrence of the verb marker that is already present in *ol-*.

- h. Nouns serve as the stems for most causative verbs prefixed with *om-* or *ome-* and for a few causative verbs prefixed with *omek-*. See 9.2.4 for details.
- i. As seen in 9.4, imperfective causative verbs occur in all of the expected *tenses*: present, future, past, and recent past. This is also true for perfective causative verbs, as noted in 9.5.1.
- j. Just like all transitive action verbs, Palauan causative verbs distinguish between *imperfective* and *perfective* forms. See 9.5 for the details of perfective causative verbs.
- k. The processes of *vowel* and *vowel cluster weakening*—e.g., reduction of full vowels to weak E, deletion of full vowels, shortening of double vowels or vowel clusters, etc.—apply normally to two types of causative verb forms: (1) perfective causative verbs (where the *object pronoun suffix* is *stressed* in all forms except third person *nonhuman plural*), and (2) expected state forms (where *stressed* suffixes such as *-iil*, *-uul*, *-all*, etc., are added). Vowel weakening processes are referred to in 9.5 and 9.7.
- l. As transitive action verbs, causative verbs also have *resulting state forms*. See 9.6 for details of formation.
- m. As transitive action verbs, causative verbs also have *expected state forms*. See 9.7 for details of formation.
- n. Some expected and resulting state forms of causative verbs have also developed usages as *nouns*. See 9.7.1 for several already familiar examples.
- o. As noted in 9.9, Palauan causative verbs of course have *basic forms* (with a processive meaning), but such forms are not very useful as the basis or foundation for deriving other forms.
- p. As mentioned in 9.10, *prefix pronouns* must be attached to Palauan verb forms in a wide range of grammatical constructions (e.g., after negative expressions). If the verb in question is causative, then it too will be marked with a prefix pronoun, as in the examples of (27).

[Question 2]

From the viewpoint of meaning, Palauan causative verbs are transitive action verbs because they involve a doer (the sentence subject), an action of causing or forcing (indicated by the causative verb itself), and a receiver (the sentence object). In terms of form, causative verbs have the full range of forms that all transitive action verbs have—i.e., basic form, imperfective form, up to eight perfective forms, resulting state form, and expected state form.

[Question 3]

All causative verbs share the idea that a doer *causes*, *makes*, or *forces* someone else (or an animal) to do something or to be in a particular state.

[Question 4]

See 9.2 for a summary and explanation.

[Question 5]

The different variants of the causative prefix can be attached to the stems of state verbs (9.2.1), intransitive action verbs (9.2.2), transitive action verbs (9.2.3), and nouns (9.2.4).

[Question 6]

The most striking characteristic is that such sentences seem to contain two object nouns. See the discussion of (7a-b) in 9.2.3.

[Question 7]

Most causative verbs derived from noun stems attach the prefix *om-* (or *om(e)-*) directly to the noun stem (which is almost always an independent stem). A few causative verbs derived from noun stems use *omek-*. See (9) in 9.2.4.

[Question 8]

Some aspects of the meaning of causative verbs derived from nouns are discussed in the second paragraph of 9.2.4. Here are two specific examples:

- a. While *daob* means 'salt water', *omdaob* means that someone causes salt water to affect something else—i.e., adds salt water to food.
- b. While *tebechel* means 'mooring pole (for boat)', *omtebechel* basically means 'to moor (a boat)'. However, this verb has taken on a range of abstract meanings derived from the idea of affecting something (or someone) *as if* with a mooring pole. Thus, the entry for *omtebechel* in the *New Palauan-English Dictionary* (Page 262) gives the following meanings: 'hold steady, hold in position; control (something, someone, oneself); watch over (child, etc.); act as guardian for; fix; standardize; confirm'.

[Question 9]

The details of the answer are presented in 9.4.

[Question 10]

As noted in 9.5, the variants of the causative prefix are affected in different ways when perfective forms are derived. As shown in (11–13), if the original causative prefix is *ol-*, *ole-*, or *or-*, then it is replaced by *o-* in the perfective forms (with the L or R being lost). If the original causative prefix is *omek-*, as in (14), then the initial *o-* is deleted, yielding *mek-* in the perfective forms. Finally, verbs whose original causative prefix is *om-* or *ome-* also show deletion of the initial *o-* in the perfective forms (e.g., imperfective *omdoim* vs. perfective *mdimii*).

[Question 11]

Using examples given in 9.5, we can observe processes of vowel (and vowel cluster) weakening such as the following:

- a. imperfective *oltobed*—perfective *otebedii*:
full vowel O of stem “tobed” reduces to weak E
- b. imperfective *olekiis*—perfective *okisii*:
double vowel II of stem shortens to single vowel
- c. imperfective *olekar*—perfective *okerngak*:
full vowel A of stem reduces to weak E
- d. imperfective *olluut*—perfective *olutii*:
double vowel UU of stem shortens to single vowel
- e. imperfective *omekdakt*—perfective *mekdektii*:
full vowel A of stem reduces to weak E
- f. imperfective *omdoim*—perfective *mdimii*:
vowel cluster OI reduces to single full vowel I

[Question 12]

All of the details can be found in 9.5.1. Note that the formation of the past tense of perfective causative verbs is quite different depending on whether the original causative prefix is *ol-* or *ole-* vs. *omek-*, *ome-*, or *om-*.

[Question 13]

Here are the differences between the two forms:

- a. *ullechiis* is the past tense *imperfective* form. It is derived from the present tense imperfective form *olechiis* by replacing the initial *o-* of the causative prefix by *ul(e)-*. See 9.4.

- b. *ulechiis* is the past tense *perfective* form with *zero suffix* for third person plural *nonhuman* object. It is derived from the corresponding present tense perfective form *ochiis* by replacing word-initial *o-* with *ule-*. See 9.5.1.

[Question 14]

The phonetic details for deriving the resulting state forms of causative verbs are illustrated in 9.6, with many examples in (17).

[Question 15]

All of the phonetic processes relevant here are summarized in points (a–d) of 9.7.

[Question 16]

Typical examples are given in (19–20) of 9.7.1.

[Question 17]

Formally—i.e., in terms of internal structure—*oldingel* and *olterau* seem to be causative verbs. They have the causative prefix *ol-* in their imperfective forms, and their perfective forms (e.g., *odngelii*, *odingel*; *oterur*, *oterau*) follow the patterns of other causative verbs. The only difficulty is that their meanings are not obviously causative. See 9.8.

[Question 18]

The rules for deriving the basic forms of causative verbs are detailed in 9.9. As mentioned earlier, the basic forms of causative verbs are not given much prominence in our presentation because they are not useful as the basis or foundation for deriving other related forms of the verb.

[Question 19]

Just like any other verb that occurs in a grammatical construction requiring prefix pronouns, causative verbs must be prefixed with *ku-*, *lo-*, *do-*, etc., when following the negative expressions *ng diak*, *ng dimlak*, etc. As pointed out in *Note 4*, the perfective forms of causative verbs (as well as the imperfective forms) can take the prefix pronouns.

KEY TO EXERCISES

[9.14: Palauan Causative Verbs: Exercises]

[Exercise 1]

Make sure that the verb stems chosen by students and listed in the righthand column are in fact *state verbs*. This, of course, can be verified by checking that their past tense forms take the auxiliary *mle*.

[Exercise 2]

Make sure that the verb stems chosen by students and listed in the righthand column are in fact *intransitive action verbs*. This can be verified by checking that their past tense forms are derived by infixing the past tense marker *-il-*. Furthermore, since the verbs chosen are *intransitive*, they should involve only subjects (but no objects).

[Exercise 3]

Since causative verbs in *om-* derived from noun stems often have rather specialized meanings, some students may come up with very interesting examples. Write the most interesting examples on the blackboard and discuss the unusual meaning changes observed.

[Exercise 4]

Note that Palauan causative verbs are often translated into English according to the patterns 'force/make/have (someone) do something', 'make (someone, something) [adjective]', etc.

[Exercise 5]

omekbeches—ulemekbeches	olengesenges—ullengesenges
olekeed—ullekeed	orrael—ulerrael
omekringel—ulemekringel	omengamech—ulemengamech
oltobed—uleltobed	olluut—ulelluut
olengebeet—ullengebeet	olechiis—ullechiis

[Exercise 6]

Sample answers:

1. **Perfective Forms of *olsobel*** 'to save, take care of'

osebelak	osebelid
	osebelemam
osebelau	osebelemiu
osebelii	osebel(e)terir
	osobel

In the first seven perfective forms, the full vowel O of the stem “sobel” reduces to weak E when unstressed.

2. **Perfective Forms of *omekdinges*** ‘make full (with food), satisfy’

mekdengesak	mekdengesid
	mekdengesemam
mekdengesau	mekdengesemiu
mekdengesii	mekdenges(e)terir
	mekdinges

In the first seven perfective forms, the full vowel I of the stem “dinges” reduces to weak E when unstressed.

[Exercise 7]

Sample answers:

	Present Tense		Past Tense	
	3 sg.	3 pl. nonhum.	3 sg.	3 pl. nonhum.
ollangel:	olengalii	olangel	ullengalii	ullangel
olechiis:	ochisii	ochiis	ulechisii	ulechiis
omtechei:	mtechir	mtechei	miltechir	miltechei
omekcharm:	mekchermii	mekcharm	milekchermii	milekcharm

As the examples above and the discussions in 9.5.1–2 indicate, there are two very different patterns for deriving the perfective forms of Palauan causative verbs: those prefixed with *ol-*, *ole-*, or *or-* follow one pattern, while those prefixed with *omek-*, *ome-*, or *om-* follow another. In the examples above, it is easy to see instances of vowel weakening—e.g., full vowel A reduces to weak E in *olengalii* (from *ollangel*), double vowel II shortens to single I in *ochisii* (from *olechiis*), and so on.

[Exercise 8]

omekdechor—ulekdechor	omuus—uluus (also: bluus)
orrurt—urrurt	omekbeches—ulekbeches
olsobel—ulsobel	olengelt—ulengelt
omechar—ulechar	omngakl—ulngakl
oltobed—ultobed	olsiseb—ulsiseb

[Exercise 9]1. omekdech^{or}—okedecheraol

The suffix has the unusual form *-aol* (with vowel cluster AO). The full vowel O of the stem *dech^{or}* is reduced to a weak E in the expected state form. *Note:* The NPED also lists a very interesting variant *okedecheraol*, in which the original K of *okedecheraol* has changed to CH under the influence of the CH later in the word (in linguistic terms: assimilation).

2. orrurt—orretall

The suffix is *-all*. The full vowel U of the stem *rurt* has been deleted in the expected state form. The basic structure of the expected state form is o + rurt + all. When the U is deleted, we get o + rrt + all. For pronunciation purposes, a weak E is then inserted between the double R and the following T, giving the final form *orretall*.

3. olsobel—osebelall

The suffix is *-all*. The full vowel O of the stem “sobel” is reduced to a weak E in the expected state form.

4. omechar—ocheraol

The suffix has the unusual form *-aol* (as in Number 1 above). The full vowel A of the stem *char* is reduced to a weak E in the expected state form (which is also commonly used as a noun meaning ‘money-raising party’).

5. oltobed—otebedall

Same pattern as *olsobel—osebelall* above.

6. omuus—usall

The suffix is *-all*. The original double vowel UU is shortened to a single vowel. It also appears as if the original causative prefix is totally deleted (i.e., the basic structure is u + uus + all, which simply becomes *usall* by reduction of all the U’s into one).

7. omekbeches—ukbechesall

The suffix is *-all*. The (second) full E of the stem *beches* is reduced to a weak E when unstressed in *ukbechesall*.

8. olengelt—ongeltall

The suffix is *-all*. The full E of the stem “ngelt” is reduced to a weak E when unstressed in *ongeltall*.

9. omngakl—ungkill

The suffix is *-ill*. The full vowel A of the stem *ngakl* is totally lost in the expected state form, and the stem-final L has also been deleted.

10. olsiseb—osiseball

The suffix is *-all*. The full I of the stem “siseb” is not affected by weakening.

[Exercise 10]

oldingel	basic:	modingel
	resulting state:	uldingel
	expected state:	odngelall
	perfective:	odngelii, odingel, uldngelii, uldingel
	prefix pronoun:	kuldingel, chomoldingel, loldingel, doldingel, kimoldingel
oltoir	basic:	motoir
	resulting state:	ultoir
	expected state:	otirall
	perfective:	otirii, otoir, ultirii, ultoir
	prefix pronoun:	kultoir, chomoltoir, loltoir, doltoir, kimoltoir
oltom	basic:	motom
	resulting state:	ultom
	expected state:	otemengall
	perfective:	otemengii, otom, ultemengii, ultom
	prefix pronoun:	kultom, chomoltom, loltom, doltom, kimoltom
. olterau	basic:	moterau
	resulting state:	ulterau
	expected state:	oteruul
	perfective:	oterur, oterau, ulterur, ulterau
	prefix pronoun:	kulterau, chomolterau, lulterau, dolterau, kimolterau

SUGGESTIONS FOR ADDITIONAL ACTIVITIES

1. With this lesson on causative verbs we have almost completed our study of the internal structure of Palauan verbs and the various derivational processes by which they are formed. Students should realize now that many related verb forms, including the causative verbs just studied, ultimately come from a single stem (usually, a noun). Thus, from the stem *dakt* 'fear', we derive the state verb *medakt* 'be afraid of' as well as the causative verb *omekdakt* 'to frighten' (which itself has perfective forms, resulting and expected state forms, etc.). Further, a stem like *dakt* provides the basis for deriving such *reciprocal verbs* as *kedakt* and *kadekdakt* 'to be afraid of each other' (see Lesson 10). To increase students' awareness of Palauan verb derivation and of the interrelatedness of forms, start with a particular (noun) stem like *dakt* and have students derive as many related forms (verbs or any other parts of speech) as they can (with some emphasis on the causative verbs introduced in this lesson). Here is a list of noun stems that will be especially productive for such an exercise:
 - a. *langel* 'crying': *lenglel*, *lmangel*, *ollangel*, *bekelilangel*
 - b. *luut* 'return': *ltel*, *lmuut*, *olluut*
 - c. *secher* 'sickness': *secherel*, *smecher*, *omeksecher*, *olsecher*, *bekesechesecher*
 - d. *buch* 'spouse': *bechil*, *bechiil*, *oubuch*, *omekbuch*, *kaubuch*
 - e. *chiis* 'escape': *chisel*, *chemiis*, *olechiis*, *chachiis*
 - f. *rael* 'road': *rolel*, *merael*, *ourael*, *orrael*, *omekrael*, *sekerael*
 - g. *rurt* 'race': *rertel*, *remurt*, *orrurt*, *bekerurt*, *sekerurt*, *kaiderurt*
 - h. *chas* 'soot, ink': *chesengel*, *mengas*, *omechas*, *chachas*, *bechachas*, *chaserreng*
 - i. *ringel* 'pain': *rengel*, *meringel*, *omekringel*, *orringel*
 - j. *bail* 'clothing': *bilel*, *omail*, *bliull*, *billum*, *oubail*, *omekbail*
2. Go back to some of the written texts (stories, letters, etc.) already analyzed and look specifically for various forms of causative verbs. Have students analyze and translate each causative verb that they discover.

