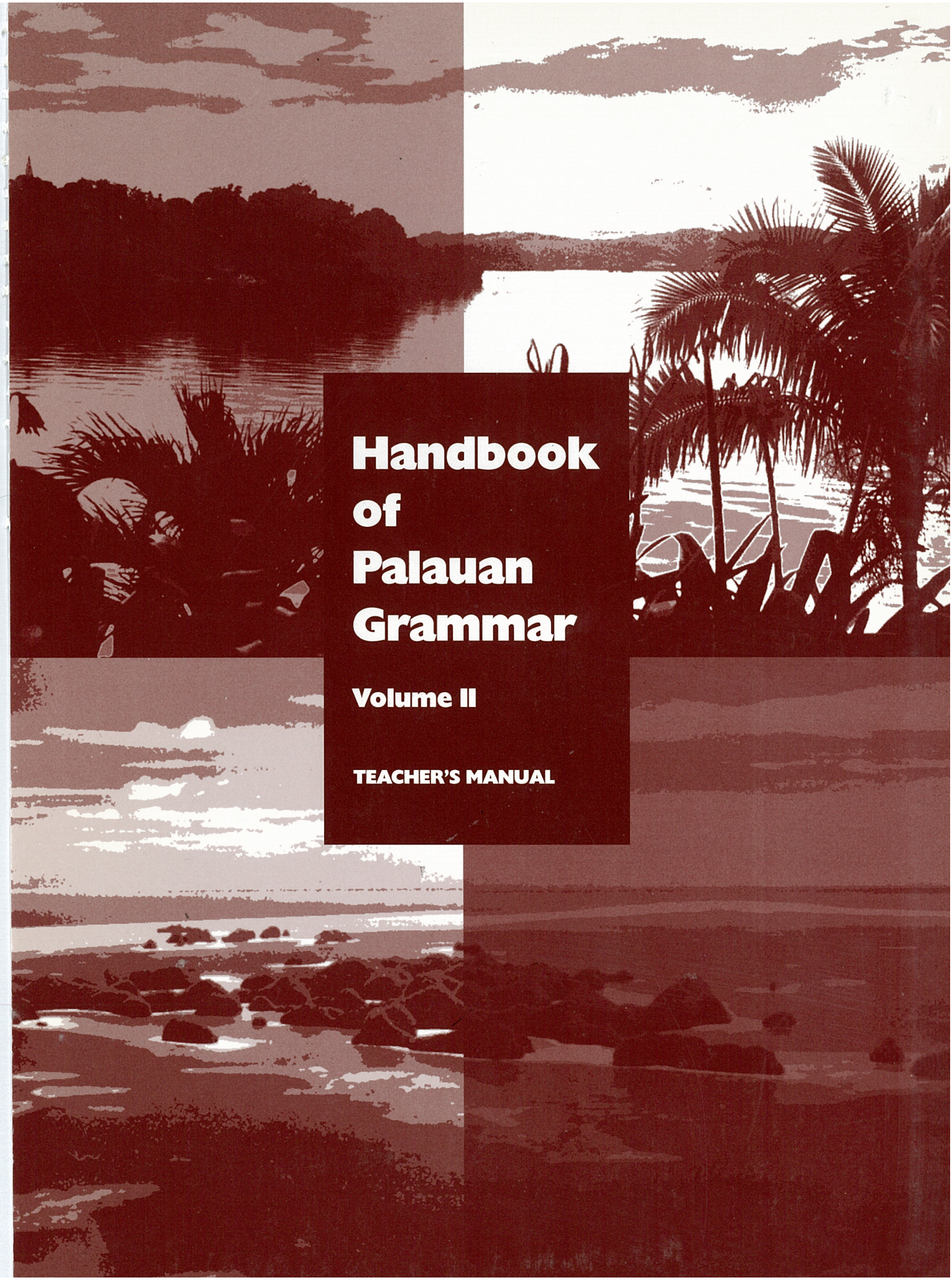


Handbook of Palauan Grammar

Volume II

TEACHER'S MANUAL

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TEACHER'S MANUAL

VOLUME II

Lewis S. Josephs

Apr. 16, 2009

Dear John,
May your interest in Palauan increase as the years go by!
Sincerely,
Lewis Josephs

Bureau of Curriculum & Instruction
Ministry of Education
Republic of Palau

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Teacher's Manual

RELATIONAL PHRASES IN PALAUAN

GENERAL COMMENTS

1. The material in this lesson corresponds to what is introduced in *PRG* Chapter 14. In addition, the major issues found in *PRG* Chapter 13 ("Directional Verbs") have been somewhat condensed and incorporated into the current lesson as 13.4.1 and 13.4.1.1–5.

   The main purpose of this lesson is to introduce students to the wide range of functions that Palauan relational phrases exhibit. It is important to note that, by definition, all relational phrases have the same internal structure—namely, the *relational word er* followed by a *noun phrase*. Therefore, the subclassification of relational phrases proposed in this lesson (i.e., locational phrase vs. directional phrase vs. source phrase vs. cause phrase, and so on) is really based on *semantic* rather than structural criteria. In other words, the main difference between a locational phrase vs. a directional phrase, for example, has to do with meaning—i.e., how the phrase in question complements the action or state described by the verb. Thus, one and the same relational phrase *er a Guam* can function as a *locational phrase* in (a) but as a *directional phrase* in (b):

   a. A Droteo a kie *er a Guam*. 'Droteo lives in Guam.'

   b. A Droteo a mlo *er a Guam*. 'Droteo went to Guam.'

   Our interpretation of the relational phrase *er a Guam* as locational vs. directional hinges crucially on the basic meaning of the accompanying verb itself. Since *kie* 'to live' in (a) is a *state* verb indicating continuing existence, we readily interpret *er a Guam* as the *location* of that state. By contrast, since *mo* 'to go' of (b) is an *action* verb denoting movement, we are immediately inclined to interpret *er a Guam* as a *directional phrase*—i.e., as naming the destination or termination point of the movement.

2. In a similar way, a verb phrase describing movement out of or away from something will necessarily focus our attention on the *source* of the movement. For this reason, speakers of Palauan have no trouble interpreting *er a blsibs* as a *source phrase* in the example below:

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

In addition, since a physical state like *smecher* 'sick' is often caused by something, the associated relational phrase *er a tereter* in the example below will easily be interpreted as a *cause phrase*:

A ngalek a smecher *er a tereter*. 'The child is sick from a cold.'

3. Sometimes the meaning of the individual words within a relational phrase make it absolutely clear what type of phrase is involved. This is particularly true with *temporal phrases*, where the word or expression within the phrase denotes some unit of time, as in the example below:

Ak mo mengedub *er a klukuk*. 'I will swim tomorrow.'

4. The number of relational phrases found within any given Palauan sentence will vary depending on how much extra information the speaker wishes to convey about the circumstances surrounding a particular action, event, state, etc. While most Palauan sentences do not require a relational phrase, as the example below shows,

A ngelekek a mlo smecher. 'My child got sick.'

the speaker will often choose to provide additional information by including one or more relational phrases. Thus, if the speaker wishes to mention the *cause* of the illness, the sentence above will be expanded as follows:

A ngelekek a mlo smecher er a tereter. 'My child got sick with a cold.'

To provide even further information about the circumstances of the illness, the speaker may also choose to include the *location* or the *time* of the event, resulting in the sentences below:

a. A ngelekek a mlo smecher er a tereter er a Saipal. 'My child got sick with a cold in Saipan.'

b. A ngelekek a mlo smecher er a tereter er a elii. 'My child got sick with a cold yesterday.'

As noted in 13.8, there are several commonly occurring combinations of multiple relational phrases, as well as a preferred order of phrases. Thus, the examples of (9), (61), and (62) show that a temporal phrase will always follow a relational phrase from another category. Exercise 1 gives students more practice in identifying relational phrases, many of which cooccur with others in a given sentence.

As indicated in 13.2.a, certain Palauan verbs seem to require the coocurrence of at least one relational phrase. For example, the existential state verb *ngar* (past tense: *mla*) must almost always be followed by a locational phrase, as shown below:

Ak mla *er a Siabal*. 'I was in Japan.'

Other verbs like *tuobed* 'to come out of', *medeues* 'hungry for', etc., show similar behavior.

5. Locational and directional phrases often contain nouns that describe areas of physical space. This particular subgroup of Palauan vocabulary is quite rich, and quite a few of the nouns involved have specialized or extended usages. The situation is further complicated by the fact that some of these nouns are optionally possessed (e.g., *bab/bebul*, *mad/medal*), others are obligatorily possessed (e.g., *chelsel*, *tkul*), and yet others are unpossessible (e.g., *rebai*, *ngelo*). This broad area of material is covered quite extensively in 1.3.3.1–5, where small details of grammar and meaning are discussed for each item.

6. Because directional phrases are very frequently associated with the directional verbs *mo*, *me*, and *eko*, these verbs are discussed in considerable detail starting in 13.4.1. Not only are the meaning differences among these three verbs discussed, but details are also given about the special grammatical constructions in which they occur (e.g., see 13.4.1.2 for the pattern *directional verb + action verb*). In addition, directional verbs are discussed with respect to tense and in relation to the inherent difference between action verbs and state verbs.

7. While the most obvious (and frequently used) relational phrases are those indicating *location*, *direction*, *source*, *cause*, *time*, and *comparison*, there are many other functions (or meaning categories) that relational phrases fulfil. A good variety of these less common (though interesting and important) subtypes of relational phrase can be found in (67–76) of 13.10. Even further varieties would be discovered by searching through any natural text of Palauan (see Suggestions for Additional Activities 1, below).

SPECIFIC COMMENTS

[13.1]

1. In this introductory section we first indicate that relational phrases are normally optional in Palauan sentences, depending on how much extra information the speaker wishes to provide about the circumstances surrounding a particular action, event, or state. We then note that all relational phrases (locational, directional, temporal, or whatever) have the common feature of putting a given action (event, state) into perspective by *relating* it to the place of occurrence, destination of movement, time of occurrence, and so on.

2. Regardless of its particular function (or meaning), every Palauan relational phrase has the same internal structure—namely, *relational word er + noun phrase*. The noun phrase can of course be either a single noun or pronoun (as in *er a blai*, *er tiang*, *er kau*, etc.) or a more complex structure such as a noun phrase of possession (as in *er a chelsel a blai*, *er a rechad er Belau*, etc.). *Note 1* reminds students of the distinction made in this textbook between the *specifying word er* (used to indicate specific sentence objects with *imperfective* verb forms, as in *Ak menguiu er a hong*. 'I'm reading the book.') and the *relational word er*,

which serves to introduce all subtypes of relational phrase. As indicated at the end of *Note 1*, some linguists theorize that "specifying" *er* and "relational" *er* are really a single, unitary grammatical element.

3. Unlike Palauan, which has a single grammatical unit *er* that relates elements of location, time, cause, etc. to the verb phrase, English uses a wide array of *prepositions* ('on, in, from, outside of', etc.) which individually have quite specific meanings.

[13.2]

1. In this section we review some of the distributional features of Palauan relational phrases. Although the sentence formulas in (3) and (7) are oversimplified, they provide a preliminary idea of the position of relational phrases within various sentence types. Instead of introducing a separate formula for every type of sentence in which relational phrases are observed to occur, we simply choose to describe the major ways in which the basic formulas would have to be expanded (see points a–d at the end of this section). Thus, we note that (1) in most cases, the appearance of a relational phrase is purely optional; (2) many sentences can contain multiple relational phrases; and (3) relational phrases also occur in sentences with postverbal subjects.

[13.3]

1. This section is an introduction to Palauan *locational phrases*, which can cooccur with either action or state verbs. *Notes 2-3* provide some detailed information on the meaning of locational phrases that accompany the state verb *ngar*. It is also noted, with examples, that the question word *ker* 'where?' occurs in the locational phrase *er ker* to ask a question about the location.

[13.3.1–5]

1. These sections introduce students to the wide range of Palauan abstract nouns that describe areas of physical space. Such nouns occur commonly in locational phrases (and can also serve within directional phrases as well). While English has meaning-specific prepositions such as 'in(side)', 'in front of', 'behind', etc., Palauan uses the general, "all-purpose" relational word *er* in a locational phrase containing the relevant noun of physical space. Thus, we have *er a chelsel a blai* 'in(side) the house', *er a medal a blai* 'in front of the house', *er a ullel a blai* 'behind the house', and so on.

2. Sections 13.3.1–5, supplemented by *Notes 4–7*, describe the meaning and use of the most important nouns denoting areas of physical space. Such nouns fall into the three expected categories: optionally possessed (*bab/bebul*, *mad/medal*, etc.), obligatorily possessed (*chelsel*, *tkul*, etc.), and unpossessible (*rebai*, *ngelo*, etc.).