10

Teacher's Manual

RECIPROCAL VERBS IN PALAUAN

GENERAL COMMENTS

1. While this lesson, which is modeled after PRG Chapter 10, contains quite a lot of data, it is not particularly difficult from the theoretical point of view. Both the formation and meaning of Palauan reciprocal verbs are quite straightforward: all reciprocal verbs are easily identified by some form of the reciprocal prefix (*ka-*, *kai-*, *cha-*, etc.), and in their primary function they always indicate mutual effect or relationship (equivalent to “each other” in English).
2. After an introductory section (10.1) which concentrates on the concept of reciprocity and a short section (10.1.1) that quickly surveys reciprocal verbs in various tenses, many of the remaining sections of this lesson are involved with the forms of the reciprocal prefix and the possible ways of subclassifying reciprocal verbs.
3. Except for the variant *cha-*, which occurs predictably before any stem with another CH initially (see 10.2.5), it is virtually impossible to predict (phonetically or grammatically) what form the reciprocal prefix will take in any particular case. For this reason, the approach to organizing reciprocal verbs taken in this lesson (and in PRG Chapter 10) is to subclassify them according to other groups of verbs with which they are related. Thus, we list reciprocal verbs that can be easily associated with corresponding *causative verbs* (10.2.1), verbs derived in *ou-* (10.2.2), (non-causative) *transitive action verbs* (10.2.3), and *state verbs* (10.2.4).
4. In talking about the relationship between reciprocal verbs and other types of verbs, you will now be working with students on the essence of Palauan morphological (word) structure—namely, that various stems (whether independent or bound) are used as the base to which particular prefixes, infixes, and suffixes (cover term: affixes) are added to derive new forms that are part of a complex interlocking network of interrelated words. You will be able to illustrate this feature of Palauan morphology by taking almost any group of forms that is presented in this lesson and going over the range of its derivational relationships. For example, if we go to list (16) and take *kakeald* and *mekeald*, we immediately see that KEALD is a bound stem that is the basis for many derivations:

- (a) With the verb marker prefix *me-*, we get the *state verb mekeald* 'warm, hot', which can also be used as a noun meaning 'hot water, hot drink (especially, coffee)'.
- (b) With the verb marker prefix *me-* and consonant alternation (i.e., $K \rightarrow NG$), we get a *derived transitive verb mengineald* 'to warm up, heat up' (see 7.11).
- (c) With the prefix *ka-*, we derive the *reciprocal verb kakeald* 'to keep each other warm'.
- (d) With the resulting state infix *-l-*, we get the *derived noun kleald* 'heat, warmth, heat wave, body temperature'.
- (e) By other processes, we get additional related forms such as *mekeldel* (possessed noun), *mekekeald* (reduplicated form), etc.

This kind of exercise is particularly useful in making students realize the complexity and productivity (creativity) of Palauan derivation. See Suggestions for Additional Activities 1 below.

SPECIFIC COMMENTS

[10.1]

1. You may explain the concept of reciprocity by using phrases such as the following: "affect each other in the same way", "do the same kind of thing to each other", "carry out a mutual activity", "be in a mutual (shared) relationship with each other", and so on.
2. The contrast between a "one-way" verb like (causative) *olengeseu* ("A helps B") and its reciprocal partner *kaingeseu* ("A and B help each other") is useful in presenting the idea of reciprocity.
3. As noted here, students should realize that because a reciprocal verb always involves mutual interaction between at least two people (or animals, etc.), the subject of that verb must be semantically (and, often, grammatically) *plural*. A plural subject will typically be a human noun prefixed with *re-* (e.g., *rengalek* 'children'), a plural non-emphatic pronoun such as *kede*, *te*, etc., or a *coordinate noun phrase* with two or more nouns (or pronouns) joined by the conjunction (connecting word) *me* 'and' (e.g., *Ngak me a Toki* 'Toki and I'). In some cases, of course, a subject must be understood as plural because the verb itself is reciprocal, as in

A bilis a mle kaiuetoir er a sers. 'The dogs were chasing each
other in the garden.'

4. Note that in (2a–c), the human plural nouns (or noun phrases such as *rechad er a Modekngei*) could all be replaced by the non-emphatic pronoun *te* 'they (human)' as long as the antecedent is clear from the context.

[10.1.1]

1. The use of reciprocal verbs in the various tenses is not difficult. The most interesting point is that because reciprocal verbs take *mle* in the past tense, they must in some sense be interpreted as *state verbs*. Perhaps any reciprocal situation (whether involving activity or a more static relationship) is viewed as a kind of state in the Palauan semantic system (e.g., *kaiuetoir* = “to be in a state of mutually affecting each other by chasing each other”).
2. In (6) and (7) the possessed forms *kiri* and *belumiu* and the pronoun *kom* must all be plural because reciprocal verbs always require two (or more) persons as subject (cf. Specific Comment 3 for 10.1 above). Sentence (6) is particularly interesting because the *implied* subject of the sentence (“you—pl.”) is expressed through the second person plural possessor suffix *-iu* on the obligatorily possessed noun *kirek*, *kirem*, *kirel*, etc., ‘my, your, his obligation, etc.’ (= ‘I have to, you have to, he has to, etc.’).

[10.2.1]

1. In this section, we present reciprocal verbs that are related to causative verbs. Most of the causative verbs in *ol(e)-* (or *or-*) presented in (8), though causative in form, have apparently lost their original causative meaning (see 9.8). However, the semantic relationship between a given reciprocal verb and its corresponding causative verb is very direct—e.g., while *oldingel* means ‘to visit’, *kaiuedingel* predictably means ‘to visit each other’, etc.
2. *Note 1* goes more deeply into the derivational properties of certain bound stems found in the reciprocal and causative verbs of (8), while *Note 2* indicates some possible variation among speakers.
3. The list in (9) shows pairs of reciprocal and causative verbs that follow the pattern *kauk* + stem (for the reciprocal verb) vs. *omek* + stem (for the causative verb).

[10.2.2]

1. While a considerable number of reciprocal verbs related to verbs in *ou-* designate mutual relationships (marriage, friendship, kinship, etc.), several of them indicate mutually performed activities (e.g., *kaumekemad* ‘to fight with each other (in war)’, *kausisbech* ‘to need/help each other’, etc.). It is interesting to note that verbs in *ou-* that indicate possession or control over an object (e.g., *oublai* ‘to own a house’, *ousers* ‘to have a garden’, etc.) or some activity closely related to the object (e.g., *oukita* ‘to play the guitar’, *oudangs* ‘to dance’, etc.) never exhibit a corresponding reciprocal verb.

[10.2.3]

1. When discussing reciprocal verbs related to (noncausative) *transitive action verbs*, we are faced with the question of whether to present the transitive action verb in its *basic* or

imperfective form. Because the reciprocal form always has a stem-initial consonant identical to that of the verb stem, we have chosen to present the transitive action verbs of (14) in their *basic* form. You may wish to remind students that (1) the processes of *consonant alternation* studied in 5.6.3 will account for the corresponding imperfective forms (e.g., basic *medengmes* → imperfective *melengmes* by the consonant alternation D→L), and (2) the stem-initial consonant found in the basic form of the verb and the corresponding reciprocal verb (e.g., the D of *medengmes* and *hadengmes*) will also be found in the *perfective* forms (e.g., initial D in *dongmesii*, *dongmeseterir*, etc.) as well as the resulting state (*delengmes*) and expected state forms (*dengmesall*; *dengmesioll*).

2. As a useful exercise, have students provide the imperfective form for each of the transitive action verbs given in (14), and (as was just done above) ask them to find as many additional forms (e.g., perfective, resulting state, expected state) in which the stem-initial consonant of the basic form is maintained intact. In addition, it would be interesting to have them determine which of the stems in (14) can occur as independent nouns (*tekoi*, *chelebed*, *tub*) and which are bound (all the others).

[10.2.3.1]

1. Although the next lesson will be devoted almost entirely to the processes of reduplication, it is impossible not to introduce this concept in a general way when observing the forms of certain reciprocal verbs. Students should enjoy discussing the reduplicated verbs in (15) because they often have rather vivid or colorful connotations; and since their usage varies a lot from speaker to speaker, they are also somewhat controversial. Poll students in your class to see whether they accept the various reduplicated verbs given in (15), and if so, whether they agree with the meanings provided.

[10.2.4]

1. As indicated earlier, it would be a valuable exercise to have students determine the verb stems involved in the forms of (16)—e.g., bound *keald*, *keed*, etc., vs. independent *dakt*, *cheroid*, etc.—and then see how many related forms they can derive from each stem (e.g., KEALD: *mekeald*, *mengeald*, *kakeald*, *kleald*, and so on).
2. As indicated in points (a-f), the morphological details of these reciprocal verbs are varied and complex.

[10.2.5]

1. Although there is some regional variation as well as variation from speaker to speaker, we can at least make the generalization that if *cha-* occurs as a variant of the reciprocal prefix, then the following stem must be CH-initial.

2. You may wish to have students look for additional reciprocal verbs in *cha-*. As seen on Pages 32–3 of the *NPED*, there is actually quite a large number of them.

[10.3]

1. The material here is repeated from 8.4 for the purpose of being complete.

[10.4]

1. The main purpose of this section is to provide students with additional examples of how Palauan reciprocal verbs are properly used in sentences. You may wish to take the sentences of (18–20) individually and analyze them in detail—e.g., identifying the reciprocal verb, reconfirming that the subject is plural, etc.
2. The *transitive* reciprocal sentences introduced in (19–20) represent a semantically more complex type of sentence in which (a) two (or more) persons carry out a similar activity (e.g., washing) directed at a similar object (e.g., clothing) which each of them possesses and (2) each person is *indirectly* affected by receiving the benefit of the activity performed by the other.
3. In sentences (20b–e), the various *possessed nouns* (*tekingir*, *chungam*, *kelir*) or an *unpossessible noun* modified by a *possessor phrase* (*hong er tir*) must all agree in person and number with the sentence subject. Thus, for example, since *rengelekek* of (20b) is third person human plural, the noun *tekoi* must take a third person human plural possessor suffix *-ir* (*tekingir*). Similarly, since the coordinate noun phrase *A Toki me a Satsko* of (20e) constitutes a third person human plural subject, then the possessor phrase modifying *hong* must contain the third person human plural emphatic pronoun *tir*.

[10.5]

1. In this section we examine two cases in which verb forms showing the reciprocal prefix have a specialized meaning or function:
 - a. When the original stem involves an *intransitive* action verb (e.g., *mechiuaiu*, *remurt*, *reborb*), the derived reciprocal verb does not imply mutual effect but instead indicates that two (or more) persons are doing something *together* (jointly), especially with a special sense of camaraderie (group solidarity).
 - b. When the reciprocal prefix *ka-* is added to imperative, propositive, or other verb forms that contain *prefix* (PRG: hypothetical) *pronouns*, the result is a verb form that connotes a milder (or more sympathetic) command, suggestion, proposal, etc. This is especially true of the examples given in (25a–c).

KEY TO STUDY QUESTIONS

[10.8: Reciprocal Verbs in Palauan: Study Questions]

[Question 1]

- a. **Reciprocal Verb:** a verb derived by adding the reciprocal prefix to a verb stem. Reciprocal verbs describe mutual actions or states in which two (or more) persons (or things) affect each other in a similar way.

Example: *kaingeseu* (reciprocal prefix *kai-* + stem *ngeseu* 'help, assistance'), which means 'to help each other' (i.e., A helps B, and B helps A).

- b. **Coordinate Noun Phrase:** a noun phrase in which two (or more) nouns (or pronouns) are joined by the *connecting word* (conjunction) *me* 'and'. Because reciprocal verbs necessarily involve two (or more) persons, they often occur in sentences whose subject is a coordinate noun phrase (which as a unit is always *plural*).

Example: *Ngak me tir a blechoel el kaingeseu.* 'They and I always help each other.'
The coordinate noun phrase *ngak me tir* functions here as sentence subject.

- c. **Causative Verb:** a verb derived with the causative prefix (*ol-*, *ole-*, *omek-*, etc.) whose subject is always interpreted as causing or forcing someone else to do something (or to be in a particular state), as in *omekdakt* 'to frighten (=make someone scared)'. A large number of reciprocal verbs can be associated with the same verb stem that allows causative verbs—e.g., causative *omekdakt* and reciprocal *kaukdakt* 'to frighten each other' (common stem: *dakt* 'fear').
- d. **State Verb:** a verb which describes a state as opposed to an action (e.g., *medakt* 'afraid of'). Palauan state verbs can be distinguished from action verbs because state verbs always form their *past* tense with the auxiliary word *mle* 'was, were' (e.g., *mle medakt* 'was afraid'). Because Palauan *reciprocal verbs* also form their *past* tense with *mle*, they must be considered a subclass of state verbs (e.g., *Te mle kaingeseu.* 'They were helping each other.').
- e. **Reciprocal prefix:** a prefix attached to a verb stem to derive a reciprocal verb. Reciprocal verbs can be identified by any of the *variants* of the reciprocal prefix: *ka-*, *ke-*, *kau-*, *kai-*, *kaiue-*, *cha-*, etc.
- f. **Derived Verb in *ou-*:** a verb derived by prefixing *ou-* to a stem to indicate ownership, control, or some kind of personal relationship (e.g., *ousechelei* 'to have (someone) as a friend'). A significant number of verbs in *ou-*, especially those involving personal relationships, also have associated reciprocal verbs (e.g., *kausechelei* 'to be friends with each other').

- g. **Transitive Action Verb:** a verb indicating an action (as opposed to a state) that involves both a *doer* (the sentence subject) and a *receiver* (the sentence object)—e.g., *mengelebed* ‘to hit’. Many stems of transitive action verbs are also used to derive reciprocal verbs (e.g., *chachelebed* ‘to hit each other’).

- h. **Reduplication:** a phonetic process by which all or part of a stem is repeated during a particular type of word derivation. In deriving reciprocal verbs from certain transitive action verbs, reduplication is either optional or obligatory.

Example: *kasusuub* ‘to imitate each other’, from *mesuub* ‘to study, imitate’, in which the sequence SU of the original stem has been repeated.

- i. **Complex Noun:** any noun whose internal structure consists of two or more morphemes (a stem and at least one prefix, infix, or suffix). One general type of complex noun can be derived by putting the resulting state infix *-l-* (or *-el-*) into a stem—e.g., *cheldecheduch* ‘conversation’ from *mengedecheduch* ‘to converse’. It is also possible to derive complex nouns by infixing *-l-* after the initial K of reciprocal verbs—e.g., *klaingeseu* ‘mutual assistance’ from *kaingeseu* ‘to help each other’.

- j. **Transitive Reciprocal Sentence:** a sentence in which the reciprocal verb indicates an activity that each participant can direct at an external object (indicated in fact by the object noun phrase), so that the participants themselves are only *indirectly* affected.

Example: A Satsko me a Toki a ‘Satsko and Toki are washing
kesilek a bilir. each other’s clothes.’

The external object is *bilir* ‘their clothes’, which is *directly* affected. By contrast, each participant—Toki and Satsko—is only *indirectly* affected in the sense that she receives the *benefit* of the other’s action.

- k. **Intransitive Action Verb:** an action verb that involves only a *doer* but no *receiver* (i.e., there will be a sentence subject but no sentence object)—e.g., *mechiuaiu* ‘to sleep’. When the reciprocal prefix is added to the stem of an intransitive action verb, we get a reciprocal verb with the *extended* meaning of *jointly performed* activities—e.g., *chachiuaiu* ‘to sleep together (in the same room, etc.)’.
- l. **Imperative Verb Form:** a second person prefix pronoun verb form functioning as an order or command, as in the sentence *Molim a kerum!* ‘Drink your medicine!’ When the reciprocal prefix *ka-* is added to an imperative verb form, we get a milder or more sympathetic command: *Kamolim a kerum.* ‘Now, let’s take your medicine.’
- m. **Propositive Verb Form:** a first person plural inclusive prefix pronoun verb form functioning as a proposal, as in *Doraell!* ‘Let’s go!’ When the reciprocal prefix *ka-* is added to a propositive verb form, we get a milder or more sympathetic proposal: *Kadoraell.* ‘Well, let’s be going now.’

[Question 2]

As noted in the introduction to this lesson (10.1), we can readily identify reciprocal verbs in terms of:

- (a) meaning—they describe *mutual* action (a situation in which two or more persons are affecting each other in the same way) or a *mutual* relationship. When related to *intransitive* action verbs, reciprocal verbs indicate *joint* action (see 10.5).
- (b) form—they always start with a variant of the *reciprocal prefix*: *ka-*, *ke-*, *kai-*, *cha-*, etc.

[Question 3]

With causative *olengeseu* (which is also *transitive*), the action proceeds in one direction—i.e., A helps B, but not necessarily vice versa. With reciprocal *kaingeseu*, however, the action proceeds in both directions (*mutually*)—i.e., A helps B while B also helps A. Compare sentences (4) and (1) in 10.1.

[Question 4]

The main requirement is that the subject of a reciprocal verb must be *semantically* plural. Thus, it could be any of the plural (non-emphatic) pronouns *aki*, *kede*, *kom*, or *te*. In some cases, the subject will be *formally* marked for plural as well: it could be a *human plural noun* prefixed with *re-* (e.g., *rebuik*) or a *coordinate noun phrase* in which two or more nouns or (emphatic) pronouns are joined by the connecting word *me* ‘and’ (e.g., *Toki me a Satsko, ngak me tir*). Some sentence subjects, though not formally plural, must be interpreted as such when a reciprocal verb is used, as in

A bilis a mle kaiuetoir. ‘The dogs were chasing each other.’

[Question 5]

The formal evidence is that in the past tense, reciprocal verbs use the auxiliary word *mle* (characteristic of state verbs) as opposed to the infix past tense marker *-il-/-l-* (characteristic of action verbs). See (5a–c) in 10.1.1 for some sentence examples.

[Question 6]

We use different *auxiliary words*: *mo* for future, *mle* for past, and *mle* for recent past. See 10.1.1.

[Question 7]

The phonetic variants of the reciprocal prefix, as presented in 10.2, are *kai-*, *kau-*, *kao-*, *kaiue-*, *ke-*, *ka-*, and *cha-*. In 10.2.4.c the very rare variant *kak-* is also observed. With the

exception of *cha-*, it is basically impossible to predict from either the meaning or phonetic form of a particular stem which variant of the reciprocal prefix will be attached to it. The variant *cha-*, of course, occurs (optionally or obligatorily, with considerable variation among speakers) when the accompanying stem also begins with CH.

[Question 8]

Students may use any of the verbs given in the lists of (8) or (9). Recall that all of the causative verbs in (8), though causative in *form*, have lost their original causative meaning.

[Question 9]

If the causative verb is prefixed with *omek-*, its corresponding reciprocal verb is derived by replacing *ome-* with *kau-*. As a result, the derived reciprocal verb appears to have the form *kauk-* + verb stem, as in *kauklusech* ‘to wish each other luck’.

[Question 10]

The verb in *ou-* is a transitive verb that indicates a “one-way” relationship from the viewpoint of one of the participants. Thus, *oungalek* means that a particular parent (or set of parents) has one (or more) individuals as their child(ren), as in (11a)

Aki oungalek er a sechal.	‘We have a boy.’/‘We are the parents of a boy.’
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The corresponding reciprocal verb in *kau-*, however, emphasizes a “two-way” mutual relationship between two individuals (or sets of individuals). Therefore, *kaungalek* is used to indicate the blood relationship of parent to child and child to parent, as in the sentence

A George me a Hirosi a kaungalek.	‘George and Hirosi are related to each other as father and son.’
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[Question 11]

Both the imperfective form of a transitive action verb and a corresponding reciprocal verb can be related to (derived from) the *verb stem* (which occurs in the *basic form* of the verb). Since the basic form of the verb meaning “to cut (hair)” is *mekimd* ‘(hair) gets cut’, the verb stem is KIMD. Based on KIMD, we have the following derivations:

- a. Reciprocal *kakimd* is formed simply by adding the reciprocal prefix *ka-* to the verb stem.
- b. Imperfective *mengimd* is formed by adding the verb marker prefix *me-* and applying the proper rule of consonant alternation (see 5.6.3). In this case, the consonant alternation rule to be applied changes the K of the basic stem KIMD to NG.

We can conclude from the above that the imperfective form of a transitive action verb and a corresponding reciprocal verb are *indirectly* related to each other through the verb's *basic form*.

[Question 12]

Reduplication is a phonetic process by which all or part of a verb stem is repeated (*reduplicated*) when particular types of words (e.g., reciprocal verbs) are derived. Many reciprocal verbs show (optional or obligatory) reduplication of some part of the related verb stem. See (15) in 10.2.3.1 for examples and discussion.

[Question 13]

Mekeald is a state verb whose internal structure consists of the verb marker *me-* followed by the (bound) stem KEALD. To form the reciprocal verb *kakeald*, the reciprocal prefix *ka-* is simply added to the stem KEALD. In terms of meaning, the reciprocal verb *kakeald* has combined a feature of *causation* with the idea of mutual effect: thus, *kakeald* 'to keep each other warm' really means something like "A causes B to be warm, and B causes A to be warm".

[Question 14]

As indicated in several discussions, there is some individual and regional variation among Palauan speakers as to the acceptability and/or meaning of particular reciprocal verb forms. This situation is not unusual when fairly complex derivational processes are involved. For some interesting examples, see the discussion following (15) in 10.2.3.1, and note the introductory paragraph on *cha-* in 10.2.5.

[Question 15]

One type of complex noun, as noted in 8.4, can be derived by inserting the *resulting state infix -l-* into a verb stem. The very same process can be applied to certain reciprocal verbs, in which case the *-l-* is infixed after the initial K of the reciprocal prefix. The resulting word is a derived noun with abstract meaning. See 10.3 for examples and discussion.

[Question 16]

a. *Examples:*

Te mle chachelebed.	'They were hitting each other.'
Ngara uchul me kom di kadidiich?	'Why are you insulting each other?'
Debo dekelatk!	'Let's remember each other!'

b. *Examples:*

Te kesilek a bilir.

'They are washing each other's clothes.'

A rengalek a blechoel el keleng
a kloklor.'The children are always borrowing
each other's things.'c. *Examples:*A rubak a mle kadereborb
er a chelsel a bai.'The old men were sitting together
inside the men's house.'**[Question 17]**

Simply add the reciprocal prefix *ka-* to (1) an imperative verb form or (2) a propositive verb form. The result will be a milder, more sympathetic command or proposal. See (22–25) in 10.5 for examples and discussion.

KEY TO EXERCISES

[10.9: Reciprocal Verbs in Palauan: Exercises]

[Exercise 1]

Make sure that students use the proper auxiliary word for the indicated tense (*mle* for past, *mo* for future, etc.). Note that *chacherakl* is related to the *intransitive* action verb *mengerakl* 'to work in a work party' and therefore exhibits the meaning of *joint* activity—namely, 'to work together in a work party'. In addition, the reciprocal verb *kaiuiuid* 'to exchange (each other's clothes, etc.)' will be used in a *transitive reciprocal sentence* similar to those of (19–20) in 10.4.

[Exercise 2]

- oldekedek: kaudekedek 'to chase/fight e.o.'
- olecholt: kaiuecholt 'to show (something) to e.o.; exchange (secrets) with e.o.'
- olechau: kaiuechau 'to attract e.o.'s attention'
- omekerreu: kaukerreu 'to take care of e.o.'
- oldiu: kaiuediu 'to shout together'
- omdidm: kaiuedidm 'to spy on e.o.; watch for e.o. carefully'
- oldoseb: kaiuedoseb 'to relieve e.o. from pain, overwork, etc.'
- orrimel: kaiuerimel 'to urge/persuade e.o.'
- oltamet: kaiuetamet 'to pull e.o. by the hands'
- oltobed: kaiuetobed 'to make e.o. come out'
- oldars: kaiuedars 'to do lifting together'
- orresors: kaiuesors 'to drown e.o.; make e.o. sink'
- olengaok: kaiuengaok 'to whistle to e.o.'
- omekrael: kaukrael 'to guide/advise e.o.'
- omcheracheb: kaucheracheb 'to bully e.o.'
- oldubech: kaiuedubech 'to push e.o.'
- olechib: kaiuechib 'to pass by e.o.; (teeth) crooked'
- orrebet: kaiuerebet 'to make e.o. fall (as game); compete with e.o.'
- olsisechakl: kausisechakl 'to teach/set examples for e.o.'
- oltelechakl: kautelechakl 'to accuse/suspect e.o.'

[Exercise 3]

- oubetikerreng: kaubetikerreng 'to show mutual concern or affection'
- oucheraro: kaucheraro 'to treat e.o. as enemies; hate e.o.'
- oungeroel: kaungeroel 'to scold/quarrel with e.o.'
- outoketok: kautoketok 'to quarrel/argue with e.o.'
- oureng: kaureng 'to long for e.o.'

- ouretakl: kauretakl 'to go out with e.o. (secretly)'
 outkeu: kautkeu 'to greet/welcome e.o.'
 oungelek: kaungelek 'to be related as parent and child'

[Exercise 4]

Make sure that the idea of reciprocity (mutual action or relationship) is reflected clearly in each English translation given.