[13.4]

1. While locational phrases indicate the location of an action or state, directional phrases indicate the goal, destination, or termination point of an action that involves movement across physical space. Since locational and directional phrases both refer to places, any locational phrase could also serve as a directional phrase, and vice versa, as shown by examples (25–26). A particular phrase will be interpreted as *directional* if it co-occurs with a verb phrase that itself focuses on a goal or termination point of movement. Therefore, directional phrases will be accompanied by the *directional verbs me*, *mo*, and *eko* (see 13.4.1) and by various intransitive and transitive verbs (or expressions) involving movement or transferral across physical space (e.g., *soiseb* 'to go into, enter', *ngmelt* 'to sink (into)', *olsiseb* 'to put/push/force into', *olab...el mo* 'to take (something) to', etc.). *Note 8* provides the irregular perfective forms of two transitive verbs of movement, *melecha* 'to put' and *omeche* 'to leave (behind)'.

2. Just as with locational phrases, the question word *ker* 'where (to)?' occurs in the directional phrase *er ker* to ask a question about the destination, goal, or termination point of movement.

[13.4.1–13.4.1.5]

1. Taken from *PRG* Chapter 13, the material in these sections covers the most interesting facts about the Palauan *directional verbs me* 'to come', *mo* 'to go', and *eko* 'to go', which are almost always accompanied by directional phrases. The introductory section 13.4.1 discusses the meaning differences among the three directional verbs (particularly *mo* vs. *eko*) and offers numerous examples together with detailed discussion about their situational use (see the comments following the dialogs of 30–31).

2. In 13.4.1.1 the past tense forms of directional verbs are discussed and illustrated, while in 13.4.1.3 the special status of directional verbs with respect to future time is highlighted (see also *Note 9*). In 13.4.1.2 a brief discussion is presented of Palauan verb phrases of the form *directional verb + action verb*, as in *me mengetmokl* 'to come and clean'.

3. Although much of the information of 13.4.1.4 has already been presented in earlier lessons, we illustrate how the directional verb *mo*, when used with an immediately following state verb, can indicate a change of state. The change of state represented by the sequence *mo + state verb* can be in the future, the past, or the general (habitual) present. When a change of state expression is used, the previous (opposite) state is always implied. Thus, in (43a) it is implied that the food (now spoiled) was previously fresh. Similarly, in (43b) it is understood that the subject 'I' (now without money) did have money at some earlier time.

4. The interesting use of *omerael* (in its possessed form) to indicate a change of state currently in progress is illustrated in *Note 10*. In addition, *Note 11* shows change of state expressions in which *mo* is followed by a noun phrase (rather than a state verb).

5. In 13.4.1.5 we present a few idiomatic (fixed) expressions containing the directional verbs *mo* and *me*.

[13.5-13.5.1]

1. Source phrases refer to the *point of origin* of some action involving movement and can be either intransitive (e.g., *tuobed* 'to come out of') or transitive (e.g., *oltobed* 'to take/pull out of'). The inherent meaning of a given verb that focuses on the point of origin of movement usually determines that a coocurring relational phrase will be interpreted as a source phrase. As expected, questions about the source of movement use the question word *ker* within a relational phrase *er ker*, which in combination with a verb like *tuobed* 'to come out of' will be automatically interpreted as a question about the source.

2. The verb form *ultebedii* of (47a) is the past tense perfective form (with third person singular object suffix *-ii*) of the causative verb *oltobed* 'to pull out of' (derived from intransitive *tuobed* 'to come out of').

3. Section 13.5.1 simply extends the idea of source to that of "human" source—i.e., the person from whom something is heard, borrowed, learned, and so on.

[13.6]

1. As the examples of (51) show clearly, cause phrases cooccur with certain verbs or expressions that focus primarily on a cause or reason. Typical state verbs in this group are *smecher* 'sick', *mesaul* 'tired', *kikiongel* 'dirty', *mechesa* 'busy', etc., while action verbs like *mad* 'to die' and *mekar* 'to wake up' also cooccur with cause phrases. Since cause phrases are usually (abstract or concrete) things, the question word *ngara* 'what?' is used within the relational phrase *er a ngara* to ask a question about the cause of a particular state or action.

2. *Note 12* introduces sentences like the following, which contain a verb in its basic (processive) form:

   Alii, kom medul er a ngau! 'Be careful! You'll get burned by the fire!'

   Although not preferred by many speakers, a cause phrase such as *er a ngau* in the example above sometimes occurs with processive verb forms.

[13.7]

1. Temporal phrases can occur with almost any kind of action verb (transitive or intransitive) or state verb. Because of the inherent meaning of the noun phrase they contain, certain

temporal phrases must agree with the tense of the sentence's verb phrase. For example, *er a elii* 'yesterday' and *er a kesus* 'last night' must always cooccur with a verb phrase in the *past* tense, while a temporal phrase like *er a klukuk* 'tomorrow' must be compatible with verb forms expressing the *future* tense.

2. Temporal phrases are not particularly difficult to analyse or understand. They can be conveniently classified into many categories of meaning, as indicated in (58a–h).

[13.8]

1. What was said earlier about the possibility of having two (or more) relational phrases within the same sentence (or, more precisely, clause) is expanded upon here. As illustrated by the examples in (9) and (61–63), some principles about the preferrred (or required) order among multiple relational phrases can be extracted from the data.

2. The relational phrases found in (62a–c) can be analysed as follows:

   (62a): source phrase (indicating place) + temporal phrase

   (62b): source phrase (indicating human being) + temporal phrase

   (62c): cause phrase + temporal phrase

3. In (63a) the three relational phrases are as follows:

   a. *er a blik*: directional phrase

   b. *er a euid el klok*: temporal phrase (specific time)

   c. *er a bek el tutau*: temporal phrase (frequency)

[13.9]

1. While English indicates comparison by using *than* and the comparative form of an adjective (as in *large/larger* or *beautiful/more beautiful*), Palauan simply uses a state verb (without any change in form) followed by a relational phrase that contains the noun phrase being compared to the sentence subject with respect to a particular quality or characteristic.

[13.10]

1. In this lengthy section, we cover quite a few additional types of Palauan relational phrases. *Possessor phrases*, found within noun phrases of possession like *delmerab er a Droteo* 'Droteo's room', are special in that they modify *noun phrases* rather than *verb phrases* (i.e., *er a Droteo* modifies the previous noun phrase *delmerab* by indicating the possessor).

2. Although we do not propose separate grammatical terms for them, there are additional types of relational phrases that indicate such categories of meaning as *means of communication*, *price*, *material* or *color*, and so on. The various types are shown in (67–76), together with sentence examples.

KEY TO STUDY QUESTIONS

[13.12: Relational Phrases in Palauan: Study Questions]

[Question 1]

a. **Locational Phrase**: a relational phrase that indicates the location of an action or state.

Example: A Toki a milsuub *er a skuul*. 'Toki was studying at school.'

b. **Directional Phrase**: a relational phrase that indicates the goal, destination, or termination point of an action involving movement across physical space.

Example: A Toki a mlo *er a Guam*. 'Toki went to Guam.'

c. **Source Phrase**: a relational phrase that indicates the point of origin of an action involving movement.

Example: A beab a tilobed *er a blsibs*. 'The mouse came out of the hole.'

d. **Cause Phrase**: a relational phrase that indicates the cause of (or reason for) a state or condition (or, sometimes, action).

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

e. **Temporal Phrase**: a relational phrase that indicates the time of an action or state. The time may be past, future, general or habitual present, and so on.

Example: Ng mo er ngii a ocheraol *er a klukuk*. 'There will be a money-raising party tomorrow.'

f. **Relational Phrase of Comparison**: a relational phrase that indicates the person or thing to which the sentence subject is being compared with respect to a particular quality. The sentence subject is always understood as possessing the given quality to a greater degree.

Example: A daob er Belau a klebokel *er a daob er a Siabal*. 'The ocean in Palau is more beautiful than the ocean in Japan.'

g. **Possessor Phrase**: a relational phrase that indicates the possessor of the directly preceding noun phrase. In addition to "true possession", a possessor phrase may characterize or describe the preceding noun.

Examples: A delmerab *er a Droteo* a kmal klou. 'Droteo's room is very big.'

Note: *delmerab er a Droteo* 'Droteo's room' indicates true possession.

A mlai *er a Siabal* a ko er a meringel a cheral. 'Japanese cars are rather expensive.'

Note: *mlai er a Siabal* 'Japanese car' indicates characterization or description.

[Question 2]

a. **Relational Phrase** (in general): a phrase of the form **Relational Word *ER* + Noun Phrase** that provides various kinds of information about the circumstances surrounding the action (or state) described by the verb phrase. Relational phrases put the verb phrase of a sentence into perspective by *relating* it to such ideas as the place or time of occurrence, cause of occurrence, and so on.

Examples: The text contains numerous examples of various types of relational phrases, as well as sample sentences in which they are used.

b. **Noun Phrase of Possession**: a noun phrase consisting of two nouns, with either of the structures below:

(1) **Noun #1** (in possessed form) **+ *A* + Noun #2** (see 3.4.1)
Example: chimal a Droteo 'Droteo's hand'

(2) **Noun #1** (unpossessible) **+ Relational Word *ER* + *A* + Noun #2** (see 3.7.1)
Example: delmerab er a Droteo 'Droteo's room'

In structure (2), where **Noun #1** is unpossessible (i.e., cannot take a possessor suffix like *-ak*, *-am*, *-al*, etc.), we indicate possession (or characterization) by using a *possessor phrase* of the form **Relational Word *ER* + Noun Phrase** (where the noun phrase consists of ***A* + Noun #2** or just a simple pronoun without *a*). Possessor phrases are a subtype of relational phrase (see 1-g above) that always occur after **Noun #1** *within* a noun phrase of possession.

c. **Noun Indicating Area of Physical Space**: an abstract noun describing a particular area or portion of physical space such as the area above or below a particular person or object, the area in front of or in back of a particular person or object, and so on. Nouns indicating areas of physical space are used frequently within locational (directional, or even source) phrases.

Examples: Nouns indicating areas of physical space fall into three subgroups: optionally possessed (*bab/bebul*), obligatorily possessed (*chelsel*), or unpossessible (*rebai*)

d. **Directional Verb**: an intransitive action verb that indicates movement across physical space towards a goal or termination point (and cooccurs frequently with a directional phrase identifying that goal or termination point).

Examples: The three directional verbs are *me* 'to come', *mo* 'to go', and *eko* 'to go to the hearer's location'.

e. **Change of State**: a change of situation in which a particular state or condition comes into existence. When the directional verb *mo* is combined with a state verb, the resulting phrase usually implies a change of state (in any tense).

Example: A ngelekek a mlo smecher. 'My child got/became sick.'

Note: *mlo smecher* designates the state or condition that has come into existence. Of course, we can conclude that the opposite state (i.e., good health) occurred before the change.

f. **Question Word**: any word that asks for specific identification of the persons or things involved in a situation or asks about the circumstances surrounding an action or state.

Examples: Typical question words are *techa* 'who?', *ngara* 'what?', *ker* 'where?', etc. The question word *ker* always occurs within a relational phrase *er ker*, and depending on the situation indicates location (where? = in what place?), direction (where? = to what place?), or source (where? = from what place?). In addition, the question word *oingara* 'when?' always occurs within a relational phrase (i.e., a temporal phrase) *er oingara*.

[Question 3]

See Question 2-a above.

[Question 4]

In (a), *er a kederang* is a relational phrase (specifically, a locational phrase) that indicates the location of the activity designated by the (intransitive) verb *mililil* 'was playing'. In (b), however, *er a babier* functions as the specific object of the transitive action verb *milluches* 'was writing'. As such, *er a babier* is not a relational phrase at all in the analysis presented in this textbook (although some linguists would disagree). For this reason, we call *er* of *er a babier* the *specifying word er*, while the *er* of *er a kederang* is the *relational word er*. See *Note 1* in 13.1 for more discussion.

[Question 5]

Some of the possible English equivalents are 'in, at, on, to, towards, from, out of, because of, for, by, than (with comparative constructions)', etc.

[Question 6]

As indicated in 13.2, relational phrases occur after the verb phrase (and after the object noun phrase if the verb is transitive). Note the following patterns:

a. Subject Noun + Intransitive Action Verb + Relational Phrase

Example: A ngalek a mililil *er a sers*. 'The child was playing in the garden.'
(locational phrase)

b. Subject Noun + Transitive Action Verb + Object Noun + Relational Phrase

Example: Ak milengesbreber er a blai *er a elii*. 'I was painting the house yesterday.'
(temporal phrase)

c. Subject Noun + State Verb + Relational Phrase

Example:	A mechas a chuarm *er a kleald*. (cause phrase)	'The old woman is suffering from the heat.'