[Exercise 5]

- mengesimer: (1) reciprocal: *chachesimer* 'to shut e.o. in (as game)'
 (2) consonant alternation: CH→NG
 (3) verb stem: *chesimer* (independent noun) 'door'
- mengedib: (1) reciprocal: *kakedib* 'to hit/slap e.o.'
 (2) consonant alternation: K→NG
 (3) verb stem: *kedib* (bound)
- melibas: (1) reciprocal: *kasibas* 'to trip e.o.; make e.o. stumble'
 (2) consonant alternation: S→L
 (3) verb stem: *sibas* (bound)
- omusekl: (1) reciprocal: *kabusekl* 'to entwine e.o.'s legs while sleeping'
 (2) consonant alternation: B→M
 (3) verb stem: *busekl* (independent noun) 'action of covering person with legs when sleeping'
- mengoir: (1) reciprocal: *kakoir* 'to try to keep pace with e.o. (socially); even out e.o.'s hair'
 (2) consonant alternation: K→NG
 (3) verb stem: *koir* (bound)
- meruul: (1) reciprocal: *keruul*, *karuruul* (reduplicated) 'to protect e.o.; do things with e.o. in mind; make (something) for e.o.'
 (2) consonant alternation: **none**
 (3) verb stem: *ruul* (bound)
- melemolem: (1) reciprocal: *kelemolem* 'to follow e.o.'s wishes/suggestions'
 (2) consonant alternation: **none**
 (3) verb stem: *lemolem* (bound), obligatorily possessed noun *lemelemel* 'length'
- omulak: (1) reciprocal: *kabulak* 'to lie to e.o.'
 (2) consonant alternation: B→M
 (3) verb stem: *bulak* (independent state verb) 'lying, deceitful'

- mengerodech: (1) reciprocal: *chacherodech* 'to make noise/complain about (something) together; argue with e.o. noisily'
 (2) consonant alternation: CH→NG
 (3) verb stem: *cherodech* (independent state verb) 'noisy'
- meliualech: (1) reciprocal: *katiualech* 'to throw sticks at e.o.'
 (2) consonant alternation: T→L
 (3) verb stem: *tiualech* (independent noun) 'stick for throwing (at birds, fruit, etc.)'
- melidiich: (1) reciprocal: *kadidiich* 'to insult each other'
 (2) consonant alternation: D→L
 (3) verb stem: *didiich* (independent noun) 'act of insulting'
- mengelmolm: (1) reciprocal: *kakelmolm* 'to tickle e.o. (lightly)'
 (2) consonant alternation: K→NG
 (3) verb stem: *kelmolm* (independent noun) 'act of tickling (lightly)'
- melmesim: (1) reciprocal: *kasemesim* 'to shake e.o.'
 (2) consonant alternation: S→L
 (3) verb stem: *s(e)mesim* (bound)
- mesab: (1) reciprocal: *kesab* 'to pick at (food) together; (dogs) snap at e.o.'
 (2) consonant alternation: **none**
 (3) verb stem: *sab* (bound)

[Exercise 6]

- omitokl: (1) *kabebitol* '(people) sleeping with heads in opposite directions; (statements, words) contradictory'
 (2) *-be-*
- omtechei: (1) *kaitutechei* 'to exchange (things)'
 (2) *-tu-*
- mesubed: (1) *hasbesubed* 'to tell/inform e.o.'
 (2) *-sbe-*
- mesumech: (1) *kasmesumech* 'to give e.o. a farewell message; massage e.o.'
 (2) *-sme-*
- melaod: (1) *katotaod* '(people, things) going in all directions; (things) scattered in a mess'
 (2) *-to-*
- ousiangel: (1) *kausisiangel* 'to touch/talk with e.o. playfully'
 (2) *-si-*
- olengasech: (1) *kaingesengasech* 'to scramble onto (vehicle, etc.) in a hurried, disorganized way'
 (2) *-ngese-*

- tuobed: (1) *kaitebetobed* 'to come/go out together'
(2) *-tebe-*
- oker: (1) *kakerker* 'to ask e.o.'
(2) *-ker-*
- osiik: (1) *kasisiik* 'to look for e.o.'
(2) *-si-*
- olturk: (1) *katerturk* 'to assault e.o. verbally; (cars, etc.) crash into e.o.'
(2) *-ter-*
- dechor: (1) *kedekedechor* '(group of objects, people) all standing up at once'
(2) *-deke-* (note change of CH in original repeated portion *-deche-* to K of *-deke-*, probably under influence of word-initial *k-*)
- melubet: (1) *kangebengubet* 'to free e.o. of blame; take off (e.o.'s clothes); take off (clothes, etc.) together'
(2) *-ngebe-*

[Exercise 7]

Make sure that students' sentences show the proper grammatical markers for tense and that their English translations accurately reflect the sense of the particular reciprocal verb. Note that some of the reciprocal verbs from Exercise 6 have a *joint* (rather than reciprocal) meaning: *kaingesengasech*, *kaitebetobed*, and *kedekedechor*.

[Exercise 8]

The corresponding reciprocal verbs are *kaodengei* 'to know e.o., keep track of e.o.', *kasoes* 'to see/meet e.o., see (e.o.'s shadows, etc.)', *kaucheraro* 'to treat e.o. as enemies', *kaukledem* 'to help/accompany e.o.', and *kaumerang* 'to trust e.o.'. Check students' sentences for accuracy of tense, English equivalents, etc.

[Exercise 9]

Sample transitive reciprocal sentences are given below, together with English translations:

- | | | |
|-------------------|----------------------------------------------------------|----------------------------------------------------|
| <i>keleng:</i> | A rengalek a blechoel el keleng a klokliir. | 'The children are always borrowing e.o.'s things.' |
| <i>kengoid:</i> | A Satsko me a Toki a mle kengoid a bilir. | 'Satsko and Toki took e.o.'s clothes by mistake.' |
| <i>kengatech:</i> | Debo dekengatech a sidosia er kid. | 'Let's wash our cars in a group.' |
| <i>kaiuiuid:</i> | A rengalek er a skuul a sorir el kaiuiuid a hong er tir. | 'The children like to exchange e.o.'s books.' |
| <i>kaiuedoid:</i> | Ng sebecchiu el mo kaiuedoid a keliu? | 'Can you (pl.) share your food with e.o.?' |

SUGGESTIONS FOR ADDITIONAL ACTIVITIES

1. Following the approach of General Comment 4, pick a particular stem (from any of the data in Lesson 10) and then have students derive as many related forms as possible from that stem. The derived forms may be organized into a list modeled after the presentation for *mekeald* in (a–e) of General Comment 4. For every verb stem examined, be sure that students provide the basic form, imperfective form, perfective forms, resulting state and expected state forms, causative verbs, reciprocal verbs, any derived nouns, and so on. The following stems taken from the data of Lesson 10 are suggested as being most productive for such an exercise:
 - a. *sobel* (bound) in *suobel* ‘to survive, be saved’
 - b. *renge*s (bound) in *orrenge*s ‘to hear, listen, obey’
 - c. *rael* (independent noun) ‘road’ in *omekrae*l ‘to guide, advise’
 - d. *dakt* (independent noun) ‘fear’ in *omekdakt* ‘to frighten’
 - e. *lath* (bound), *letkel* (obligatorily possessed noun) ‘remembrance, recollection’ in *melath* ‘to remember’
 - f. *buch* (independent noun) ‘spouse’ in *oubuch* ‘to be married to (someone)’
 - g. *tekoi* (independent noun) ‘language, word’ in *melekoi* ‘to speak’
 - h. *dul* (bound) in *melul* ‘to broil, roast’
 - i. *boes* (independent noun) ‘gun’ in *omoes* ‘to shoot’
 - j. *bart* (bound) in *obart* (basic form) ‘get hidden’
 - k. *keed* (bound), *kedel* (obligatorily possessed noun) ‘nearness’ in *kmeed* ‘near’
2. Choose a representative text of naturally written Palauan (letter, story, newspaper article, etc.) and have students locate all the reciprocal verbs within it. Each reciprocal verb should be analyzed in terms of internal structure (including possible reduplication), meaning, and related forms (i.e., corresponding causative verbs, derived verbs in *ou-*, etc.).

11

Teacher's Manual

REDUPLICATION IN PALAUAN

GENERAL COMMENTS

1. Although touched upon briefly at several points earlier in this handbook, the topic of reduplication has not been given full treatment until the current lesson. The major reason for this delay is that reduplication applies to many types of verbs—state verbs, intransitive action verbs, transitive action verbs (both in the basic form and imperfective form), causative verbs, reciprocal verbs, and others—which must naturally be presented first before their reduplicated forms can be systematically analyzed. In addition, the phonetic features of reduplication are very complex, and therefore a detailed study of the actual forms as well as the principles involved necessarily requires a totally separate lesson.

While much additional data has been added and certain technical discussions of verb derivation eliminated, the material in this lesson broadly corresponds to what is presented in Sections 11.1 to 11.11 of PRG Chapter 11. Other materials in that lesson—i.e., Sections 11.12 to 11.12.6 on “predictive” and “inchoative” verb forms—have been separated out, expanded, and reworked into Lesson 12 (following) of this handbook.

2. Just as in PRG Chapter 11, we approach the description of Palauan reduplication from three major viewpoints: (a) the phonetic patterns of reduplication and how they can be described in as general a way as possible; (b) the different features of meaning that reduplicated forms can convey; and (c) the various types of verbs (and, in a few cases, nouns) to which reduplication can apply. The phonetic patterns of reduplication are superficially very numerous and complex, and for ease of understanding these are introduced to students gradually throughout the lesson, as we move from one verb type to another. In spite of the wide variety of individual details, it is nevertheless possible to condense the patterns of Palauan reduplication into five major patterns or formulas, which are presented in 11.14 as the “Summary of Palauan Reduplicative Forms”. In the summary chart given there, it is clear that Palauan reduplication basically involves three syllable types (C_1e , C_1V , and C_1VC_2) and two possible combinations of these ($C_1e + C_1V$ or $C_1e + C_1VC_2$).
3. Although quite intimidating in its detail, Palauan reduplication is a group of processes that are very much at the “heart” of the language. Native speakers of Palauan use reduplicative forms widely and actively, and it is even an area of the grammar where forms can be playfully or humorously invented. It is also an area in flux where there are

often alternate or competing forms, and you should not be surprised if students have differing opinions about the correct phonetic form or semantic interpretation of particular reduplicative words.

4. The major points about reduplication that students should learn from this lesson are listed below:
 - a. Reduplication applies to almost every type of Palauan verb, as well as to a few groups of nouns.
 - b. The phonetic patterns of reduplication can be straightforwardly summarized as in 11.14. First, there are three basic patterns—namely:
 - (1) C_1e , where the reduplicated syllable consists of C_1 , the first consonant of the stem, followed by a full E. Note that C_1e is considered a separate type because it contains a full E even though the reduplicated syllable is always *unstressed*.
 - (2) C_1V , where the reduplicated syllable consists of C_1 , the first consonant of the stem, followed by I, O, or U. The I, O, or U can usually be viewed as resulting from processes of vowel weakening (shortening of a long vowel or vowel cluster).
 - (3) $C_1VC_2(e)$, where C_1 and C_2 are the first and second consonants of the stem, and V is usually weak E. This weak E between C_1 and C_2 results from processes of vowel weakening (reduction of a single full vowel to weak E). The (weak) E shown after C_2 is added in some cases as a buffer between C_2 and the initial consonant of the following stem.

Second, the basic pattern C_1e can combine with the other two, yielding two additional more complex patterns—namely:

- (4) $C_1e + C_1V$
- (5) $C_1e + C_1VC_2(e)$
- c. Depending on the type of verb (or noun) involved, reduplication changes the original meaning in one of several major ways:
 - (1) The reduplicated form can indicate a *weakened* or *diminished quality* when compared with the meaning of the original verb. Most state verbs show this meaning change—e.g., *beot* ‘cheap’/*bebeot* ‘rather cheap’, *mechesang* ‘busy’/*mechechesang* ‘rather busy’, etc. The reduplicated forms of four common obligatorily possessed nouns (see 11.3) also show this weakening of meaning—e.g., *soal* ‘like to’/*sosoal* ‘sort of like to’.
 - (2) The reduplicated forms of state verbs formed with *beke-* or *seke-* indicate a *habit* or *tendency*, as in *bekebesbes* ‘forgetful, always forgetting’.
 - (3) The reduplicated forms of *intransitive* action verbs normally indicate actions done *continually* or *repeatedly*, often without much purpose, aim, or conscious

control—e.g., *merael* ‘to walk, travel’/*mererorael* ‘to wander around (aimlessly)’. The same type of idea is also conveyed by the reduplicated *imperfective* forms of *transitive* action verbs, as in *melub* ‘to spit’/*melebtub* ‘keep spitting’ and *omoes* ‘to shoot’/*omeboes* ‘keep shooting (often, indiscriminately)’. Some causative verbs fall into this group as well—e.g., *oltobed* ‘to take out’/*oltetebetobed* ‘keep taking out’.

- (4) The reduplicated *basic* forms of *transitive* action verbs have the very specialized meaning ‘easy to...’, as in *meseseb* ‘get burned’/*meseseseb* ‘easy to burn, flammable’.
 - (5) The reduplicated forms of *resulting state verbs* (see 11.5) also have a very specialized meaning involving *partial* completion of an action, as in *ngeltachel* ‘cleaned’/*ngengeltachel* ‘not well cleaned’.
 - (6) In a few groups of words (e.g., verbs prefixed with *ou-* or *o-*), reduplication does affect the meaning, but in rather specialized and unpredictable ways—e.g., *ourenng* ‘to wish for’/*oururenng* ‘to miss, be nostalgic for’.
 - (7) Reduplication appears to have no effect on the meaning in some cases, especially those involving reciprocal verbs (e.g., *kesuub*/*kasusuub* ‘to imitate each other’) and fossilized reduplication (e.g., *kikiongel* ‘dirty’).
- d. As noted in (3) above, reduplication is a very widespread and productive process, so that it is natural to expect alternative phonetic forms in some cases, as well as disagreement among Palauan speakers as to the correct form, meaning, or use of a particular reduplicated form.
 - e. In certain reduplicated forms such as *mesesusaul* ‘kind of tired’ and *mededekdakt* ‘rather afraid’ that involve syllables of the form C_1V or C_1VC_2 , the actual vowels that occur (U of *su* and weak E of *dek* in these examples) can most likely be viewed as resulting from *processes of vowel weakening*. Thus, we can say that in the process of reduplicating *mesaul*, the second reduplicated syllable actually repeats the *entire* vowel cluster of the original stem, giving an “underlying” form like “me-se-sau-saul”. However, because the reduplicated syllable *sau* is *unstressed*, its vowel cluster AU will be *shortened* to U, giving us the actual form me-se-su-SAUL (with stress on the final syllable).

In the same way, in the process of reduplicating *medakt*, the second reduplicated syllable actually repeats the full vowel A of the stem, giving an “underlying” form like “me-de-dak-dakt”. Again, because the reduplicated syllable *dak* is *unstressed*, its vowel A will be *reduced* to a weak E, resulting in me-de-dek-DAKT (with stress on the final syllable). It is therefore clear that some of the major phonetic aspects of reduplication—in particular, the phonetic form of the reduplicated syllables C_1V and C_1VC_2 —are merely reflections of the principles of vowel weakening, which apply widely in many classes of Palauan words. For more details, consult *Note 4* at the end of 11.6.