[Question 7]

Normally, the occurrence of one or more relational phrases in a sentence is optional, depending on how much information the speaker chooses to provide about the circumstances surrounding the action or the state described by the verb phrase. In a few cases, however, occurrence of a relational phrase seems to be almost obligatory, in order to express a complete idea. See (8a–b) and the related discussion in 13.2.

[Question 8]

It is possible to have at least three relational phrases within a given sentence (or clause). See (63a) in 13.8 and consider an example like the following, which contains three relational phrases (cause, locational, and temporal):

A rubak a mlad *er a kiubio er a Siabal er tia el mlo merek el rak*.	'The old man died of a heart attack in Japan last year.'

a. directional phrase + temporal phrase. See (9) in 13.8.

b. locational phrase + temporal phrase. See (61) in 13.8.

c. cause phrase + temporal phrase. See (62c) in 13.8.

d. temporal phrase + temporal phrase. See (63a-b) in 13.8.

[Question 9]

As explained in 13.2.d, the sentence formula would be:

Non-Emphatic Pronoun + Verb (+ Relational Phrase) + Subject Noun

Note that the relational phrase still occurs after the verb, even though the sentence subject is post-verbal, as in (11) of 13.2.

[Question 10]

Examples of locational phrases co-occurring with:

(1) intransitive action verb: (13a), (13d)

(2) transitive action verb: (13b), (13c)

(3) state verb: (13e), (13f)

(4) existential state verb *ngar*: (13g), (13h)

[Question 11]

See the definition in 2-c above. Nouns of physical space must be described in detail because they occur so frequently in both locational and directional phrases. Numerous examples can be drawn from 13.3.1-5.

[Question 12]

All of the noun phrases of possession cited in this question have the identical grammatical structure—namely, *possessed noun + a + specific possessor*. While noun phrases of possession like *chimal a Droteo* 'Droteo's hand' and *mlirir a resechelik* 'my friends' cars' involve a relatively concrete relationship such as *part—whole* or *possessed item—possessor*, examples like *eungel a tebel* '(area) underneath the table' and *chelsel a blai* '(area) inside the house' indicate a very abstract relationship—i.e., some area of physical space (the possessed noun) is defined in terms of its relationship to an object of reference (the specific "possessor").

[Question 13]

a. *mad* 'area right in front of'/*ngelo* 'area in front of or facing (but at some distance)'/*uche* 'area generally ahead of' vs. *ullel* 'area right in back of'/*uriul* 'area generally behind'/ *rebai* 'area in back of (a building)'

b. *chelsel* 'area inside' vs. *ikrel* 'area outside'

c. *deleongel* 'area between'

d. *tkul* '(outside) edge/corner' vs. *bkul* 'corner, angle, joint'

e. *diluches* 'north', *dimes* 'south', *chongos* 'east', *ngebard* 'west'

[Question 14]

For meanings involving areas of physical space, see (20b) and (21b). For meanings involving points in time, see the examples given in *Note 5*.

[Question 15]

Since both locational and directional phrases are *relational* phrases, they of course share the structure *relational word er + noun phrase* (see 2-a above). Furthermore, since both locational and directional phrases indicate places, almost any relational phrase in which the noun phrase introduced by *er* refers to a place can function as either type, depending on the meaning of the verb. Thus, a relational phrase like *er a blirir* will be interpreted as a *directional phrase* in a sentence like the following, because the verb itself is an (intransitive) directional verb:

Ak mo er a blirir. 'I'm going to their house.'

By contrast, the very same relational phrase *er a blirir* will be interpreted as a *locational phrase* in the context below, where the verb describes an activity or state that is readily associated with a location:

Ak kie er a blirir. 'I'm living at their house.'

Going even further, the same relational phrase *er a blirir* would be interpreted as the *source* (or point of origin) of an action such as *tuobed* 'to come out (of)', as in the example below:

A ius a tilobed er a blirir! 'A crocodile came out of their house!'

See the discussion at the beginning of 13.4 for more details.

[Question 16]

Typical sample sentences are found in (28a–d). The perfective forms of these verbs are supplied in *Note 8*.

[Question 17]

The directional verbs, with their meanings, are as follows:

a. *me(i)*: 'to come'—movement towards speaker's present, past, or future location

b. *eko(ng)*: 'to go'—movement (by speaker or some third party) towards hearer's (actual or expected) present, past, or future location

c. *mo(ng)*: 'to go'—movement (by anyone) away from present, past, or future location of speaker and hearer

[Question 18]

Typical examples are given in 13.4.1.2.

[Question 19]

As noted in 13.4.1.3, the present tense forms of the three directional verbs *me*, *mo*, and *eko* can be used independently to refer to future time. Thus, a sentence like *A Droteo a mo er a Guam* may mean either 'Droteo goes/is going to Guam' or 'Droteo will go to Guam'. Often, however, the present tense form of the directional verb will be accompanied by a temporal phrase indicating future time such as *er a klukuk* 'tomorrow', as in (37b) and (38a–b). Even when the present tense form of a directional verb is used in combination with an action verb (see 13.4.1.2), we can get an expression referring to future time, as in (39a–c).

[Question 20]

When the directional verb *mo* is followed by a state verb, the meaning of *change of state* is introduced (regardless of the tense of *mo*). Sentence (a) means 'The water has become cold' (a change of state in the recent past), and sentence (b) means 'The weather will get bad tomorrow' (an expected future change of state).

[Question 21]

As noted in (42b), reciprocal verbs should be considered a subclass of state verbs because of the following evidence: (a) as with other state verbs, *mo + reciprocal verb* indicates a change of state meaning, and (b) just like other state verbs, all reciprocal verbs use the auxiliary verb *mle* to form the past tense.

[Question 22]

The details of this answer are explained and illustrated in *Note 10* of 13.4.1.4.

[Question 23]

See 13.4.1.5 for details and examples.

[Question 24]

Sample sentences for source phrases denoting places are given in 13.5. Source phrases indicating human beings are explained and illustrated in 13.5.1.

[Question 25]

As the term implies, *cause phrases* indicate the *cause* or *reason* for a particular state or condition (or, sometimes, action). Typically, cause phrases indicate the cause of a physical condition (sick with/from..., tired from..., itchy from..., etc.) or physical activity (wake up from..., die of/from..., etc.). By contrast, *source phrases* indicate the place of origin and always accompany action verbs involving movement. Typical verbs used with source phrases are *tuobed* 'to come out of', *ruebet* 'to fall from/off of', *metengel* 'to climb down from', etc., all of which focus attention on the source of movement (rather than the direction or goal of movement).

[Question 26]

Because of the inherent meaning of the words they contain, certain temporal phrases refer to a particular time (present, past, or future) and must therefore cooccur ("agree") with a verb form of the appropriate tense. For example, temporal phrases such as *er a elii* 'yesterday' and *er tia el mlo merek el rak* 'last year' must always cooccur with a verb phrase in the past tense, while temporal phrases such as *er a klukuk* 'tomorrow' and *er tia el me el rak* 'next year' are limited to cooccurrence with verb phrases referring to the future.

Certain other temporal phrases such as *er a elechang* 'right now, today, these days' involve a somewhat wider range of meaning but still place restrictions on the tense of the verb phrase that accompanies them. By contrast, some subtypes of temporal phrase—e.g., hours of the day (58d), days of the week (58e), and frequency of occurrence (58h)—place no restrictions at all on the tense of the cooccurring verb phrase.

[Question 27]

All of these are covered in great detail in (58a–h) of 13.7.1.

[Question 28]

As noted in (60a–b) of 13.7.1, the idea of "from a certain point in time to a certain point in time" is expressed as follows: the earlier point in time (beginning point) is indicated by a temporal phrase, while the later point in time (ending point) is shown by an expression (dependent clause) introduced by *el mo* followed by a second temporal phrase.

[Question 29]

The answer to this question is discussed in 13.9. While Palauan uses a relational phrase (normally following a state verb), English uses *than* in addition to the *comparative* form of the adjective (e.g., *big—bigger*, *beautiful—more beautiful*, etc.).

[Question 30]

The subtypes (according to meaning) are set forth in 13.10, and many examples are given in (66–76).

[Question 31]

Much of the answer is provided in the definition of *question word* given in 2-f above. The relational phrase *er ker* (containing the question word *ker* 'where?') can indicate the location, direction, or source, depending on the context. If the source is human (see 13.5.1), the appropriate relational phrase would be *er techang* 'from whom?' The relational phrase *er a ngarang* (containing the question word *ngara* 'what?') is used to ask a question about the cause. Finally, *er oingarang* 'when' is the correct relational phrase to use when asking about the specific time of an action, event, or state.

KEY TO EXERCISES

[13.13: Relational Phrases in Palauan: Exercises]

[Exercise 1]

a. Kede mo omengur *er a chelsel a blai*.
locational phrase

'We (incl.) will have dinner inside the house.'

b. A sils *er Belau* a meringel *er a sils er a Merikel*.
possessor phrase **relational phrase of comparison**

Note: Within the relational phrase of comparison *er a sils er a Merikel*, we also have a possessor phrase *er a Merikel*.

'The sun in Palau is stronger than the sun in America.'

c. Ak milsuub a omeluches el tekoi *er a Siabal* *er se er a taem er a mekemed*.
possessor phrase **temporal phrase**

Note: Within the temporal phrase *er se er a taem er a mekemad*, we also have a possessor phrase *er a mekemad*, which modifies or characterizes the noun *taem*. Notice also that *er se er a taem...* really contains two relational phrases.

'I studied how to write Japanese during the war.'

d. Kom mle mechesa *er a ngarang*?
cause phrase

'What were you (pl.) busy with?'

e. A diall *er a mekemad* a rirechorech *er a eolt* *er a elii*.
possessor phrase **cause phrase** **temporal phrase**

'The warship sank in the storm yesterday.'

f. A rengalek *er a skuul* a eko *er a blim* *er a euid el klok* *er a tutau*.
possessor phrase **directional phrase** **temporal phrase** **temporal phrase**

'The students will go to your (sg.) house at seven o'clock in the morning.'

g. Ng soak el mo olterau er a mlik *er a telael el kluk*.
relational phrase of price

Note: *er a mlik* indicates the (specific) sentence object and is therefore not classified in our analysis as a relational phrase.

'I want to sell my car for a thousand dollars.'

h. Ng techa a lilecha a hong *er kemam* *er a chelsel a skidas*?
possessor phrase **directional phrase**

'Who put our (incl.) books inside the drawer?'

i. A beches el blik a rruul *er a smengt.*
relational phrase of material

'My new house is made out of cement.'

j. Ng mla er ngii a beab *er a eungel a tebel.*
locational phrase

Note: *er ngii* is part of the special expression of existence *ng ngar er ngii* 'there is/are' (past: *ng mla er ngii*).

'There was a rat under the table.'

k. A Droteo a mo *er a Beliliou* *er a bek el buil.*
directional phrase **temporal phrase (frequency)**

'Droteo goes to Peleliu every month.'

l. A bilel a Toki *er a skuul* a mla mo cheisech *er a tuu.*
possessor phrase **cause phrase**

'Toki's school clothes have gotten stained with banana juice.'

m. A tekoi *er Belau* a ko er a mererengeringel *er a rechad* *er a ngebard.*
possessor phrase **relational phrase of person affected**

Note: Within the relational phrase *er a rechad er a ngebard*, we also have a possessor phrase *er a ngebard* that characterizes the noun *rechad*. Note also *ko er a* 'somewhat, rather', a special expression containing *er*.

'Palauan is rather difficult for foreigners (Westerners).'

n. Ng mla mo merek a cheldecheduch *er oingarang*?
temporal phrase

'When did the meeting end?'

o. Ng ngar *er ker* a sidosia *er a sensei*?
locational phrase **possessor phrase**

'Where is the teacher's car?'

[Exercise 2]

a. Te mo er a che *er oingarang*?

b. Ke rirenges a chisel a Satsko *er techang*?

c. A rengalek te mle smecher *er a ngarang*?

d. Tia ng sidosia *er techang*?

e. A beches el mlai ng rruul *er a ngarang*?

f. A ngikel ng tilobed *er ker*?

g. Te milengedub *er ker*?

h. A Toki me a Droteo te mle kaodenge *er oingarang*?

i. Te mo merael *er oingarang*?/Te mo merael *er a tela el klok*?

j. Te mla *er ker* er a elii?

[Exercise 3]

The following sentences would be typical examples of the structures indicated:

a. Aki eko er a blim er a klukuk.	'We (excl.) will come to your house tomorrow.'
b. Ak lilia a oluches er a bebul a tebel.	'I put the pencil on the table.'
c. A bilek a mla mo cheisech er a chemachel.	'My clothes have gotten stained with betel nut juice.'
d. Te milsuub a tekoi er a Merikel er a blil a Toki er a elii.	'They studied English at Toki's house yesterday.'
e. Ng techa a ultebedii a siasing er a chelsel a skidas?	'Who took the photo out of the drawer?'
f. A Satsko a klebokel er a Toki.	'Satsko is prettier than Toki.'
g. A rubak a mle reborb er a chelsel a bai.	'The old man was sitting inside the community house.'
h. Ngara uchul me a ngelekem a blechoel el lmangel er a kiande?	'Why is your child always crying for candy?'
i. A kerrekar a seleksakt er a kebeas.	'The tree is covered with vines.'
j. A tolechoi a mle smecher er a blachediil er a kesus.	'The baby was sick with diarrhea last night.'

[Exercise 4]

Most of the nouns given here are illustrated in sample sentences within 13.3.1–5. Be sure that students know which nouns are optionally vs. obligatorily possessed, or unpossessible.

[Exercise 5]

All of the temporal phrases listed here can substitute for other temporal phrases given within the sample sentences of 13.7 and 13.7.1. Pay attention to agreement between a particular verb phrase and tense (e.g., *er a elii* 'yesterday' must cooccur with the past tense, and so on).

[Exercise 6]

Have students write their example sentences on the blackboard, with classmates responsible for identifying the types of relational phrases and for making any necessary corrections to the Palauan sentences or their English equivalents.

SUGGESTIONS FOR ADDITIONAL ACTIVITIES

1. Find any text of naturally written Palauan, rewriting it if necessary in standard orthography and paying careful attention to spelling *er*, *a*, etc. as separate words. Have students analyze each sentence of the text by identifying its subject, verb, object (if there is one), and all relational phrases. Students should isolate every relational phrase and identify it clearly by subtype. It is possible that you might discover one or more new subtypes of relational phrase; if so, initiate a discussion of its meaning and use.

2. Have students look for additional items that fall into some of the important word categories mentioned in this lesson. For example, you might ask students to add to the list of nouns that refer to areas of physical space, identifying each new noun as obligatorily vs. optionally possessed, or unpossessible. Further, you might ask students to find additional nouns like *klukuk*, *elii*, etc. (or additional expressions like *tia el me el rak*, etc.) that characteristically occur within Palauan *temporal phrases*.

14

Teacher's Manual

PALAUAN DEPENDENT CLAUSES

GENERAL COMMENTS

1. The contents of this lesson correspond to the materials found in Chapter 15 ("Dependent Clauses") and Chapter 16 ("Object Clauses") of the *PRG*. While the materials of Chapter 15 have been presented without much modification and even expanded to some extent, those in Chapter 16 have been reduced and are now condensed into several sections at the end of the current lesson (14.6.8., 14.6.8.1–2, and 14.6.9). The main reason for this is that the concept of "object clause" has been eliminated, primarily because it is too English-oriented and has little structural or semantic justification in Palauan. In fact, all of those structures presented as "object clauses" in *PRG* Chapter 16 are considered in Lesson 14 of this textbook as subtypes of Palauan *specifying clauses*. The organizational changes described here were inspired in part by Alain Lemaréchal's 1991 monograph *Problèmes de sémantique et de syntaxe en Palau* (Paris: Edition du Centre National de la Recherche Scientifique).

2. In the introductory sections of Lesson 14, certain basic concepts are set forth. We illustrate how two clauses can be combined (with the conjunction *el* marking or introducing the second clause) into a larger sentence containing an *independent clause* followed by a *dependent clause*. As indicated in 14.1, the same two clauses often can be combined in opposite orders, as in the examples below:

   a. A Droteo a uleba a oluches el meluches a babier.

   b. A Droteo a milluches a babier el oba a oluches.

   While both (a) and (b) combine two ideas that together represent the description of a particular situation, the order of clauses chosen depends merely on the speaker's judgment as to which idea should be given more prominence or importance. In each case, the more prominent idea is placed in the independent clause, while the less prominent one falls in the dependent clause. Thus, in (a) the speaker is drawing our attention to Droteo's having used a pencil to achieve his purpose, while in (b) the speaker emphasizes the writing of the letter itself (with less focus on the instrument used). As noted further, the dependent clause in both (a) and (b) has the following major characteristics:

(1) It is introduced by the conjunction ("joining word") *el* (referred to in *PRG* Chapter 15 by the more complicated term "dependent clause introducer").

(2) Very importantly, it has no *expressed* (overt) subject, even though we can immediately see that its *understood* subject is *identical* to the subject of the preceding independent clause.

(3) While the events referred to in (a–b) are *past* events (as indicated by the verb of the independent clause), the verb within the dependent clause is normally in the *present* (or unmarked, "neutral") tense. In other words, we can identify the true tense of the dependent clause from the overtly marked tense of the preceding independent clause.

(4) Any verb phrase followed by *el* is never introduced by *a*.

As subsequent discussions indicate (see especially *Note* 7), there are some exceptions to criterion (3)—that is, some Palauan speakers can in fact use dependent clauses whose verb is in the past tense form (matching that of the independent clause). Because there is so much disagreement among speakers as to the correct usage or meaning difference (if any) of past tense forms within dependent clauses, the issue is not taken to any deeper level in this lesson. At any rate, features like (2) and (3) above are very important in defining or identifying Palauan dependent clauses, and in fact the term "dependent" is quite appropriate because any clause introduced by *el* crucially *depends* on the preceding independent clause for an interpretation of (i) its understood subject and (ii) its real tense.

Semantically, any dependent clause serves together with the preceding independent clause to create a certain network of information about the particular situation being described. In other words, the dependent clause and the independent clause each supply information about a different aspect or feature of the entire situation. Thus, in (a–b) above, the two clauses together tell us that (i) Droteo used a pencil (for a particular activity) and (ii) the activity involved writing a letter. Because the subjects of the two clauses (*overtly expressed* in the independent clause; *understood but not expressed* in the dependent clause) are identical, the independent and dependent clauses each provide different pieces of information about that shared subject—i.e., in a particular situation, Droteo both used a pencil and wrote a letter. For further insights into the semantic function of Palauan dependent clauses, see the first paragraph of 14.1.2. Again, many of the ideas presented here are due to Lemaréchal's recent work (see particularly his Chapter 5), referred to in General Comment 1 above.

3. As noted in 14.1.3, certain types of Palauan dependent clauses have the interesting property of being *interchangeable* with each other. Thus, examples (a–b) above show how *purpose clauses* and *instrument clauses* can switch with each other in the following interrelated patterns:

Pattern 1: Independent Clause (focusing on instrument) + **el** + Purpose Clause

Pattern 2: Independent Clause (focusing on purpose) + **el** + Instrument Clause

In addition, as sentences like (11a) and (12) of 14.4 make clear, we see that *means of transportation clauses* exhibit a similar ability to switch with purpose clauses. Further, examples are given in *Note 9* to show that *accompaniment clauses* also share the same behavior. Finally, in the examples of (45) in 14.6.6, we observe that specifying clauses designating *manner* can also switch positions with a preceding independent clause. The interesting idea of clause interchangeability is also due to Lemaréchal's work (see above).

4. Beginning with 14.2, we focus on several types of Palauan dependent clauses which have very specific, clearly definable semantic functions. To these dependent clauses we assign individual terms relating to the particular semantic function—namely, *purpose clause* (14.2), *instrument clause* (14.3), *means of transportation clause* (14.4), and *accompaniment clause* (14.5). Then, beginning in 14.6, under the more general label of *specifying clause*, we describe a wide range of Palauan dependent clauses that all have the common feature of *describing* or *specifying* the action, event, or state designated by the preceding independent clause.

   Such *specifying clauses* are described either in terms of what type of independent clause they *follow*—e.g., specifying clauses following *lmuut* or *dmak* in the independent clause (14.6.1–2)—or in terms of certain essential elements that they themselves contain—e.g., specifying clauses with *directional verbs* (14.6.1), specifying clauses containing the perfective forms of *merekui* (14.6.4), specifying clauses indicating *manner* (14.6.6), and so on. It should be obvious that the distinction between purpose, instrument, means of transportation, and accompaniment clauses on the one hand, and specifying clauses on the other, is rather artificial; and in fact the four former types are just subtypes of specifying clauses, since they, too, specify or describe the independent clause in some way (e.g., by describing what instrument is used, who accompanies whom, etc.).

   The use of individual terms such as *purpose*, *instrument*, etc., seems justified, however, because students are thereby provided with some convenient semantic labels for a few of the more common subtypes of Palauan specifying clauses. These terms will also help students focus on the different kinds of factors that come into play when a speaker decides on how much information to supply within a given sentence (in other words, by using a particular subtype of specifying clause, will the speaker choose to include information about the instrument, means of transportation, manner, and other situational factors?).

5. The most important issues that students should concentrate on in this lesson have already been mentioned in the General Comments above—namely,

a. the difference between independent vs. dependent clauses

b. the meaning and function of dependent clauses

c. the grammatical characteristics of dependent clauses

d. the property of interchangeability exhibited by certain dependent clauses

e. the semantic subtypes of dependent clauses—i.e., purpose, instrument, means of transportation, accompaniment, and various specifying clauses

In addition, students should learn the following important points in Lesson 14 (indicated by section number):

a. [14.2.2] Purpose clauses can also occur after certain possessed nouns like *techellek* 'my opportunity (to do something)' and *temek* 'time (that I have) (to do something)'. The most interesting feature is that the unexpressed subject of the purpose clause is understood to be identical with the person referred to by the *possessor suffix* added to *techall* or *taem*.

b. [14.3] Instrument clauses always contain a form of the verb *oba* 'use/have/hold it', which only has *perfective* forms (see *Note 5*).

c. [14.3] Palauan nouns denoting instruments (tools, implements, etc.) are concrete nouns that are either structurally simple (*taod* 'fork', *sebel* 'shovel') or complex (*instrument nouns* prefixed with *o-* such as *oluches* 'pencil', *oles* 'knife', etc.).

d. [14.4] Means of transportation clauses always contain the state verb *ngar* 'to exist, be located' followed by a locational phrase naming a kind of vehicle.

e. [14.5] Accompaniment clauses always contain the special grammatical item *obengkel* 'be together with', which has features of both a noun and a verb.

f. [14.6] As mentioned above, we use the term *specifying clause* as a general cover term for any dependent clause that cannot be pinpointed as a purpose, instrument, means of transportation, or accompaniment clause (although these four are really subtypes of specifying clause). The general function of a specifying clause is to supplement the preceding independent clause by providing certain specifying or descriptive details about the action, event, or state being described.

g. [14.6.1] Specifying clauses containing a *directional verb* (*mo*, *eko*, *mei*) modify or describe a verb of movement (*merael*, *remurt*, etc.) in the preceding independent clause by specifying the direction or termination point of movement.

h. [14.6.1.1] Specifying clauses following *lmuut* have two functions: (1) they specify the destination to which the sentence subject returns (in which case they contain a

directional verb and function much like the specifying clauses of 14.6.1), or (2) they indicate a particular action that is done again (repeated) by the sentence subject.

i. [14.6.2] Specifying clauses following *dmak* indicate the particular activity that the persons referred to by the sentence subject (always plural) carry out together.

j. [14.6.3] Specifying clauses containing *number words* indicate that a (singular) sentence subject does something alone, or that the persons referred to by a (plural) sentence subject do the same activity individually (not together).

k. [14.6.4] Specifying clauses containing the perfective forms of *merekui* (i.e., *rokir* and *rokui* in the present tense) are used to indicate that a particular activity is performed so as to totally consume (use up) a singular or plural object.

l. [14.6.5] Specifying clauses indicating *periods of time* contain a wide variety of expressions denoting a period or duration of time. Their function is to specify the verb of the independent clause by clarifying how long a particular action, activity, or state goes on.

m. [14.6.6] Specifying clauses containing various *state verbs* (or verbal expressions) like *meringel* 'difficult, hard', *bekerurt* 'fast', *klou a ngerel* 'loud voice', etc., can be used to describe the *manner* in which the activity of the independent clause verb is carried out.

n. [14.6.6] Many specifying clauses of manner exhibit the feature of interchangeability with a preceding independent clause (see the examples of 45).

o. [14.6.7] There are several important Palauan (state) verbs denoting rather abstract concepts (e.g., *blechoel* 'always', *dirrek* 'also') that are characteristically followed by specifying clauses. These items do not translate into English as verbs at all.

p. [14.6.8–14.6.8.2, 14.6.9] There are certain independent clause verbs that are typically followed by a specifying clause. These verbs are *mo merek* 'to finish, stop', *omuchel* 'to begin, start', *melasem* 'to try', and *mesuub* 'to study, learn'. Various transitive verbs like *mengetakl* 'to persuade (someone) (to do something)' and *olengeseu* 'to help (someone) (to do something)' are similar, but they involve a sentence object in addition to the specifying clause.

q. [14.6.10] The four special obligatorily possessed nouns *soak*, *chetik*, *sebechek*, and *kirek* are either sometimes (for *soak* and *chetik*) or always (for *sebechek* and *kirek*) followed by a specifying clause indicating what activity someone wants or does not want to do, can do, or must do. The understood subject of the specifying clause is identical to the person designated by the possessor suffix found on the obligatorily possessed noun itself.