SPECIFIC COMMENTS

[11.1]

1. With the topic of reduplication studied in this lesson, we will almost complete our coverage of the internal structure (morphology) of Palauan verbs. The last remaining topics relevant to verb morphology—i.e., inceptive and predictive verb forms—will be presented in Lesson 12.

[11.1.1]

1. This section is merely an introduction to the issue of how Palauan reduplicated syllables are pronounced, and therefore it covers only one type of reduplicated syllable—namely, C_1e (consonant + E). The most interesting point is that reduplicated syllables of the form C_1e stand out phonetically because the E is always pronounced as a *full E* even though the syllable is *unstressed*. As our discussion of Palauan reduplication proceeds, the phonetic forms of other reduplicated syllables will be described in detail.

[11.1.2]

1. This section is designed as an introduction to reduplication since it selects those groups of reduplicated forms that have been mentioned earlier in the textbook. Thus, students should already be somewhat familiar with the form and meaning of (1) reduplicated verbs prefixed with *beke-* or *seke-*; (2) reduplicated reciprocal verbs; and (3) state verbs of size and dimension like *kehere* ‘small’ that show (“fossilized”) reduplication.
2. The purpose of *Note 1* is to give students a preliminary idea that in addition to C_1e (with full E) there are other types of reduplicated syllables such as C_1eC_2 (containing weak E and indicated in this note as *consonant + E + consonant*).

[11.2]

1. The reduplicative pattern for simple state verbs is quite straightforward. A reduplicated syllable of the form C_1e (with full E) is prefixed, and the resulting meaning change involves a *diminished* or *weakened* quality.
2. *Note 2* introduces an exceptional form like *kiklou* and gives a preliminary look at what will be called “fossilized” reduplication in 11.13.

[11.1.3]

1. Although (obligatorily possessed) *nouns* are involved rather than verbs, the pattern of reduplication found in such forms as *kirel/ kekirel*, *soal/sosoal*, etc., resembles what we have already described for simple state verbs in 11.2 (and *Note 2*). The meaning change—diminishing or weakening of the original quality—is also similar.
2. The reduplicated nouns brought up in the last paragraph of this section are all very specialized and idiosyncratic.

[11.4]

1. The reduplicative pattern for (complex) state verbs prefixed with the verb marker *me-* is identical to that for the simple state verbs given in 11.2—i.e., the phonetic form of the reduplicated syllable is C_1e , and the meaning change involves weakening.
2. Note 3 introduces a few exceptional items similar to *klou/kiklou* of Note 2. It then gives students a preliminary look at a more complex reduplicative pattern observed in such pairs as *meseke*/*meseke**meseke*. In this simplified presentation, the reduplicated portion *-seke-* of *meseke**meseke* is analyzed as $C_1e + C_2e$ (with weak E's). In the final summary of 11.14, this sequence is of course presented as pattern (40c)—i.e., $C_1VC_2(e)$, where V is usually weak E (resulting from vowel weakening) and the second (parenthesized) E serves as a phonetic “buffer” between C_2 and the following initial consonant of the original stem.
3. We do not find anything very unusual when reduplicating state verbs like *smecher*, which contain the infixed verb marker. The reduplicated syllable is again C_1e , and weakening of meaning is involved.

[11.5]

1. The reduplication of *resulting state verbs* shown in 11.5 is actually a rather minor phenomenon, since only a few commonly used examples can be found. Again, the phonetic pattern is C_1e , and the meaning change involves weakening (though the forms in question are best translated into English as ‘not well cleaned’, etc.).

[11.5.1]

1. Most reduplicated forms of state verbs in *beke-* and *seke-* have a common feature of meaning involving tendency (“prone to...”) or frequency (“always/constantly...-ing”). In the examples of (11), we see two reduplicative patterns: (1) C_1V as in *beke**sisaik*, or (2) $C_1VC_2(e)$ as in *beke**sechesecher*. This second pattern, described here for simplicity as $C_1eC_2(e)$, is of course pattern (40c) of 11.14.
2. The reduplicative pattern for the examples of (12), which involves inserting a syllable of the form KE, is rather unique and specialized.

[11.6]

1. The reduplicative patterns given here for *medakt/medede**kdakt*, *medinges/medede**ngedinges*, and the other examples of (13) are, as noted, nothing more than combinations of already familiar patterns. Though written here as $C_1eC_1eC_2$ or $C_1eC_1eC_2(e)$, these patterns obviously represent the complex pattern $C_1e + C_1VC_2(e)$ presented as (40e) of 11.14.
2. The reduplicated forms of (14) follow the complex pattern $C_1e + C_1V$ presented as (40d) of 11.14.

3. Although you may be tempted to omit *Note 4* because of its apparent complexity, it does try to pull together several concepts and make students realize that certain principles—in this case, the *principles of vowel weakening*—are of very wide applicability throughout the Palauan language. The main point is that the vowels observed in reduplicated syllables of the form C_1V or $C_1VC_2(e)$ are not just arbitrary or unpredictable but in fact result from the very general application of the principles of vowel weakening, which state that single vowels, double vowels, or vowel clusters are routinely reduced (or weakened) in unstressed syllables. This is most obvious in a reduplicated form like *mesesisaik* (from *mesaik*), where we would want to explain why the vowel of the second reduplicated syllable SI is in fact I (as opposed to O or U, for example). In this specific example, the reduplicative pattern is, of course, $C_1e + C_1V$, and we are concerned about why the V of C_1V becomes I. All of this can be explained if we assume that the reduplicated syllable C_1V really involves (at some more basic or “underlying” level) a repetition of the *entire* vowel cluster of the original stem. Thus, when reduplicating *mesaik*, we first get the sequence “me + se + sai + saik”. We must remember, however, that the final syllable of this word remains *stressed*, while all the other syllables become *unstressed*. Therefore, the unstressed (reduplicated) syllable SAI will be affected by the principles of vowel weakening. Since SAI contains the vowel cluster AI, this cluster will be reduced (in an unstressed syllable) to a single (full) vowel. Thus, we finally derive *me-se-si-SAIK* by applying the principles of vowel weakening.
4. Similar arguments are given within *Note 4* to explain vowel weakening in the forms *me-de-dek-DAKT* (the single full vowel A is reduced to weak E in the reduplicated syllable DEK) and *me-se-su-SAUL* (the vowel cluster AU is reduced to the single full vowel U in the reduplicated syllable SU).
5. The relatively minor details of *Note 5* and *Note 6* should be self-explanatory.

[11.7]

1. Intransitive action verbs are reduplicated according to several already familiar patterns, namely—

C_1e	as in <i>mechechiis</i>
$C_1e + C_1V$	as in <i>meleluluut</i>
$C_1e + C_1VC_2(e)$	as in <i>merereberebet</i>

As mentioned at the beginning of this section, it is interesting to note that even when an intransitive action verb contains an *infix* verb marker—e.g., *ruebet*—the verb marker reappears as the prefix *me-* in the reduplicated form (*merereberebet*).

2. In the last three items of (16)—*merereberebet*, *metetebetobed*, and *mesesebesebek*—the reduplicative pattern is $C_1e + C_1VC_2(e)$. In the first reduplicative syllable C_1e , the E is of course a full E. In the second reduplicative syllable $C_1VC_2(e)$, however, the V is a weak E in every case. This weak E can be considered a result of *vowel weakening* if we follow the

same analysis that was suggested in *Note 4*. Thus, for example, we can propose the “underlying” form “me + te + to + be + to + bed”, in which the original full vowel O of the reduplicated syllable TO undergoes reduction to weak E in an unstressed syllable, yielding *me-te-te-be-TO-bed*. In this form, the second weak E of $C_1VC_2(e)$ is simply a buffer vowel added between C_2 of the reduplicated portion and the initial consonant of the following stem.

3. Intransitive action verbs (as well as *transitive* action verbs in the imperfective form—see 11.9) have reduplicated forms indicating actions that occur *repeatedly* or *continually*. It is important to note that if a human agent (doer) is involved, we often have the implication that the action is being pursued without much aim, purpose, or conscious control.

[11.8]

1. Make sure that students understand why we have introduced the two terms *basic form* vs. *processive form* for one and the same form —e.g., *mechelebed* ‘get hit’.
2. Reduplication applies to the *basic forms* of transitive action verbs using all five familiar phonetic patterns—namely,

C_1e	as in <i>mechechesimer</i>
C_1V	as in <i>mesusuub</i>
$C_1VC_2(e)$	as in <i>obelebalech</i>
$C_1e + C_1V$	as in <i>mekekikiut</i>
$C_1e + C_1VC_2(e)$	as in <i>mededengedanges</i>

3. In terms of meaning, the reduplicated basic forms of transitive action verbs have a very special interpretation—namely, “(someone/something) is easy to...”, where the dots can be filled by any transitive action verb.

[11.9]

1. Two simple patterns of reduplication can be applied to the *imperfective forms* of transitive action verbs—namely,

C_1V	as in <i>mengikiis</i>
$C_1VC_2(e)$	as in <i>melekedoko</i>

However, it is very important to note that C_1 in each of these patterns will be affected by the applicable rule of *consonant alternation* (see 5.6.3). In *mengikiis*, for example, C_1 of the reduplicated syllable C_1V is basically K, but it must be changed into NG (which is the consonant that occurs in the corresponding imperfective form *mengiis*). Similarly, in *melekedoko*, C_1 of the reduplicated sequence $C_1VC_2(e)$ is basically D, but it likewise must be changed into L (which is the consonant seen in the corresponding imperfective form *meloko*). See observation (a) after the examples of (24) for a more detailed explanation.

2. It is not surprising that in reduplicated syllables of the form $C_1VC_2(e)$, we see the results of vowel weakening—see observation (b) after the examples of (24) for further details.
3. For the examples of (26), the consonant alternations and corresponding basic forms are as indicated below:

<i>Reduplicated Form</i>	<i>Consonant Alternation</i>	<i>Basic Form</i>
mengikiis	$K \rightarrow NG$	mekiis 'get dug'
melituich	$T \rightarrow L$	metuich 'get shined upon'
omeboes	$B \rightarrow M$	oboes 'get shot'
omebeu	$B \rightarrow M$	obeu 'get broken'

In all of the reduplicated forms above, we see clear evidence that processes of vowel weakening have applied—i.e.,

- a. *mengikiis*: the I of NGI results from shortening of the double vowel II of the stem.
- b. *melituich*: the I of LI results from shortening of the vowel cluster UI of the stem.
- c. *omeboes*: the (full) E of ME results from shortening of the vowel cluster OE of the stem.
- d. *omebeu*: the (full) E of ME results from shortening of the vowel cluster EU of the stem.

[11.9.1]

1. In this section we observe transitive action verbs whose imperfective forms are reduplicated by the combined pattern $C_1e + C_1VC_2(e)$ —i.e., (40e) of 11.14. Just as in the case of the simpler patterns noted in 11.9, C_1 is affected by the applicable rule of consonant alternation. However, since C_1 occurs twice in the combined pattern here, we will find *two* instances of consonant alternation in the reduplicated portion. Furthermore, these reduplicated words are made unusual by the appearance of the relevant consonant alternation in the original stem itself. Thus, even though the contrast between basic *mengimet* 'get bailed' and imperfective *melimet* 'to bail' indicates an NG—L consonant alternation, the NG of the basic form is not found anywhere in the reduplicated form *melelemelimet*, which therefore shows *three* instances of L.
2. Some transitive action verbs have imperfective forms that are reduplicated by a very unusual pattern. Although the reduplicated syllable is C_1e and C_1 matches the stem-initial consonant of the corresponding *basic* form, we find that the reduplicated syllable is directly preceded by an *extra* consonant which matches that of the verb's *imperfective* form. Therefore, as forms like *mengchechelebed* and *ombebekall* show, the extra consonant and C_1 will always be co-members of a consonant alternation pair (NG and CH, M and B, etc.).

3. The pattern just described in (2) above is sometimes augmented by a second reduplicated syllable of the form C_1V or C_1VC_2 , as shown in the examples of (30). Each of the forms of (30) is analyzed below:

<i>mengchechichuiu:</i>	verb marker:	me-
	reduplicated portion:	-ng-che-chi-
	consonant alternation:	NG—CH
	basic form:	mechuiu
<i>mengkekikiut:</i>	verb marker:	me-
	reduplicated portion:	-ng-ke-ki-
	consonant alternation:	NG—K
	basic form:	mekiut
<i>ombeberebart:</i>	verb marker:	o-
	reduplicated portion:	-m-be-bere-
	consonant alternation:	M—B
	basic form:	obart
	additional feature:	weak E is inserted as a buffer after C_1VC_2

[11.10]

1. The phonetic patterns of reduplication found in verbs prefixed with *ou-* or *o-* are not difficult to classify. The reduplicated syllable is inserted right after the verb-initial prefix *ou-* or *o-*, and it can take the following forms:

C_1e	as in <i>ousesechelei</i>
C_1V	as in <i>osisiu</i>
C_1VC_2	as in <i>okerker</i>

2. The meaning changes brought about by reduplicating verbs in *ou-* or *o-*, although rather specialized in some examples, cover already familiar semantic patterns.

[11.11]

1. There are two patterns for reduplicating causative verbs. The first is very specialized and involves adding a syllable KE (or KI) within the causative prefix *omek-*, as in *omekesiu/omekekesiu*. The second applies only to causative verbs prefixed with *ol(e)-* and involves adding C_1e (e.g., *olterau/olteterau*) or $C_1e + C_1VC_2(e)$ (e.g., *oltobed/oltetebetobed*).
2. While the first group of reduplicated causative verbs usually shows a weakening of meaning (see the translations in 34), the second group implies continual or repeated action (see the translations in 35).