SPECIFIC COMMENTS

[14.1–14.1.1]

1. One of the major ways of combining sentences in Palauan is to use a dependent clause introduced by the conjunction *el* following the independent (or main) clause. The introductory examples (3a–b) show sentences that are otherwise identical except for the fact that the content of the independent and dependent clauses has been switched. While both sentences have substantially the same factual meaning, there is a difference of emphasis or focus that depends on what material the speaker chooses to express in the independent clause (which presents the more important or prominent idea from the speaker's point of view).

2. The first clause in (3a–b) is called *independent* because it could stand alone as a fully independent sentence (and as such it overtly indicates the subject and the tense of the entire sentence). By contrast, the second clause in (3a–b) is called *dependent* because (i) it can never stand alone as an independent sentence (since it has no overtly expressed subject, and no independent sentence ever starts with *el*), and (ii) the correct interpretation of its unexpressed subject, as well as the real tense of its verb, depends totally on information overtly expressed in the preceding independent clause.

3. In sentences like (3a–b), the verb of the dependent clause normally appears in the present tense form, even when the tense of the independent clause (and the entire sentence) is past. Though identical in form to a present tense verb, the form appearing in the dependent clause is really semantically *neutral* (tenseless, unmarked) because the true tense is "read onto" it from the verb form of the preceding independent clause. In *Note 7* at the end of 14.3, it is mentioned that some Palauan speakers can in fact use a past tense form in a dependent clause, matching a similar form in the preceding independent clause. Since this usage is less normal, and the semantic details much less clear, the issue is only mentioned in passing, without any further analysis. Reference to such data, again without analysis, is made on a couple of further occasions later in this lesson.

4. Students should have no trouble identifying dependent clauses within Palauan complex sentences if they concentrate on the four major features listed in (a–d) of 14.1.1—i.e., Palauan dependent clauses

   a. are introduced by *el*;

   b. have no expressed subject (though the subject is always interpretable from information in the preceding independent clause);

   c. normally have a neutral tense form (formally equivalent to the present tense, though the tense is always interpretable from information in the preceding independent clause);

   d. are never introduced by *a*.

[14.1.2]

1. The function of the Palauan conjunction *el* can be insightfully described as follows: beyond simply introducing a dependent clause, it joins two clauses (independent and dependent) in such a way that the content of one clause supplements that of the other in providing a full, unified description of a particular situation (and, by implication, of what the sentence subject does). Given two "situational features" that the speaker may wish to express (e.g., "Droteo wrote a letter" and "Droteo used a pencil" in 3a–b), the speaker must prioritize their relative importance and then express the more important idea in the independent clause and the less important one in the dependent clause. This decision by the speaker results in either (3a) or (3b), which are identical in content but different in emphasis.

2. *Note 1* is intended as a brief review to remind students of the other usages of the Palauan conjunction *el*.

3. *Note 2* offers alternative terms—i.e., *main* vs. *subordinate*—for independent vs. dependent clauses. You may substitute these if students are more comfortable with them from their study of English grammar.

[14.1.3]

1. As already noted in General Comment 3, sentences like (3a–b) show that certain Palauan dependent clauses can be interchanged with the preceding independent clause, which itself then becomes a type of dependent clause. In (4a–b) we write formulas to express the interchangeability between *purpose clauses* and *instrument clauses*. Later in this lesson, we also see that other types of dependent clauses—e.g., means of transportation, accompaniment, and manner clauses—can interchange with a preceding independent clause.

[14.2–14.2.1]

1. Purpose clauses are dependent clauses that explain the purpose for which some action (designated by the independent clause) is performed. One specialized type of purpose clause contains a *directional verb* followed by an action verb, where the directional verb matches that of the preceding independent clause (except, of course, for being neutral or tenseless). Refer to the examples in (7a–e).

[14.2.2]

1. Purpose clauses can also occur in sentences where the preceding independent clause contains a possessed form of the nouns *techall* 'opportunity, chance' or *taem* 'time'. As indicated in conjunction with examples (8a–c), the most interesting feature of such purpose clauses is that their understood subject is identical to the person denoted by the *possessor suffix* attached to *techall* or *taem*—e.g., *techellek el mo er a Guam* 'my opportunity

(for me) to go to Guam'. Therefore, they differ from the great majority of other dependent clauses, in which the understood subject is normally interpreted as identical to the *subject* of the preceding independent clause.

2. *Note 3* provides further examples of purpose clauses following the possessed forms of *techall*, except that *techall* has the more concrete meaning 'opening in physical space'.

3. *Note 4* again mentions the fact that the understood subject of purpose clauses following the possessed forms of *techall* and *taem* is identical to the possessor indicated by the suffix on the noun, but it is then pointed out that a similar phenomenon actually occurred in the earlier examples (5f–g).

[14.3]

1. Instrument clauses are dependent clauses that specify the instrument (tool, implement, etc.) used to perform a particular action or activity. Such clauses always contain a form of the verb *oba* 'use/have/hold it', which exhibits only perfective forms (see *Note 5*).

2. *Note 6* mentions some of the formal features of Palauan concrete nouns describing instruments—i.e., they may in fact be *instrument nouns* such as *oluches* 'pencil' (see 8.6), or they may be simple (single-morpheme) nouns like *taod* 'fork'.

3. By comparing (9a–b) with (10a–b), we can see that Palauan instrument clauses have the property of interchangeability. When an original independent clause is switched with an instrument clause, the former becomes a purpose clause.

4. As mentioned earlier, *Note 7* makes students aware of the fact that past tense verb forms are sometimes used within dependent clauses. Because of confusion among speakers as to meaning and proper usage, this topic is not pursued any further here.

[14.4]

1. Means of transportation clauses are dependent clauses that specify the means of transportation (vehicle) used to move from one location to another. While means of transportation clauses always contain the state verb of existence *ngar* 'exist, be located' followed by a locational phrase—e.g., *el ngar er a mlai* 'by car, (being) in a car'—the preceding independent clause normally has a directional verb or some verb indicating movement.

2. Means of transportation clauses are also interchangeable with the preceding independent clause, and when the latter becomes a dependent clause, it falls into the purpose clause category.

[14.5]

1. Accompaniment clauses are dependent clauses that specify the person(s) with whom the sentence subject carries out a particular activity. They are identifiable by the presence of the special word *obengkel*, which has the characteristics of both a verb and an obligatorily possessed noun. While *obengkel* resembles verbs in having a past tense form *ulebengkel*, it also resembles nouns in having a full range of possessed forms *obengkek*, *obengkem*, etc.

2. *Note 8* mentions some precise phonetic details about the 3rd pers. hum. pl. possessed form *obengkterir*. In this form, once the "k" pronunciation has been lost between NG and T, the NG itself is pronounced like "n" before T. This is because the articulatory position of "t" is dental (involving the teeth); and when NG changes to "n" (also dental), it thereby becomes more similar in articulation to "t" (phonetic principle of *assimilation*).

3. As indicated in *Note 9*, Palauan accompaniment clauses are also interchangeable with the preceding independent clause, and when the latter becomes a dependent clause, it falls into the purpose clause category.

4. *Note 10* again briefly mentions the issue of past tense verb forms (in this case, *ulebengkel*) within the dependent clause.

[14.6]

1. As noted in General Comment 4, individual terms such as *purpose clause*, *instrument clause*, *means of transportation clause*, and *accompaniment clause* have been assigned to particular types of dependent clauses that are rather easy to identify semantically. For dependent clauses not belonging to these four types, we introduce the broader, more general (cover) term *specifying clause* and then go on to illustrate a large variety of such clauses, which serve quite a wide range of functions. Remind students that purpose, instrument, means of transportation, and accompaniment clauses are really all subtypes of specifying clause. See General Comment 4 for further discussion.

2. *Note 11* again brings up the issue of past tense verb forms within the dependent (specifying) clause.

[14.6.1]

1. When a specifying clause contains a directional verb (*mo*, *eko*, *mei*) and the preceding independent clause has a verb of movement (e.g., intransitive *merael* 'to travel, walk, leave', *remurt* 'to run', etc., or transitive *oba* 'to carry, bring, take', *melai* 'to bring, take,' etc.), then the specifying clause simply indicates the direction of movement. Such sentences are sometimes complicated by the presence of a source phrase, which provides information on the source of movement as well (see 19a–b).

[14.6.1.1]

1. When a specifying clause follows an independent clause that contains the intransitive verb of movement *lmuut* 'to return', there are two semantic results:

   a. If the specifying clause contains a directional verb, then it indicates the destination to which the sentence subject returns (see 23a–b).

   b. If the specifying clause contains any action verb at all (not necessarily directional) such as *menguiu* 'to read', *dmu* 'to say', etc., then the effect of *lmuut* in the preceding independent clause is to denote a single repeated action—i.e., something is done again or for a second time (e.g., *lmuut el menguiu* 'to reread, read again').

[14.6.2]

1. When a specifying clause follows an independent clause that contains the intransitive verb *dmak* 'be together', it designates the particular activity done together (jointly) by those members of the required plural subject (which may be a plural word like *rengalek* 'children' or a compound subject like *Toki me a Droteo* 'Toki and Droteo'). The discussion in 14.6.2 contrasts sentences containing *dmak* with those containing *obengkel* (see 14.5).

[14.6.3]

1. When a specifying clause contains a number word such as *teru(ng)* 'two people', *tede(i)* 'three people', etc., then it implies that each person represented by the (plural) subject of the preceding independent clause carries out a particular activity (or finds himself/herself in a particular state) individually and separately from the others. As illustrated in the discussion here, such sentences contrast in meaning with those containing a specifying clause following *dmak*, which unambiguously denotes actions pursued by two or more people *together*.

2. In (33b) and *Note 12*, two somewhat specialized expressions containing number words are discussed: *el di ngak el tang* and *el di ngak*.

[14.6.4]

1. Specifying clauses containing *rokir* and *rokui*, the perfective forms of the transitive action verb *merekui* 'to finish, consume, accomplish', are used to indicate that the action designated by the independent clause is carried out to completion and entirely consumes the item denoted by the sentence object.

2. There is a feature of "agreement" that must prevail in sentences containing specifying clauses with *rokir* and *rokui*—namely, if the sentence object (in the independent clause) is singular, then the specifying clause must contain *rokir* (for singular objects), but if the sentence object is plural, then the specifying clause must contain *rokui* (for plural objects).

3. As examples (37–8) illustrate, it is also possible to have specifying clauses with *rokir* and *rokui* following independent clauses that do *not* contain any transitive verb or expression. In such cases, the item totally consumed is the *sentence subject*. Thus, in (38a–b) the independent clause contains an intransitive expression involving a change of state (*mla mo dekimes* 'has become wet'); in (39a–b) it contains the *basic* form of a transitive action verb (*meka* 'get eaten'—cf. imperfective *menga* 'to eat'), which is similar to an English passive verb construction in which the semantic object has become the structural subject; and, finally, in (40) it contains a genuine intransitive verb (the past tense form *mlad* 'died').

4. *Note 13* illustrates a more basic usage of the perfective forms of *merekui*—namely, as a true transitive verb followed directly by the sentence object (in a single, independent clause). *Note 14* briefly mentions some regional variation in the usage of *el rokui* and *el rokir*.

[14.6.5]

1. Specifying clauses designating periods of time simply indicate the period (or duration) of time during which the action or state of the independent clause takes place. As examples (41–3) show, the period of time can also be expressed in terms of a beginning point and an ending point, or just in terms of an ending point alone.

[14.6.6]

1. Specifying clauses indicating the manner in which the activity of the independent clause is performed usually contain a state verb (or an expression containing a state verb). Such specifying clauses indicating manner normally correspond to English adverbs (e.g., *fast*, *loudly*, *skillfully*, etc.).