[11.12]

1. A reduplicated reciprocal verb normally does not differ in meaning from a corresponding nonreduplicated form, if there is one, as in *kesuub/kasusuub*. Fossilized reduplication is quite common in these forms.
2. The reduplicated syllables follow predictable phonetic patterns, especially C_1V and $C_1VC_2(e)$.

[11.13]

1. The term *fossilized reduplication* applies to forms that are clearly reduplicated phonetically but which are fundamentally independent forms in terms of their meaning and morphological relationships. In other words, they are only marginally, or perhaps not at all, related to any other forms. For example, *bekerkard* 'red' might have a tenuous relationship to the obligatorily possessed noun *kerdel* 'its flame' and the corresponding state verb *kmard* 'lighted, on fire', but *dechudech* 'dirty, muddy' (also a noun meaning 'mud') seems to be completely independent.
2. Words containing fossilized reduplication do not show any of the usual meaning changes (weakening of quality, continual or repeated action, etc.) found in all those cases where reduplication applies productively to many members of a particular verb type.
3. As mentioned in Note 7, the prefix *be-* seems to be particularly associated with fossilized reduplication.

[11.14]

1. The summary of Palauan reduplicated forms is presented here from two useful viewpoints: (1) phonetic pattern of the reduplication and (2) type of verb (or noun) to which reduplication applies. The charts of (40) and (41) are so essential that students should copy them into their notebooks. They can also be copied onto the blackboard for convenience of reference during class discussions.

KEY TO STUDY QUESTIONS

[11.16: Reduplication in Palauan: Study Questions]

[Question 1]

Section A

1. **Reduplication** (*in general*): a phonetic process in which part (or even all) of a given verb (or noun) stem is repeated, often with a resulting change in meaning. (See 2–4 below for specific examples.)
2. **Reduplicated Syllable C_1e** : a syllable used for reduplication that is formed by repeating the initial consonant (C_1) of the verb stem and adding the full vowel E.

Examples: bebugong, dedekimes, etc.

3. **Reduplicated Syllable C_1V** : a syllable used for reduplication that is formed by repeating the initial consonant (C_1) of the verb stem and adding a full vowel E, I, O, or U. The full vowel occurring as “V” often results from processes of vowel weakening—specifically, shortening of a long vowel or vowel cluster in an unstressed syllable.

Examples: mesisaik, omeboes, etc.

4. **Reduplicated Syllable $C_1VC_2(e)$** : a syllable used for reduplication that has the following characteristics:
 - a. C_1 and C_2 correspond to the initial and second consonant of the verb stem;
 - b. V is usually weak E resulting from processes of vowel weakening—specifically, reduction of an original full vowel to weak E in an unstressed syllable;
 - c. The parenthesized E is always weak E, sometimes added between C_2 and the following (stem-initial) consonant as a buffer (for ease of pronunciation).

Examples: meremram, mesekeseked, etc.

5. **“Fossilized” Reduplication**: reduplicative patterns that are found in particular stems (and reflect traces of some older processes) but are no longer part of any productive derivational patterns. Words containing fossilized reduplication do not show any of the typical meaning changes found among the more productive reduplicative patterns.

Examples: dechudech ‘dirty, muddy’, kekerei ‘small’, bisebusech ‘lightning’, etc.

Section B

1. **Principles of Vowel Weakening**: a group of phonetic processes by which full vowels, double vowels, and vowel clusters are affected in *unstressed* syllables. The full vowels A, (full) E, I, O, and U are usually reduced to a weak E (or sometimes even deleted), while double vowels and vowel clusters are shortened.

Application to Reduplication: In reduplicated syllables of the form C_1V or $C_1VC_2(e)$, the vowel represented by V is often the result of vowel weakening processes.

Examples: In *mesesisaik*, the reduplicated syllable *SI* contains the vowel *I*, which is derived from the vowel cluster *AI* of the original stem *SAIK* by a process of vowel weakening.

In *mereremram*, the reduplicated syllable *REM* has a weak *E*, which is derived from the single full vowel *A* of the original stem *RAM* by a process of vowel weakening.

2. **Unstressed Syllable:** any syllable in a multisyllabic word other than the *stressed* (i.e., loudest and most forcefully pronounced) syllable.

Application to Reduplication: Reduplicated syllables of the form C_1V and C_1VC_2 are always unstressed, and therefore they undergo the various vowel weakening processes. Also, reduplicated syllables of the form C_1e are special in that, even though unstressed, the *E* always remains a full (unreduced) *E*.

Examples: *me-se-si-SAIK*, *me-re-rem-RAM*

3. **State Verb:** a verb that indicates a state, quality, or condition (as opposed to an action).

Application to Reduplication: Many groups of state verbs can undergo reduplication, especially with the pattern C_1e . The meaning change that occurs usually involves weakening of the quality described by the verb.

Examples: *bebeot*, *kekedung*, *sesmecher*, *bekekesengorech*, *mekikngit*

4. **Resulting State Verb:** a type of state verb indicating the state that the sentence subject is in as a *result* of the action in question having been carried out.

Application to Reduplication: A few resulting state verbs can undergo reduplication using the pattern C_1e .

Examples: *ngenglemull*, *ngengeltachel*

5. **Intransitive Action Verb:** a verb indicating an action that involves only the subject (doer) but no object (recipient).

Application to Reduplication: Many intransitive action verbs can be modified by reduplication, especially with the complex patterns $C_1e + C_1V$ or $C_1e + C_1VC_2(e)$. The resulting meaning change involves continual or repeated action.

Examples: *meleluluut*, *metetebetobed*

6. **Basic Form of Transitive Action Verb:** the structurally simplest form of a transitive action verb whose internal structure consists of the sequence *verb marker* + *verb stem*. The basic forms of transitive action verbs have a *processive* meaning—i.e., the sentence subject undergoes the process referred to by the given transitive action verb.

Application to Reduplication: The basic forms of transitive action verbs can undergo reduplication using the full range of reduplicative patterns. The meaning is very specialized—i.e., “easy to...”

Examples: *mechechesimer*, *melelechelechetchet*, *obebibuid*.

7. **Imperfective Form of Transitive Action Verb:** a form of the transitive action verb derived from the corresponding basic form by the *principles of consonant alternation*. Imperfective forms of transitive action verbs indicate that the subject (doer) is (or was) carrying out a particular action that affects the object (recipient), but this action is in progress (not brought to completion).

Application to Reduplication: The imperfective forms of transitive action verbs can be modified by reduplication, using the full range of reduplicative patterns. Such reduplicated forms always show the effect of *consonant alternation* somewhere within the word. The meaning normally involves continual or repeated action.

Examples: *melebtub*, *omelebalech*, *mengikiis*, *meleltelatech*.

8. **Causative Verb:** a verb prefixed with *omek-*, *ol(e)-*, etc. indicating that someone causes or forces someone else to do something, or causes someone (or something) to be in a particular state.

Application to Reduplication: Depending on whether they are prefixed with *omek-* or *ol(e)-*, causative verbs undergo the process of reduplication according to two patterns. The resulting meaning either involves weakening (for *omek-* causatives) or continual or repeated action (for *ol(e)-* causatives).

Examples: *omekikdakt*, *olekekerkar*

9. **Reciprocal Verb:** a verb prefixed with *ka-*, *kai-*, *kau-*, etc., indicating that two or more persons (animals, etc.) carry out the same action with mutual effect (i.e., affect each other).

Application to Reduplication: Quite a few reciprocal verbs show fossilized reduplication. These forms normally do not differ in meaning from any corresponding nonreduplicated forms.

Examples: *kasusuub*, *kautoketok*

10. **Obligatorily Possessed Noun:** a noun which only occurs in a possessed form and does not have any independently-occurring stem.

Application to Reduplication: The four commonly used obligatorily possessed nouns *soal*, *chetil*, *kirel*, and *sebechel* can be modified by reduplication. The resulting meaning involves weakening.

Examples: *sosoal*, *chechetil*, *kekirel*, and *sesebechel*

[Question 2]

Many verb forms are affected *phonetically* by reduplication, which involves adding one or more syllables according to the patterns of (40a–e) in 11.14. In addition, reduplication almost always has a *semantic* effect—i.e., it changes the meaning of the verb. With state verbs, for example, the meaning change involves a weakening of the quality described by the verb, with action verbs (transitive or intransitive) there is usually an implication of continual or repeated action, and so on.

[Question 3]

In *be*-BEOT and *se*-SME-*cher*, the word-initial reduplicated syllables *be* and *se* have the form C_1e , pronounced with a *full E* even though the syllable is *unstressed*. This is one of the major exceptions to the generalization that Palauan (spelled) E is usually pronounced as a *weak E* in unstressed syllables.

[Question 4]

In state verbs of size or dimension, we often see a reduplicated syllable *ke*, which is either obligatory, as in *kekere* 'small', or optional, as in *(ke)kedeb* 'short'.

[Question 5]

The formula C_1e is interpreted as follows: C_1 is the first (initial) consonant of the verb stem, and *e* is the full vowel E. When we reduplicate simple state verbs, we prefix an extra syllable of the form C_1e , as in *bulis/bebulis*, *dekimes/dedekimes*, and so on.

[Question 6]

With simple state verbs, reduplication normally results in a weakening or diminishing of the quality or state described by the verb. Thus, while *dekimes* is 'wet', *dedekimes* is 'somewhat/rather wet (but not completely wet)'. Similarly, *kedung* means '(very) well-behaved', but *kekedung* is only 'rather well-behaved'.

[Question 7]

The four commonly used obligatorily possessed nouns of liking, disliking, ability, and obligation (see 3.10) have reduplicated forms (see 11.3). The pattern C_1e is found in *chetik/chechetik*, *kirek/kekirek*, and *sebechek/sesebechek*, while C_1V is found in *soak/sosoak*.

[Question 8]

The reduplicated sequence takes such forms as C_1e (*mesesulaul*), C_1V (*medidirt*), $C_1VC_2(e)$ (*mesekesekek*), etc. The added sequence always follows the word-initial verb marker *me-*.

[Question 9]

First of all, it is an alternate reduplicated form, more complex than the equivalent *mesisaik*. While *mesisaik* has a reduplicated syllable of the form C_1V (*si*), *mesesisaik* is formed by adding two syllables of the form $C_1e + C_1V$ (*se + si*). Second, the vowel *i* of C_1V most likely results from processes of vowel weakening (see Note 4).

[Question 10]

The reduplicative process found in *mererechereched* follows pattern (40e) of 11.14—i.e., it is a combined pattern of the form $C_1e + C_1VC_2(e)$. C_1e is represented by the *re* directly following the verb marker, and $C_1VC_2(e)$ is represented by *reche* (with the extra weak *E* as a buffer).

[Question 11]

When reduplication applies to state verbs with an infixed verb marker, we prefix a reduplicated syllable of the form C_1e to the entire word while keeping the verb marker in its original infixed position. Typical examples are *smecher/sesmecher*, *chuarm/chechuarm*, etc.

[Question 12]

Reduplicated state verbs normally indicate a weakened or diminished quality (Eng.: “quite/rather/somewhat...”). The expression *ko er a* ‘kind of/rather...’ also serves to weaken or diminish a quality and therefore can be used with reduplicated state verbs quite compatibly.

[Question 13]

As noted in 11.5, a resulting state verb is used to describe a situation in which someone or something is currently in a state resulting from the performance of the particular action. Resulting state verbs are formed either by infixing the resulting state infix *-(e)l-* within the verb stem (e.g., *nglatech* ‘cleaned’ from the basic form *mengatech* ‘get cleaned’) or by combining this infix simultaneously with a suffix *-el*, *-ull*, etc. (e.g., *ngeltachel* ‘cleaned’, likewise from *mengatech*). A few resulting state verbs formed by this process of simultaneous infixing and suffixing can be reduplicated using the pattern C_1e (e.g., *ngengeltachel* ‘not well cleaned’ from *ngeltachel*).

[Question 14]

As noted in 11.5 1, state verbs prefixed with *beke-* (or *seke-*) are normally reduplicated by the two common patterns C_1V (as in *bekesisaik*) or $C_1VC_2(e)$ (as in *bekesechesecher*). Such reduplicated forms fall into a category of meaning indicating that an action or state tends to occur or occurs frequently (e.g., *bekesisaik* means something like ‘tending to be

lazy' or 'constantly lazy'). A small group of state verbs in *beke-* are reduplicated by the special pattern of inserting the syllable *ke* within the original prefix (as in *bekeketekoi*). Forms derived by this pattern show a weakening of meaning, so that *bekeketekoi* has the meaning 'rather talkative'.

[Question 15]

In *mededekdakt* and *mededengedinges*, the reduplicated portions *de + dek* and *de + denge* both have the structure $C_1e + C_1VC_2(e)$, a combination of the two individually-occurring patterns C_1e and $C_1VC_2(e)$. See the list of patterns in (40) of 11.14.

[Question 16]

Note: You may omit having students answer this question if you have chosen to leave out or de-emphasize *Note 4*. In the words below, the phonetic form of the italicized reduplicated syllables reflects the principles of vowel (or vowel cluster) weakening as indicated:

- mededekdakt*: the weak E of *dek* is a reduced E resulting from the weakening of the full vowel A of the stem *dakt*.
- mesesusaul*: the U of *su* results from the shortening of the vowel cluster AU of the stem *saul*.
- mekekikiut*: vowel cluster shortening, as in (b).
- mengikiis*: the I of *ngi* results from shortening the double vowel II of the stem *kiiis*.

[Question 17]

Intransitive action verbs are reduplicated mainly with the complex patterns $C_1e + C_1V$ or $C_1e + C_1VC_2(e)$, as in the forms *meleluluut* and *metetebetobed*. The resulting meaning change involves continual or repeated action.

[Question 18]

See the answer to Question 1-B-6 above. Almost all possible patterns of reduplication apply to the basic forms of transitive action verbs. All reduplicated basic forms have the specialized meaning "easy to..."