2. As examples (45–6) illustrate, specifying clauses indicating manner have the property of interchangeability with the preceding independent clause. When this switching occurs, the original independent clause becomes a kind of specifying clause denoting the particular activity that the sentence subject is able or unable to do, skilled at doing, and so on. The transitive state verbs *meduch* 'to know how (to), be skilled at' and *metitur* 'to not know how (to), not be capable of' are characteristically used as independent clause verbs in sentences of this type. *Note 15* gives further data about these two verbs—namely, that they can be followed directly by a sentence object (instead of a specifying clause introduced by *el*).

[14.6.7]

1. Specifying clauses occur characteristically after certain Palauan abstract verbs that are normally not understood as verbs in Western languages (or Japanese). Such items include *blechoel* 'always', *dirrek* 'also', *ko* 'just, only', etc.

[14.6.8–14.6.8.2]

1. Specifying clauses occur characteristically after certain Palauan verbs meaning 'start', 'finish', 'try', etc., to indicate what activity is started, finished, tried, etc. Verbs involved in this construction are *omuchel* 'to start, begin' of (54), *mo merek* 'to finish, stop' of (55), *melasem* 'to try' of (56), and *mesuub* 'to learn' of (57). The structure and semantic properties of sentences with such specifying clauses are explained in detail in points (a–c) following the examples of (55).

2. *Note 16* and *Note 17* provide further data about the four verbs *omuchel*, *mo merek*, *melasem*, and *mesuub*—namely, that they can also be directly followed by a sentence object (and are therefore transitive). The first two verbs can also function intransitively, as seen in examples (c–d) of *Note 16*.

3. Note that clauses following *omuchel*, *mo merek*, etc., were originally analyzed as "object clauses" in *PRG* Chapter 16. This term has been eliminated in the current textbook.

[14.6.9]

1. Transitive verbs like *olengeseu* '(someone) helps (another person) (to do something)', *olsisechakl* '(someone) instructs/ teaches (another person) (to do something)', etc., are typically followed by a sentence object and then a specifying clause introduced by *el* (see 59a–g for examples). What is most interesting about sentences with this pattern is that the understood subject of the specifying clause is interpreted as being identical to the person referred to by the *object* of the preceding transitive verb. Thus, in (59a) we understand that the subject of *meruul* in the specifying clause is in fact *Toki*, the *object* of the transitive verb *ullengeseu* 'helped' in the independent clause.

2. For purposes of completeness, *Note 18* provides the perfective forms of *olengeseu* and *oldurech*, two verbs frequently used in the constructions under discussion.

3. Note that clauses following *olengeseu*, *olsisechakl*, *oldurech*, etc., were originally analyzed in *PRG* Chapter 16 as "object clauses in sentences with two objects" (see 16.5 of *PRG* Chapter 16). This complexity has been eliminated in the current textbook.

[14.6.10]

1. As a final type of dependent clause, we describe here the occurrence of specifying clauses following the four obligatorily possessed nouns *soak*, *chetik*, *sebechek*, and *kirek* (see 60a–d). Such specifying clauses indicate what action the speaker wants or does not want to do, can do, or must do on a particular occasion. The most interesting feature of such specifying clauses is that, just like those with *techellek*, *temek*, etc., described in 14.2.2, the understood subject of the specifying clause is identical to the person denoted by the *possessor pronoun* suffixed to the possessed noun. Thus, in a sentence like (63a), the

subject of the specifying clause is understood to be "I"—namely, the person denoted by the possessor suffix *-ek* 'my' attached to *sebechek*.

[14.6.11]

1. This section covers the rather interesting use of specifying clauses following derived action nouns in *o-*. Further data about derived action nouns in *o-* are given in *Note 19* at the end of 14.6.11. Sentence (e) of this note can also mean "Our father doesn't like your behavior at parties." The ambiguity is due to the fact that the derived action noun *omeruul* (from *meruul* 'to make, do'; possessed forms *omerellek*, *omerellem*, etc.) has two meanings: (1) 'action of making/preparing', or (2) 'behavior'.

[14.7]

1. This section presents a summary chart of all the types of Palauan dependent clauses studied in this lesson, with quick reference to sentence examples of each.

KEY TO STUDY QUESTIONS

[14.9: Palauan Dependent Clauses: Study Questions]

[Question 1]

a. **Conjunction** *el*: introduces and joins a dependent clause to a preceding independent clause. The two clauses joined by *el* describe interrelated features of the same situation (and involve the same individual, usually the sentence subject).

b. **Independent Clause**: the first clause in a complex sentence, expressing the idea judged by the speaker to be more prominent or important. An independent clause always contains a fully specified (overtly expressed) subject and verb. Any independent clause can stand alone as a separate sentence.

Dependent Clause: as opposed to an independent clause, a dependent clause can never occur independently because structurally it lacks an overtly expressed subject. Dependent clauses are always introduced by the conjunction *el* and are used following an independent clause to express an idea judged by the speaker to be less prominent or important. The term "dependent clause" is very appropriate for such clauses because the interpretation of their unexpressed subject, as well as the determination of their tense, *depends* on information found in the preceding independent clause.

Example: A Droteo a uleba a oluches el meluches a babier. 'Droteo was using a pencil to write a letter.'

Independent Clause: a Droteo a uleba a oluches

Dependent Clause: el meluches a babier

c. **Purpose Clause**: a type of dependent clause that specifies the purpose of the activity indicated in the preceding independent clause.

Example: A sechelik a me er a blik el me mesuub. 'My friend comes/will come to my house to study.'

Purpose Clause: el me mesuub (in this case, containing a directional verb matching that in the preceding independent clause)

d. **Instrument Clause**: a type of dependent clause that specifies the instrument (tool, implement) used to carry out the activity denoted by the preceding independent clause; always contains a form of *oba*.

Example: Ak kilisii a kliokl el oba a sebel. 'I dug the hole (completely) with a shovel.'

Instrument Clause: el oba a sebel

e. **Means of Transportation Clause**: a type of dependent clause that specifies the means of transportation used to move from one location to another; always contains a form of *ngar*.

Example: Ak mlo er a Siabal el ngar er a diall. 'I went to Japan by ship.'

Means of Transportation Clause: el ngar er a diall

f. **Accompaniment Clause**: a type of dependent clause that specifies the person(s) with whom some action is done; always contains a form of *obengkel*.

Example: Ak mlo er a kederang el obengkel a Toki. 'I went to the beach with Toki.'

Accompaniment Clause: el obengkel a Toki

g. **Specifying Clause**: a general, cover term for any dependent clause that describes or gives specific information about the action or state of the preceding independent clause. The purpose, instrument, means of transportation, and accompaniment clauses defined in (c–f) above are really subtypes of specifying clauses. Other types of specifying clauses are listed in (64), together with reference to relevant examples.

h. **Interchangeability of Dependent Clauses**: a feature of certain dependent clauses (purpose, instrument, means of transportation, accompaniment, specifying clauses of manner) such that the dependent clause can interchange with a preceding independent clause, which itself then becomes a dependent clause.

Example: a. A Droteo a uleba a oluches el meluches a babier. 'Droteo was using a pencil to write a letter.'
b. A Droteo a milluches a babier el oba a oluches. 'Droteo was writing a letter with/using a pencil.'

When the original purpose clause of (a) becomes the independent clause of (b), the original independent clause of (a) turns into a dependent (instrument) clause in (b). The main difference in meaning between (a) and (b) hinges on what part of the total situation (Droteo using a pencil or Droteo writing a letter) the speaker wishes to make more prominent.

h. **Specifying Clause Designating Period of Time**: a specifying clause indicating the period of time during which the action or state of the preceding independent clause takes place; sometimes expresses a period of time in terms of a beginning point and ending point (or ending point alone).

Example: Ak mla er a Siabal el ta el rak. 'I was in Japan for one year.'

Specifying clause designating period of time: el ta el rak

i. **Specifying Clause Designating Manner**: a specifying clause indicating the manner or way in which the activity of the preceding independent clause is carried out; the dependent clause usually contains a state verb or expression to indicate manner.

Example: A sensei a melekoi el kmal klou a ngerel. 'The teacher speaks very loudly.'

Specifying clause designating manner: el kmal klou a ngerel

[Question 2]

In sentences containing clauses linked by the conjunction *el*, the first clause is the independent clause, while the clause introduced by *el* is the dependent clause. Both clauses linked by *el* contribute information about the particular situation being described, although the information within the independent clause is assigned more importance or prominence by the speaker.

[Question 3]

Dependent clauses have various defining features: (a) introduced by the conjunction *el*; (b) contain no expressed subject; (c) normally have verb form in (unmarked, neutral) present tense. The term "dependent" is appropriate for such clauses because (a) they can never occur alone as an independent sentence and (b) interpretation of their unexpressed subject, as well as the tense of the neutral verb, *depends* on information presented in the preceding independent clause.

[Question 4]

As indicated in *Note 1*, *el* has the following additional functions: (a) links a modifying word or phrase to a modified noun (with a demonstrative word: *tia el klalo*; with a numeral: *ta el chad*; with verbs: *klou el blai*); and (b) occurs in appositive constructions (*Droteo el sensei*, *chermek el bilis*). Constructions like *dirrek el sensei* were briefly mentioned in an earlier lesson, but are given more coverage in 14.6.7 of this lesson.

[Question 5]

The following types of dependent clause show interchangeability with a preceding independent clause:

a. purpose (see 3a–b, 5a and 6)

b. instrument (see 3a–b, 9a and 10a, 9b and 10b)

c. means of transportation (see 11a and 12)

d. accompaniment (see *Note 9*)

e. specifying clause designating manner (see 44a–d and 45a–d)

[Question 6]

Example: Ak mlo er a blil a Toki el mo meruul a kall. 'I went to Toki's house to prepare food.'

Situation: Sentences with a purpose clause of the form *directional verb + action verb* (where the directional verb matches that of the preceding independent clause) express the idea that the sentence subject comes or goes to a particular place (named in the independent clause) for a particular purpose (designated by the purpose clause).

[Question 7]

a. Ak mo meruul a kall. 'I will prepare food.'

b. Ak mo er a blil a Toki el mo meruul a kall. 'I will go to Toki's house to prepare food.'

Example (a) is a simple sentence (with an independent clause only) that predicts the occurrence of a future event (as indicated by the future auxiliary *mo*). By contrast, (b) is a complex sentence containing both an independent clause and a dependent clause. The independent clause expresses a future event (I will go to Toki's house), while the dependent clause specifies the *purpose* of that event. Note that the directional verb *mo* is repeated within the purpose clause. Example (b) can also be interpreted in a general, habitual sense: "I (regularly) go to Toki's house to prepare food."

[Question 8]

When a purpose clause follows possessed nouns like *techellek*, *temel*, etc., the (understood) subject of the purpose clause is interpreted as being identical to the person denoted by the possessor suffix itself. Typical examples are given in (8a–e) of 14.2.2.

[Question 9]

The dependent clause *el mo er a sers* is a purpose clause whose understood subject is *rubak*—i.e., identical to the noun occurring in the possessor phrase *er a rubak*. See the comments on (5f–g) in 14.2. A suitable English equivalent for this sentence would be "This is the old man's lunch for when he goes to the farm."

[Question 10]

All Palauan instrument clauses contain a form of the (perfective) verb *oba(ng)* 'carry/take/hold it'. See *Note 5* for all the forms of *oba(ng)*. The following features of *oba(ng)* are unusual: (a) this verb has perfective forms exclusively; (b) the third person nonhuman plural form *olab* is very irregular; and (c) the third person human plural form *obe(ti)terir* has an optionally reduplicated syllable.

[Question 11]

Two sentences are possible, depending on whether the instrument clause is switched or not:

a. A Droteo ng millatech er a mlil el oba a ngarang?

b. A Droteo ng uleba a ngara el melatech er a mlil?

Both sentences translate into idiomatic English as "What was Droteo using to clean his car?"

[Question 12]

Structurally, both sentences are identical in general pattern—i.e., *independent clause + dependent clause*. In (a), however, the dependent clause is an *instrument clause*, while in (b) it is a *purpose clause*. From the viewpoint of meaning, the two sentences do not differ in real content, but only in emphasis. In each case, it is the information of the independent clause which is considered more important by the speaker (and therefore mentioned first).

[Question 13]

Like all dependent clauses, means of transportation clauses have the following features: (a) introduced by *el*; (b) no expressed subject; and (c) verb in (neutral) present tense. In addition, means of transportation clauses always contain the state verb of existence *ngar* 'exist, be located' followed by a locational phrase (*er* + noun) naming any kind of vehicle. See (11a–c) of 14.4 for examples.

[Question 14]

Yes. As illustrated in (12) of 14.4, a means of transportation clause can be switched into the position of independent clause (and the original independent clause then becomes a purpose clause).