[Question 19]

The concept of consonant alternation must be brought up when discussing the reduplication of imperfective forms. This is because we find that although familiar patterns such as C_1V and $C_1VC_2(e)$ are used, C_1 must be changed to reflect the rules of consonant alternation. For example, in *melebtub*, we have the reduplicated syllable *leb* representing C_1VC_2 , but C_1 does not match the stem-initial consonant T of *tub*. Instead, the T of the stem has been changed to L according to one of the rules of consonant alternation that normally apply to imperfective verb forms. Similarly, in *melengdangch* the reduplicated syllable *leng* (C_1VC_2) has been affected by the consonant alternation D—L, while in

omelebalech the reduplicated portion *mele* (C_1VC_2e) has been affected by the consonant alternation B—M.

[Question 20]

1. *melektuk*:
 - a. reduplicated portion: *lek* (C_1VC_2)
 - b. E of *lek* is weak
 - c. weak E of *lek* results from reduction of single full vowel (U of stem *tuk*) in unstressed syllable: *me-lek-TUK*
 - d. applicable consonant alternation rule: T becomes L
 - e. meaning: 'to chop into small pieces'
2. *melecheluches*:
 - a. reduplicated portion: *leche* (C_1VC_2e)
 - b. both E's of *leche* are weak (second E is buffer)
 - c. first weak E of *leche* results from reduction of single full vowel (U of stem *luches*) in unstressed syllable; second (buffer) E is also weak because it is unstressed: *me-le-che-LU-ches*
 - d. applicable consonant alternation rule: none (in this case, L remains L)
 - e. meaning: 'keep writing/scribbling'
3. *omeboes*:
 - a. reduplicated portion: *me* (C_1V)
 - b. E of *me* is full
 - c. full E of *me* results from shortening of vowel cluster (OE of stem *boes*) in unstressed syllable: *o-me-BOES*
 - d. applicable consonant alternation rule: B becomes M
 - e. meaning: 'keep shooting (indiscriminately)'
4. *omebeu*:
 - a. reduplicated portion: *me* (C_1V)
 - b. E of *me* is full
 - c. full E of *me* results from shortening of vowel cluster (EU of stem *beu*) in unstressed syllable: *o-me-BEU*
 - d. applicable consonant alternation rule: B becomes M
 - e. meaning: 'keep breaking'

[Question 21]

In these reduplicated imperfective forms, the reduplicated syllable itself is preceded by an extra consonant which is identical to the other member of a given consonant alternation

pair. Thus, we have *ngch* in *mengchechichuiu* and *mb* in *ombebekall*. *Mengchechichuiu* involves, in addition, the combined reduplicative pattern $C_1e + C_1V$, which is (40d) of 11.14.

[Question 22]

The great majority of reduplicated imperfective verbs have a meaning that indicates continued or repeated action. Therefore, examples chosen by students will normally be translated into English as “keep...-ing”, “...continually”, etc.

[Question 23]

1. *oungengeroel*: reduplicated syllable is *nge* (C_1e)
2. *ourureng*: reduplicated syllable is *ru* (C_1V , but appearance of U is unpredictable)
3. *ousesekool*: reduplicated syllable is *se* (C_1e)
4. *oumismisk*: reduplicated syllable is *mis* (C_1VC_2)
5. *osisiu*: reduplicated syllable is *si* (C_1V , with vowel I resulting from applying vowel cluster shortening to original IU of stem)
6. *osisiik*: reduplicated syllable is *si* (C_1V , with vowel I resulting from applying double vowel shortening to original II of stem)

In all the examples above, the reduplicated syllable is of course added between the prefix *ou-* or *o-* and the stem.

[Question 24]

As indicated in 11.10, reduplicated verbs in *ou-* or *o-* cover a range of familiar meaning patterns: some involve weakening of the given quality, while others show continual or repeated action. There are also some specialized, unpredictable meanings. See (32) in 11.10 for examples.

[Question 25]

See the answer to Question 1-B-8 above.

[Question 26]

See the answer to Question 1-B-9 above.

[Question 27]

See the answer to Question 1-A-5 above.

[Question 28]

Students may base their answer on the summary chart given in (41) of 11.14.

KEY TO EXERCISES

[11.17: Reduplication in Palauan: Exercises]

[Exercise 1]

Most of the examples given in this exercise can be found in the text. The requested information is summarized in the chart below, where Column I = the original item, Column II = the reduplicated form, and Column III = the pattern of reduplication. The English meaning of the reduplicated form is also provided.

I	II	III
obes	obesbes 'keep forgetting'	C_1VC_2
bekesengorech	bekekesengorech 'smelling rather like a pig's house'	C_1e
songerenger	sesongerenger 'rather hungry'	C_1e
ruebet	merereberebet 'to fall one by one'	$C_1e + C_1VC_2e$
klou	kiklou 'a little bigger'	C_1V
metemall	metetemall 'easily broken'	C_1e
melobs	melebdobs 'keep objecting to'	C_1VC_2
melobech	melelebelobech 'keep chopping'	$C_1e + C_1VC_2e$
menguui	mengichuii 'keep reading'	C_1V
	mengchechichuii 'keep reading'	$C + C_1e + C_1V$
omekdakt	omekikdakt 'to frighten a little'	C_1V
kesuub	kasusuub 'to imitate each other'	C_1V
chuarm	chechuarm 'to suffer a little'	C_1e

medakt	mededekdakt 'somewhat afraid of'	$C_1e + C_1VC_2$
ngeasek	ngengeasek 'rather young'	C_1e
mechesimer	mechechesimer 'easy to close'	C_1e
mesaik	mesisaik 'rather lazy'	C_1V
	mesesisaik 'rather lazy'	$C_1e + C_1V$
tuobed	metebetobed 'keep coming out'	C_1VC_2e
	metetebetobed 'keep coming out'	$C_1e + C_1VC_2e$
obuid	obebibuid 'easy to glue'	$C_1e + C_1V$
melatech	meleltelatech 'keep cleaning'	$C_1e + C_1VC_2e$
ouren	ourureng 'be nostalgic for'	C_1V
ousechelei	ousesechelei 'be sort of friends with'	C_1e
keruul	karuruul 'to make (something) for each other'	C_1V
oker	okerker 'to ask around'	C_1VC_2
medinges	mededengedinges 'rather full'	$C_1e + C_1VC_2e$
mecherocher	mechecherocher 'rather salty'	C_1e
merael	mererorael 'to walk aimlessly'	$C_1e + C_1V$
nglemull	ngenglemull '(grass) not well cut'	C_1e

obalech	obelebalech 'easy to shoot (with slingshot)'	C_1VC_2e
	obebelebalech 'easy to shoot (with slingshot)'	$C_1e + C_1VC_2e$
omalech	omelebalech 'keep shooting (with slingshot)'	C_1VC_2e
mengiis	mengikiis 'keep digging'	C_1V
oklukl	okiklukl 'keep coughing'	C_1V
omekall	ombebekall 'keep sailing/driving around'	$C + C_1e$
olterau	olteterau 'to sell a little at a time'	C_1e

Additional notes on the patterns of reduplication in Column III:

- melebdobs*: shows consonant alternation D—L
- melelebelobech*: shows no consonant alternation (L remains L)
- mengichuii*: shows consonant alternation CH—NG
- mengchechichuii*: the first C of the pattern $C + C_1e + C_1V$ is the extra consonant NG, the partner of CH in the alternation CH—NG
- meleltelatech*: the vowel A of C_1VC_2e has been deleted in this rather unusual form
- mererorael*: the vowel O of C_1V results from a blending of the two original vowels in the cluster AE of the stem (just as in the possessed forms of *rael*: *rolek*, *rolem*, etc.)
- omelebalech*: shows consonant alternation B—M
- ombebekall*: the first C of the pattern $C + C_1e$ is the extra consonant M, the partner of B in the alternation B—M

[Exercise 2]

bedeng:	bebedeng 'rather stagnant'
mechubs:	mechechubs 'sort of healed'
kedidai:	kekedidai 'rather high'
mekeald:	mekekeald 'rather hot'
bulis:	bebulis 'half-witted'
tedobech:	tetedobech 'half crazy'
merekos:	mererekos 'rather sweet'
metongakl:	metetongakl 'fairly tall'
betok:	bebetok 'just more than enough'
medeomel:	mededeomel 'rather spoiled, overprotected'
bleob:	bebleob '(generally) round in shape'
kesai:	kekesai 'rather insufficient'
mechuu:	mechechuu 'fairly shady'
mechucheb:	mechechucheb '(sky) rather cloudy'
mechelaod:	mechechelaod 'rather content'
bubong:	bebubong 'rather senile'
kedung:	kekedung 'fairly well-behaved'
bibrurek:	bebibrurek 'yellowish'
silil:	sesilil, sisilil 'always wanting to play'
cheball:	checheball 'rather gray-haired'
mellemau:	melellemau 'light blue'

[Exercise 3]

Make sure that the translation of each sentence reflects the *weakening* effect that reduplication has on the meaning of each state verb.

[Exercise 4]

Make sure that the translation of each sentence reflects either of the following meaning categories for reduplicated state verbs in *beke-* (or *seke-*): (1) *tendency* to occur, or occurring with great *frequency*; (2) *weakening* of quality.

[Exercise 5]

- a. *meiusech/mesesiusech*: The stem of *meiusech* is an independent noun *iusech* ‘calmness (of the sea)’. In the reduplicated form, we have the added sequence *ses*, where the consonants match the *S* of the stem *iusech*. It appears that we have a reduplicated syllable of the form C_1e (note the full *E* pronunciation), followed by an extra C_1 . Since *iusech* does not begin with a consonant (its initial sound is, in fact, the glide “y”, spelled as *I* within the diphthong *IU*), C_1e has no stem-initial consonant to copy, but instead utilizes the first available consonant in the stem—namely, *S*.
- b. *uau/mesesuuau*: The stem is *uau*, an independent state verb meaning ‘foolish, crazy’. The reduplicated form shows the verb marker prefix *me-* followed by the sequence *sesu*. This reduplicated portion has the structure C_1e (with full *E*) + C_1V (where the *U* results from vowel cluster reduction applied to *AU* of the stem). The consonant *S* of the reduplicated portion is completely unpredictable, as it occurs nowhere in the stem *uau*.
- c. *reborb/mededereborb*: The stem is *reborb*, an independent state verb meaning ‘sitting, squatting’. The reduplicated form shows the verb marker *me-* followed by the sequence *dede*. This sequence has the structure C_1e (with full *E*) + C_1V . However, instead of the expected *R* (which is the initial consonant of the stem *reborb*), we find that a *D* has been substituted for C_1 in both parts of this formula.

[Exercise 6]

Make sure that the English equivalent for each reduplicated basic form reflects the meaning “easy to...”

[Exercise 7]

Make sure that the English equivalent for each reduplicated imperfective form reflects the meaning of *continual* or *repeated* action.

[Exercise 8]

- a. *tingaol*: *outetingaol* ‘keep lying to’, C_1e
- b. *reng*: *ourureng* ‘to miss, be nostalgic for’, C_1V
- c. *sekool*: *ousesekool* ‘keep playing (around)’, C_1e
- d. *klukl*: *okiklukl* ‘keep coughing’, C_1V
- e. *siik*: *osisiik* ‘to look for casually’, C_1V

[Exercise 9]

- a. dakt: kadekdakt 'be afraid of each other', C_1VC_2
- b. meleng: kalengleng 'to borrow (each other's things)', C_1VC_2
- c. subed: kasbesubed 'to tell/inform each other', C_1VC_2e (with V deleted)
- d. siik: kasisiik 'to look for each other', C_1V
- e. sumech-,
smechel: kasmesumech 'to say farewell to each other', C_1VC_2e (with V deleted)
- f. olturk: katerturk 'to assault each other verbally', C_1VC_2
- g. ousbech: kausisbech 'to need/help each other', C_1V
- h. tekangel: kautitekangel, kaititekangel 'to argue with each other', C_1V

[Exercise 10]

The additional fossilized reduplicated forms that students discover will probably be simple state verbs, reciprocal verbs, verbs in *ou-* or *o-*, or nouns.

SUGGESTIONS FOR ADDITIONAL ACTIVITIES

1. Find a text (a story, legend, etc.) written in natural Palauan and have students point out any reduplicated forms used in it. For each form discovered, students can be asked to supply such information as (a) a related (nonreduplicated) stem or form, (b) the phonetic pattern of reduplication (based on 40a–e of 11.14), and (c) the part of speech and meaning of the reduplicated form.
2. From the *NPED*, choose at random 25 state verbs, 25 reciprocal verbs, 25 transitive action verbs in the imperfective form, and so on. For each item chosen, see if there is a corresponding reduplicated form. If such a reduplicated form exists, analyze it according to (a–c) of (1) above.
3. Take each of the reduplicative patterns in (40a–e) of 11.14. For each pattern, have students list as many reduplicated forms as they can think of that conform exactly to that pattern. There could be hundreds, for example, for C_1e ! Make it into a contest to see which student (or team of students) can discover the largest number of acceptable reduplicated forms for a given pattern. A similar exercise could be organized based on the verb (or noun) types listed in (41a–m).

12

Teacher's Manual

ADDITIONAL TYPES OF VERB SUFFIXES IN PALAUAN

GENERAL COMMENTS

1. In this lesson, which is the final presentation of Palauan verb morphology, students are introduced to two further derivational processes that result in the so-called *inceptive* and *predictive* verb forms. While the categories *inceptive* and *predictive* are fairly easy to define, there are nevertheless some interesting contrasts between predictive verb forms and other verb forms relating to the future (see 12.3.1 for a quick review of all the relevant structures).

The material in this lesson is taken from the final sections of Chapter 11 of the PRG. While the term *predictive* remains unchanged, in the current textbook we use the term *inceptive* instead of PRG's "inchoative".

2. Inceptive and predictive verb forms are derived by attaching suffixes to several major classes of Palauan verbs. The inceptive suffix *-a(ng)* (with variant forms *-e(i)* and *-o(ng)*, as noted in 12.6.1) can be added to transitive and intransitive action verbs, as well as to state verbs. The predictive suffix *-u(ng)* is observed with transitive and intransitive action verbs only and does not attach to state verbs. Regardless of the original verb type (action vs. state, etc.), the inceptive and predictive forms of verbs exhibit the full range of *vowel weakening processes* since the inceptive and predictive suffixes themselves are always *stressed* and certain vowels or vowel clusters within the original verb stem therefore come to appear in *unstressed* syllables.