[Question 15]

These forms have the features of both nouns and verbs—i.e., *noun-like* feature: they are obligatorily possessed nouns (with suffixes *-ek*, *-em*, *-el*, etc.); *verb-like* feature: they have past tense forms typical of action verbs in *o-* (*ulebengkek*, *ulebengkem*, etc.).

[Question 16]

Again, these two sentences show the feature of interchangeability mentioned so often in this lesson. An accompaniment clause switches places with a purpose clause.

[Question 17]

There are two possibilities, depending on whether the accompaniment clause is switched or not:

a. A Droteo ng mlo er a party el obengkel techang?

b. A Droteo ng ulebengkel techang el mo er a party?

Both sentences translate into idiomatic English as "Whom did Droteo go to the party with?"

[Question 18]

As discussed several times already, *specifying clause* is just a cover term for any dependent clause that describes or provides specific information about the activity or state of the preceding independent clause. Purpose clauses, instrument clauses, etc., are really subtypes of specifying clause.

[Question 19]

In both sentences given, the specifying clause contains the directional verb *mo* and indicates the direction (or termination point) of the movement denoted by the independent clause verb. Thus, in (a) the child is running in the direction of the school, and in (b) the sentence subject *te* 'they' took drinks to the money-raising party. The specifying clauses of (a–b) of course have the major characteristics of all Palauan dependent clauses.

[Question 20]

a. See (23a–b), (24a–c)

b. See (26), (27a–b), (29a), (30a)

c. See (28), (29b), (30b), (31a)

d. See (31b)

e. See (40a–d), (41, 42), (43a–b)

f. See (44a–d)

[Question 21]

The perfective forms of *merekui* are provided in (34) of 14.6.4. One type of specifying clause contains either *rokir* (for third person singular object) or *rokui* (for third person plural nonhuman object) and indicates that the object of the preceding independent clause is totally consumed by the action of the verb. As the contrasting pairs (33a–b), (35a–b), and (36a–b) indicate, *el rokir* follows a singular object, while *el rokui* follows a plural object. See also (37a–b) and (38a–b) for sentences in which the independent clause contains no object (i.e., is not transitive).

[Question 22]

To express such ideas in Palauan, we use a specifying clause designating manner (see 14.6.6). The specifying clause usually contains a state verb or expression and corresponds to an English adverbial (e.g., quickly, skillfully, in a loud voice, etc.) See (44a–d) for examples.

[Question 23]

a. *meduch* and *metitur* followed by an object noun phrase: see *Note 15*.

b. *meduch* and *metitur* followed by a specifying clause: see (46c–g).

[Question 24]

While these words work just like verbs in Palauan (in fact, state verbs—e.g., *blechoel—mle blechoel*), they correspond to various adverbials in English (e.g., always, also, just, etc.).

[Question 25]

a. See (c–d) of *Note 16*.

b. See (a–b) of *Note 16*.

c. See (54a–b) and (55a–h).

[Question 26]

a. with an object noun phrase: see (a1–4) and (b1–3) of *Note 17*.

b. with a specifying clause: see (56a–d) and (57a–c).

[Question 27]

In such cases, we use a specifying clause indicating what activity someone is being helped, persuaded, etc., to do. Here, the unexpressed subject of the specifying clause is understood to be identical with the object of the verb *olengeseu*, *mengetakl*, etc., in the independent clause. Typical examples are found in (59a–g).

[Question 28]

The four obligatorily possessed nouns *soak* 'my liking', *chetik* 'my disliking', *sebechek* 'my ability', and *kirek* 'my obligation' are typically followed by a specifying clause. Specifying clauses following these nouns are similar to those following *techellek* and *temek* because the unexpressed subject of the specifying clause is understood to be identical with the *possessor* of the preceding possessed noun (i.e., the person denoted by the possessor suffix). See (62a–b) and (63a–d) for examples.

[Question 29]

In the sample sentences (a–c), *menga* appears to be a rather abstract verb (like *blechoel*, *dirrek*, etc., of 14.6.7) that means something like 'more and more', 'even more', or '(do, happen, etc.) continually'. It is followed by a specifying clause that indicates the action or state whose rate or degree is increasing. The sample sentences can be translated into English as follows:

a. 'Don't go fishing, or else you'll get even sicker (than you are now).'

b. 'You're getting prettier and prettier.'

c. 'When you act that way, you become more and more my favorite child.'

KEY TO EXERCISES

[14.10: Palauan Dependent Clauses: Exercises]

[Exercise 1]

a. *el obengkel a rubak*:

(1) accompaniment clause

(2) *ng*

(3) 'He went fishing with the old man.'

b. *el milil er a sers*:

(1) specifying clause after *dmak*

(2) *rengalek*

(3) 'The children were together playing in the garden./The children played together in the garden.'

c. *el oba a ngarang*:

(1) instrument clause

(2) *kom*

(3) 'What were you (pl.) using to clean the room?'/'You (pl.) were cleaning the room using what?'

d. *el kmal kekere a ngerel*:

(1) specifying clause designating *manner*

(2) *sensei*

(3) 'The teacher was speaking in a very low voice.'

e. *el meruul er a blai*:

(1) purpose clause

(2) *te*

(3) 'They used/were using cement to build the house.'

f. *el rokui*:

(1) specifying clause containing perfective form of *merekui*

(2) *ongraol*

(3) 'The starchy foods all have become spoiled.'

g. *el ngar er a chert*:

(1) means of transportation clause

(2) *te*

(3) 'They went to the rock islands in a motor boat.'

h. *el terung*:

(1) specifying clause containing *number word*

(2) *Toki me a Satsko*

(3) 'Toki and Satsko are each sick.'

i. *el omechar a chitabori*:

(1) purpose clause

(2) *-em* of *techellem* (2nd pers. sg. possessor suffix)

(3) 'Did you (sg.) have an opportunity to buy a story board?'

j. *el mekodir a ius*:

(1) specifying clause after *oldurech*

(2) *-ii (a ngalek)* (object of independent clause)

(3) 'I told the child to kill the crocodile.'

k. *el meluches er a babier*:

(1) specifying clause after *lmuut*

(2) *ak*

(3) 'I rewrote the letter.'

l. *el mesilek a bail*:

(1) specifying clause after *mo merek*

(2) *ke*

(3) 'Have you (sg.) finished washing the clothes?'

m. *el eko er a blim*:

(1) specifying clause after obligatorily possessed noun *sebechek*

(2) *-ek* of *sebechek* (1st person sg. possessor suffix)

(3) 'I couldn't go to your house.'

n. *el meleng a udoud:*

(1) specifying clause after (abstract state verb) *blechoel*

(2) *Satsko*

(3) 'Satsko was always borrowing money.'

[Exercise 2]

a. not interchangeable

b. Aki mlo er a Huiribing el ngar er a skoki. 'We went to the Philippines by plane.'

c. A rubak a uleba a sebel el kiiesii a kliokl. 'The old man used a shovel to dig the hole (completely).'

d. Ak ulebengkel a mechas el mo er a ikelesia. 'I went to church with the old woman.'

e. Te ulureor el kmal meringel. 'They worked very hard.'

f. not really interchangeable, although it is reported that the younger generation in Koror is now using *el dirrek* as a kind of specifying clause, as in the following:

A Toki a mlo er a ocheraol el dirrek. 'Toki also went to the money-raising party.'

g. not interchangeable

SUGGESTIONS FOR ADDITIONAL ACTIVITIES

1. Find a text of naturally written Palauan and have students search for dependent clauses of the types studied in this lesson: purpose, instrument, means of transportation, accompaniment, and specifying clauses (many subtypes). For each dependent clause identified, the students should give the following information:

   a. type of dependent clause

   b. reference of understood subject (same as subject of independent clause, same as possessor suffix on a word like *soak*, etc.)

   c. any unusual features of the dependent clause

   d. possibility of interchanging the dependent clause with the preceding independent clause

   e. suitable English translation for the entire sentence in which the dependent clause occurs

2. Have students look for additional items that fall into the classes of words below:

   a. abstract (state) verbs like *blechoel*, *dirrek*, etc., that are followed by a specifying clause

   b. verbs like *omuchel*, *mo merek*, *melasem*, etc., that not only take a following specifying clause but also a sentence object

   c. verbs like *olengeseu*, *mengetakl*, *oldurech*, etc., that take a sentence object directly followed by a specifying clause whose understood subject is the same as the preceding (independent clause) object

15

Teacher's Manual

PROCESSES OF SENTENCE FORMATION IN PALAUAN

GENERAL COMMENTS

1. This lesson is designed to present the major processes of sentence formation in Palauan and as such corresponds to Chapter 17 of the *Palauan Reference Grammar*. The current lesson, however, differs strikingly from *PRG* Chapter 17 because it incorporates some important new ideas about the structure of Palauan sentences. These ideas are found in a very valuable monograph on Palauan written in French by Alain Lemaréchal (Professor of Linguistics, University of Strasbourg). In this textbook—*Problèmes de sémantique et de syntaxe en Palau* ("Problems of Semantics and Syntax in Palauan"), published in 1991 by the National Center of Scientific Research, Paris, France—Professor Lemaréchal analyzes Palauan in a natural and insightful manner that is true to the structure of Palauan as an Austronesian language. We have adopted much of Lemaréchal's analysis and approach here because it is much better than the earlier presentation in *PRG* Chapter 17, which took the unnatural approach of analyzing Palauan sentence structure in terms of English patterns.

   In particular, we follow Lemaréchal's proposal that sentences with *double subjects*—i.e., a pre-predicate non-emphatic pronoun and a post-predicate full noun phrase (expansion)—are *basic* and that sentences with full noun phrase subjects in pre-predicate position are *derived* from them by a general process of *preposing* (see 15.2 for a preliminary analysis). This differs significantly from the analysis in *PRG* Chapter 17, where the "direction" of the derivation was just the opposite and where an additional process of "subject shifting" (see *PRG* 17.2) was required. The analysis which we follow in this lesson (and which we owe basically to Lemaréchal) totally eliminates the need for such a "subject shifting" rule and focuses instead on the importance of *preposing* (which Lemaréchal calls "antéposition" in French). Thus, from 15.2 onward we discuss what elements can be preposed (e.g., the entire subject, the possessor alone, the first noun phrase of a compound subject, etc.) and under what circumstances preposing is entirely prevented (e.g., with expressions of existence).

The influence of Lemaréchal's groundbreaking analysis is particularly strong in the following sections of Lesson 15: 15.1, where we introduce *double subjects* and refer to the post-predicate full noun phrase as an *expansion* (a term used by Lemaréchal but attributable to the earlier French linguists Martinet and Tesnière); 15.2 and 15.2.1–2, where the various types of subject-related preposing are illustrated; 15.6, where we note the importance of preposing in forming yes-no questions; 15.7.1, where we discuss the unusual phenomenon of preposing from the *predicate*; 15.8, where preposing of the sentence object (and other non-subject elements) is illustrated; and 15.9, where we give a brief analysis of subject-predicate switching.

Much of the analysis in the abovementioned sections of Lesson 15 is inspired by the corresponding discussions in Lemaréchal's monograph (see, in particular, the following sections of "Problems of Semantics and Syntax in Palauan": Chapter 1, Sections 1–4; Chapter 3, Sections 1–2; and Chapter 8, Sections 1–4). Another monograph where some of these same ideas were pursued is Claude Hagège's *La Langue Palau* ("The Palauan Language"), also written in French and published in 1986 by Wilhelm Fink, Munich, Germany. Finally, for a summary and critique of Lemaréchal's very important contributions, see Lewis Josephs' Review Article of his book, appearing in the June 1994 edition of the journal *Oceanic Linguistics* (Vol. 33, No. 1, pgs. 231–256).

2. The order in which the materials of Lesson 15 are presented also differs considerably from that found in *PRG* Chapter 17. While the current lesson starts right off (15.1) with a discussion of the two competing sentence types (see sentences 1a vs. 1b, 2a vs. 2b, etc.), *PRG* Chapter 17 begins with a rather extended discussion of the four special obligatorily possessed nouns *soak*, *chetik*, *sebechek*, and *kirek*. In Lesson 15, however, discussion of these special nouns is postponed until 15.7 and subsequent sections, where the grammatical processes associated with them can be more easily explained in terms of concepts already introduced earlier in the lesson. In addition, certain other processes affecting Palauan word order (which are relatively minor in comparison to preposing) are not dealt with until the very end of the lesson: thus, 15.9 discusses subject-predicate switching (not covered at all in *PRG* Les. 17) as well as the switching between direct and indirect objects (found originally in *PRG* 17.6).