The data given in lists (8), (12), (16), (19), and (20) include examples of single vowel reduction to weak E (e.g., A changes to weak E in *merasm—meresma*), deletion of a single vowel (e.g., loss of I in *kesib—kesbenga*), shortening of a vowel cluster (e.g., reduction of OE to O in *oboēs—obosa* or total modification of AE to a new vowel O in *merael—merola*), and a new type of "blending" in which the *-m-* of an infixed verb marker combines with an adjacent vowel to form an entirely new vowel (e.g., MA turns into O in *lmangel—longela*).

3. In addition to presenting the inceptive and predictive forms in lists (together with comments about their phonetic features), we also give several groups of examples that illustrate how these forms are used in full sentences. The lesson closes with two brief sections on the inceptive and predictive forms of *mo* ‘to go’ (12.7) and on the independent predictive word *ku(ng)* (12.8).

SPECIFIC COMMENTS

[12.1-12.3]

1. The main issues to stress when introducing the inceptive and predictive suffixes are (1) their meaning and (2) the phonetic consequences (i.e., application of vowel weakening processes).

[12.3.1]

1. Because we have already introduced several verb forms that can be used to refer to the future, they are summarized here and compared with the *predictive form*, which is introduced for the first time in this lesson. While a predictive form such as *merolu* indicates an imminent event—one that is expected to occur in the very near future—a verb in the future tense such as *mo merael* refers to a relatively more remote future event.
2. In addition, using the present tense of either *perfective* verb forms or *basic* (processive) verb forms shares with predictive forms the connotation of imminency, though perfective and basic forms in the present tense tend to function overwhelmingly as warnings.
3. Finally, an *expected state verb* like *ngetachel* ‘is/needs to be cleaned’ expresses the speaker’s judgment that something *should* or *ought* to be cleaned.

[12.4]

1. In this section, where we observe the inceptive and predictive forms of various intransitive action verbs, the most interesting issue is the effect of vowel weakening processes on the resulting verb forms. In particular, we see several typical examples in which an original vowel cluster is changed into a totally new vowel (when unstressed) in the inceptive and predictive forms. This kind of “vowel blending” is observed in the following derivations (with the stressed syllable in capital letters):

- | | | |
|-----|--------------|----------------------------------------------|
| (1) | UE becomes O | SUE-bek → so-be-KANG
RUE-bet → ro-be-TANG |
| (2) | AE becomes O | me-RAEL → me-ro-LUNG |

We also note a similar kind of vowel blending in the inceptive form of the state verb *chuarm* ‘to suffer’—i.e.,

- (3) UA becomes O CHUARM (one syllable) → chor-MANG

Although the details of tongue position for vowels (i.e., high vs. mid vs. low, front vs. back) were not introduced in Lesson 1, some students may be curious about “vowel blending”—in other words, why do the three vowel clusters UE, AE, and UA all blend into O? If we specify the tongue positions of the relevant vowels as indicated below, we can see that the resulting O represents a “blend” or *compromise* between the positions of the two original vowels:

- (1) U is high-back and E is mid-front; resulting O is mid-back, taking one feature from U and the other from E;
 - (2) A is low-back and E is mid-front; resulting O is mid-back, again taking one feature from A and the other from E;
 - (3) U is high-back and A is low-back; resulting O is mid-back, in this case keeping the common back feature of U and A but compromising at *mid* level between the high position of U and the low position of A.
2. The phonetic changes listed above occur regardless of whether both vowels are part of the verb stem (as in *merael*—*merolu*) or one is in fact an infixed verb marker (e.g., *-u-* in *suebek*—*sobeka*, etc.).
 3. In *lmangel*—*longela/longelu*, we note that the combination MA (where *-m-* is the infixed verb marker and *a* is part of the stem *langel*) also undergoes a kind of reduction to the single vowel O when the (stressed) inceptive or predictive suffix is added. We can speculate that the consonant *-m-* is first “reduced” to the vowel U (a “rounded” vowel that still maintains the *labial* quality of M), which then blends regularly with A (as in *chuarm*—*chorma*) to give the resulting vowel O of *longela/longelu*.

[12.5]

1. In the inceptive and predictive forms of (12), we note the following applications of vowel weakening processes:
 - a. *melekoi*—*melekinga/melekingu*: vowel cluster shortening: OI becomes I. Note appearance of “buffer” *-ng-* between stem and suffix.
 - b. *omekall*—*omekella/omekellu*: single vowel reduction: A becomes weak E.
 - c. *mengesimer*—*mengesmera/mengesmeru*: single vowel deletion: I is totally lost.
 - d. *omurech*—*omrecha/omrechu*: single vowel deletion: U is totally lost.
 - e. *melecholb*—*melechelba/melechelbu*: single vowel reduction: O becomes weak E.
2. In the sentences of (15), we observe the inceptive forms of the following action verbs: *olengull* ‘to relax’, *orrenge* ‘to hear’, and *omuchel* ‘to begin’.

[12.5.1]

1. In the examples of (16), we observe the following weakening processes:
 - a. oboes—obosa/obosu: vowel cluster shortening: OE becomes O.
 - b. mechelebed—mechelebeda/mechelebedu: single vowel reduction: full E (between L and B of stem) becomes weak E.
 - c. merasm—meresma/meresmu: single vowel reduction: A becomes weak E.
 - d. metemall—metemella/metemellu: single vowel reduction: A becomes weak E.

[12.6]

1. In the examples of (19), we find the following vowel weakening processes:
 - a. mekelekolt—mekelekelta: single vowel reduction: O becomes weak E.
 - b. mekeald—mekelda: vowel cluster shortening: EA becomes (single full) E.
 - c. songerenger—songerengera: single vowel reduction: full E (between R and NG of stem) becomes weak E.
 - d. kikiong⁴el—kikengela: vowel cluster shortening: IO becomes weak E (relatively rare).
 - e. meringel—merengela: single vowel reduction: I becomes weak E.
 - f. mecherocher—mecherechera: single vowel reduction: O becomes weak E.
 - g. smecher—sochera: sequence ME (where *-m-* is the verb marker) is reduced to single vowel O (compare discussion of *lmangel* vs. *longela/longelu* in 12.4).
 - h. beral¹m—berelma: single vowel reduction: A becomes weak E.
 - i. medakt—medekta: single vowel reduction: A becomes weak E.
 - j. marek—merka: single vowel reduction: A becomes weak E; weak E of original stem *marek* also deleted.
 - k. mekar—mekerenga: single vowel reduction: A becomes weak E; “buffer” NG added between stem and suffix
 - l. klou—klunga: vowel cluster shortening: OU becomes U; “buffer” NG added between stem and suffix
 - m. ungil—ungia: only change is loss of L of stem.
 - n. chull—chella: single vowel reduction: U becomes weak E.
 - o. meduch—medecha: single vowel reduction: U becomes weak E.
 - p. mechubs—mechebsa: single vowel reduction: U becomes weak E.
 - q. kesib—kesbenga: single vowel deletion: I is totally lost; “buffer” NG added between stem and suffix.

[12.6.1]

1. In the examples of (20), the following vowel weakening processes take place:
 - a. mad—mede: single vowel reduction: A becomes weak E.
 - b. dechor—dechero: single vowel reduction: O becomes weak E.
 - c. meched—mechede: single vowel reduction: full E (in second syllable of *meched*) becomes weak E.
 - d. dmak—doknge: sequence MA (where *-m-* is the verb marker) is reduced to single O (cf. *smecher—sochera* in 12.6.g above and the discussion of *lmangel—longela/longelu* in 12.4).
 - e. mekngit—mekngte: single vowel deletion: I is totally lost; in *mekngte*, NG is syllabic—i.e., mek-ng-TE

KEY TO STUDY QUESTIONS

[12.10: Additional Types of Verb Suffixes in Palauan: Study Questions]

[Question 1]

The *inceptive suffix* is used to indicate an action or state that is in its beginning (or *inceptive*) stage, often with the implication of something new or unexpected. Inceptive verb forms have the English equivalents “starting to...” or “beginning to...” The *predictive suffix* is used to indicate an action or event that the speaker *predicts* will occur momentarily or imminently (i.e., in the very near future). Predictive verb forms are equivalent to English “(is) about to...”

[Question 2]

The predictive suffix *-u(ng)* is a *bound* morpheme that is attached to and spelled as part of the entire verb form. The predictive suffix *-u(ng)* is always stressed, with the result that processes of vowel weakening apply within the stems of predictive verb forms. By contrast, the predictive word *kung* is an *independent word* that can follow an entire separate verb form (even the predictive form itself, as shown by 24g–h). The predictive word *kung* has no phonetic effect (i.e., does not cause vowel weakening) on the verb form that precedes it. From the viewpoint of meaning, both the predictive suffix *-u(ng)* and the predictive word *kung* are the same.

[Question 3]

While a predictive verb form always indicates an imminent event (one that the speaker believes will happen within minutes or even seconds), the regular future tense with the auxiliary word refers to a relatively more remote or distant future event (one that might occur tonight, tomorrow, next week, next year, etc.).

[Question 4]

Both perfective verb forms and basic (processive) verb forms in the present tense indicate an imminent event and are used in sentences that function as warnings. Warnings with processive verb forms in the present tense focus on the person affected (which is the sentence subject) and indicate what will happen imminently to that person if precautions are not taken (e.g., *Alii. Kom medul er a ngau!* 'Watch out—you'll get burned by the fire!')

[Question 5]

- a. *Formal differences:* Predictive verb forms contain the predictive suffix *-u(ng)*, while expected state verbs contain the expected state suffix *-el* or other variants such as *-all*, *-uul*, *-iil*, etc. Because the predictive suffix *-u(ng)* is always stressed and certain variants of the expected state suffix (*-all*, *-uul*, *-iil*, etc.) are also stressed, all predictive verb forms and many expected state forms exhibit the effect of vowel weakening processes.
- b. *Meaning differences:* While predictive verb forms merely indicate an action or event believed to be imminent, expected state verbs involve the speaker's judgment that some future event must, ought to, or is required to happen.

[Question 6]

The full range of vowel weakening processes applies to the inceptive and predictive forms of (transitive or intransitive) action verbs. See General Comment 2 above for a comprehensive answer.

[Question 7]

As noted at the end of General Comment 2 above, the forms *lmangel: longela/longelu* show a special type of "blending" in which the *-m-* of the infix verb marker combines with an adjacent vowel to form an entirely new vowel (i.e., the sequence MA becomes O). See also Specific Comment 3 for [12.4] above.

[Question 8]

No, there is nothing particularly unusual or unexpected in the phonetic form of such verbs. The various processes of vowel and vowel cluster weakening apply generally to inceptive and predictive forms derived from the basic forms of transitive action verbs.

[Question 9]

These variants are *-e(i)* and *-o(ng)*. See 12.6.1 for examples.

[Question 10]

No. When the independent predictive word *ku(ng)* is used, the preceding verb form is not affected phonetically (i.e., no processes of vowel weakening apply).

[Question 11]

Mechikang (inceptive) is used to say goodbye to someone who is already in the actual process of leaving—e.g., walking out the door, etc. *Mechikung* (predictive) is used to say goodbye to someone who is observed getting ready to leave (but not yet moving out the door, etc.)

KEY TO EXERCISES**[12.11: Additional Types of Verb Suffixes in Palauan: Exercises]****[Exercise 1]**

1. For the forms in (8), see the detailed discussion in the Specific Comments 1–3 for [12.4] above. Note also that in *remurt: rurta/rurtu*, the verb marker *-em-* is totally lost in the inceptive and predictive forms.
2. For the forms in (12), see Specific Comment 1 for [12.5] above.

[Exercise 2]

- a. *chuarm*: inceptive form *chormang*; vowel cluster shortening: UA becomes entirely new vowel O
- b. *mo(ng)*: inceptive form *mocha(ng)*, predictive form *mochu(ng)*; appearance of CH between stem and suffix cannot be predicted
- c. *me(i)*: inceptive form *mermang*; restructuring of stem to *merm-* is totally irregular and unique
- d. *mededaes*: inceptive form *mededesang*; vowel cluster shortening: AE becomes (single full) E
- e. *rubak*: inceptive form *rubekngang*; single vowel reduction: A becomes weak E; “buffer” NG added between stem and suffix
- f. *mechas*: inceptive form *mechesei*; single vowel reduction: A becomes weak E; note that inceptive suffix is variant *-e(i)*
- g. *mechechei*: inceptive form *mechechingang*; vowel cluster shortening: EI becomes I; “buffer” NG added between stem and suffix
- h. *ngodech*: inceptive form *ngedechang*; single vowel reduction: O becomes weak E
- i. *ngobeet*: inceptive form *ngobetang*, predictive form *ngobetung*; double vowel shortening: EE becomes (single full) E
- j. *becheleleu*: inceptive form *bechelelengang*; vowel cluster shortening: EU becomes (single full) E; “buffer” NG added between stem and suffix

[Exercise 3]

1. For the forms in (16), see the Specific Comment for [12.5.1].
2. For the forms in (19), see the Specific Comment for [12.6].
3. For the forms in (20), see the Specific Comment for [12.6.1].

[Exercise 4]

Make sure that the sentences written by students are accurately translated into English using “about to...”

SUGGESTIONS FOR ADDITIONAL ACTIVITIES

1. Now that the entire range of Palauan verb forms has been introduced, ask students to write a chart or outline (in as much detail as possible) entitled “Types of Palauan Verbs”.
2. Find a selection written in natural Palauan and have students identify and analyze every verb form found in the material. You may wish to concentrate on verb types studied more recently—e.g., causative verbs, reciprocal verbs, reduplicated verbs, inceptive and predictive verb forms, etc.