3. The major points that students should learn from this lesson are summarized below.

   a. [15.1–15.2] There are two alternate ways of making a statement in Palauan, as shown in the pair of sentences below:

      (1) A resechelim a mla mei.

      (2) Te mla me a resechelim.

   Sentence (2) is the basic, "original" sentence with a *double subject* expressed by *te...resechelim*. The first part of the double subject is the non-emphatic pronoun *te*, which

must agree with the second part *resechelim* (which is human plural). While the non-emphatic pronoun occurs in *pre-predicate* position, the full noun phrase (also called an *expansion*) occurs in *post-predicate* position. Note that the predicate is usually a verb (of any type), but in some cases the predicate can be a noun indicating a profession, as in (6a–b) of 15.1, or it can be one of the four special obligatorily possessed nouns, as in (37a–d) of 15.7.

Sentence (1) is derived from sentence (2) by a process of *preposing*, which in this case moves the entire post-predicate noun phrase expansion *resechelim* to pre-predicate position, where it *replaces* the original non-emphatic pronoun *te*. Regardless of the length of the post-predicate noun phrase expansion, it can be preposed in its entirety to pre-predicate position, as illustrated in (7–9) of 15.2.

b. [15.2–15.2.1–2, 15.5, 15.6, 15.7–15.7.1, 15.8] Evidence from many different types of Palauan sentences shows that the process of preposing applies very widely in Palauan grammar. The different situations where preposing applies are summarized below:

1. As illustrated clearly in 15.1–2, preposing can apply to the *entire* (post-predicate) sentence subject, regardless of its size or internal structure.

2. In 15.2.1 we see that preposing can apply to the possessor alone when the post-predicate subject contains a *noun phrase of possession*. Thus, from (1) below we can derive (2) by preposing only the possessor (*ngelekek*) rather than the entire post-predicate subject (*chimal a ngelekek*):

   (1) Ng meringel a chimal a ngelekek.

   (2) A ngelekek a meringel a chimal.

For similar examples, see (11–13) of 15.2.1. Preposing of the possessor is even acceptable when the possessor is preceded by the relational word *er*, as in (14–15) of 15.2.1. Note, in addition, that a very special case of preposing the possessor from a *predicate* occurs commonly in sentences containing the four special obligatorily possessed nouns *soak*, *chetik*, *sebechek*, and *kirek* (see 15.7.1).

3. If a post-predicate subject is compound—i.e., consists of two noun phrases joined by the connecting word *me* 'and'—the first member of the compound subject can be preposed, as illustrated in (9c), (16c), and (17c) of 15.2.2. The most interesting feature in these cases is that a *pronoun trace* (in the form of an emphatic pronoun *ngii* or *tir*) remains in the original position vacated by the first member of the compound subject.

4. Preposing also applies readily to the post-predicate subject of sentences whose predicates are nouns (see 15.5), allowing us to derive the so-called equational sentence (2) from (1) below:

(1) Ng sensei a Droteo.

(2) A Droteo a sensei.

Recall that in sentences like (1–2) above, the predicate (*sensei*) is a noun designating a profession (or nationality, etc.).

5. The process of preposing is used commonly to derive one type of *yes-no question*, as shown in (34a–e) of 15.6. The most important grammatical feature of such yes-no questions is that the original pre-predicate non-emphatic pronoun *remains* (i.e., is not replaced) when the post-predicate noun phrase expansion is preposed.

6. A very interesting type of preposing can apply to certain elements such as the *sentence object* or even a noun within a *relational phrase*, as shown in (57–60) of 15.8. The following pair of sentences illustrates preposing of the sentence object:

(1) Ng menguiu er a hong a sensei. 'The teacher is reading the book.'

(2) A hong a longuiu er ngii a sensei. 'The book [**topic**]—the teacher is reading it.'

When preposing of the sentence object derives (2) from (1), the verb in (2) must be marked with a *prefix pronoun* (*lo-* in this case) that refers to the original subject (*sensei*) that remains in post-predicate position. In addition, because the sentence object *hong* of (1) is preceded by the specifying word *er*, in (2) a *pronoun trace* (*ngii*) must appear in the position occupied by *hong* before it was preposed.

c. [15.3] For some speakers of Palauan, there does not seem to be any difference in meaning between a (basic) sentence with a double subject vs. a (derived) sentence with preposed subject. Quite a few speakers, however, do seem to distinguish between these two types rather consistently. As explained in great detail in 15.3, those speakers who make the distinction always consider that a preposed element (in most cases, all or part of the original post-predicate sentence subject, but occasionally the sentence object, etc.) expresses *old information*—i.e., denotes someone or something previously mentioned in the conversation (referred to as a *topic* by many linguists). By contrast, the basic sentence with a double subject expresses *new information* and is used when someone or something is mentioned in a conversation for the very first time. Therefore, a sentence like (1) below would be used when making initial reference to Droteo within a particular conversational context:

(1) Ng mla me a Droteo. 'Droteo has come.'

However, the contrasting sentence (2) below would be appropriate only if at least one of the speakers in a conversation has already mentioned Droteo, who is thereby made available as a topic for further discussion:

(2) A Droteo a mla mei. 'Droteo (whom we have already been talking about)—he's come.'

d. [15.4, 15.4.1–4] Although the process of preposing is by far the most widespread process used to form alternate sentence (statement) types in Palauan, there are nevertheless some types of sentences in which this process is restricted or prevented. For example, as illustrated in (19a–d) and (21a–c) of 15.4.1–2, preposing of the entire post-predicate subject is prohibited with affirmative and negative *expressions of existence*, though preposing the possessor alone is allowed, as seen in (22–3) of 15.4.3. In a very similar way, preposing of the entire post-predicate subject is not allowed with *idiomatic expressions* formed with *reng*, as shown in (27a–b) of 15.4.4, while no such restriction applies if we prepose the possessor alone, as (28–31) make clear.

e. [15.7, 15.7.1–3] Palauan has a category of four obligatorily possessed nouns—*soak*, *chetik*, *sebechek*, and *kirek*—that have some interesting and unique features, as summarized below:

1. These nouns typically occur in two types of constructions, as shown in the sentences below:

   (1) Ng soak a kohi. 'I like coffee.'

   (2) Ng soak el mo er a chei. 'I want to go fishing.'

In both sentences above, the obligatorily possessed noun *soak* functions as the *predicate*. In (1) *soak* is accompanied by a double subject (*ng...kohi*), while in (2) it is followed by a specifying clause introduced by *el* (*el mo er a chei*).

2. In a sentence like (1) above, preposing of the subject *kohi* results in the sentence below:

   A kohi a soak.

This sentence is acceptable to some speakers (with a very emphatic meaning: "Coffee is what I like"), but not to others.

3. If one of the four obligatorily possessed nouns occurs with a third person possessor suffix followed by a noun phrase expansion indicating the specific possessor (e.g., *soal a Droteo* 'what Droteo wants'), we can apply preposing to the noun phrase expansion, deriving (2) from (1) below:

   (1) Ng soal a Droteo el mo er a chei. 'Droteo wants to go fishing.'

   (2) A Droteo a soal el mo er a chei. 'Droteo [**topic**]—he wants to go fishing.'

The unique feature of this kind of preposing is that the preposed possessor (*Droteo* in this case) has been removed from the *predicate* of the sentence (rather than from the subject).

4. Except for the fact that preposing from the predicate is involved, the formation of yes-no questions in sentences containing the four obligatorily possessed nouns is no different from what is observed in other types of sentences.

5. Each of the four obligatorily possessed nouns *soak*, *chetik*, *sebechek*, and *kirek* shows a range of meanings and a variety of grammatical usages, as indicated in the examples of (45–53). Since they are predicates, they can also occur in a variety of tenses, as shown in (54–56).

SPECIFIC COMMENTS

[15.1]

1. Again, the concept of sentences with a *double subject* (pre-predicate non-emphatic pronoun + post-predicate noun phrase expansion) is due to Lemaréchal 1991 and earlier French linguists (see General Comment 1 above). Make sure students understand that the *double subject* construction (and all concepts dependent on it—in particular, *preposing*) almost always involves *third person* subjects (for an exception, see *Note 3* of 15.2.2). In addition, the pre-predicate non-emphatic pronoun (*ng* or *te*) must *agree* with the post-predicate noun phrase expansion in terms of number (singular vs. plural) and humanness (human vs. nonhuman).

2. For ease of explanation, we first speak of elements in pre-*verbal* vs. post-*verbal* position (terms also used earlier in 4.6 and 4.6.1–3), but as indicated at the end of 15.1, it is more accurate to refer to pre-*predicate* and post-*predicate* position. The term *predicate* is obviously more general and allows for the inclusion of all types of verbs as well as certain nouns (e.g., the four special obligatorily possessed nouns of 15.7 and nouns of profession such as *sensei*, etc.). Once this clarification has been made, the terms pre-*predicate* and post-*predicate* are used exclusively in the remainder of this lesson.

3. *Note 1* is designed to show students that "expansions" occur in several major grammatical constructions of Palauan. Thus, in addition to *double subjects* consisting of *(pre-predicate) non-emphatic pronoun + (post-predicate) noun phrase expansion*, we also have the following:

   a. *double object* consisting of *object pronoun suffixed to perfective verb form + noun phrase expansion*. Thus, in *chillebedii a ngalek*, the object is expressed simultaneously by *-ii* (third person singular object pronoun suffix) and the directly following noun phrase expansion *ngalek*.

   b. *double possessor* consisting of *possessor suffix added to a possessed noun + noun phrase expansion*. Thus, in *chimal a ngalek*, the possessor is expressed simultaneously by *-al* (third person singular possessor suffix) and the directly following noun phrase expansion *ngalek*. The double possessor construction is of course crucial to the process of preposing of possessor discussed initially in 15.2.1.

4. *Note 2* is a reminder that equational sentences of the form **Noun #1 + Noun #2** like (1) below are related to (and ultimately derived by preposing from) sentences with double subjects like (2) below:

   (1) A sechelik a sensei.

   (2) Ng sensei a sechelik.

[15.2]

1. The process of preposing is a very widespread phenomenon that can apply to the entire post-predicate subject of most Palauan sentences. When a subject is preposed to pre-predicate position, it will replace the original non-emphatic pronoun (*ng* or *te*) that was in that position as part of the double subject. As examples (7–9) show, the entire post-predicate subject can be preposed, regardless of the complexity of its internal structure.

2. In the sentences of (9), (a) is derived from basic sentence (b) by preposing the entire compound subject *Droteo me a Toki* 'Droteo and Toki'. Such a compound subject is automatically *plural* and meets the requirement that a *reciprocal verb* like *kautoketok* 'to argue with each other' take a plural subject.

[15.2.1]

1. Preposing of the *possessor* applies when the post-predicate part of a double subject consists of a *noun phrase of possession* (i.e., contains a possessed noun followed by a specific possessor). Thus, if we start with the basic sentence (1), we can derive (2) by preposing the possessor alone:

   (1) Ng meringel a chimal a ngelekek.

   (2) A ngelekek a meringel a chimal.

   Of course, if we prepose the *entire* post-predicate subject of (1), we can also derive the sentence below:

   (3) A chimal a ngelekek a meringel.

   See the explanation following examples (10a–c) for full details, and make sure that students can analyze the examples of (11-13) with respect to the following points:

   a. All (a)-sentences are basic; all (b)-sentences are derived by preposing the entire subject; all (c)-sentences are derived by preposing the possessor only.

   b. The *predicates* of (11–13) are as follows:

      (11) *telemall* (state verb)

      (12) *lluich me a etiu* (noun: numeral)

      (13) *milseseb* (transitive action verb: past tense, basic form)

2. As (14c) and (15c) show, when the preposed possessor comes from a noun phrase of possession of the form **Noun #1** (unpossessible) + *er* + **Noun #2**, a *pronoun trace* in the form of an emphatic pronoun (*ngii* or *tir*) must remain after *er*—i.e., in the position vacated by the preposed possessor.

[15.2.2]

1. If a post-predicate subject is compound—i.e., contains two nouns (or noun phrases) joined by the connecting word *me* 'and', we can prepose either the entire subject, as shown in (16–17), or the first noun (phrase) alone, as indicated in (9c), (16c), and (17c). When preposing applies only to the first noun (phrase) of the compound subject, then a *pronoun trace* must occur in the position vacated by the preposed element. Remind students that this is the second instance in which we have observed the appearance of a pronoun trace (see Special Comment #2 for 15.2.1, directly above).

2. In (16–17) preposing applies to the entire compound subject, as follows:

   (16) *tekoi er a Ruk me a tekoi er Belau*

   (17) *rechad er a Merikel me a rechad er a Siabal*

   In (16b) the first element of the double subject is *ng* for *nonhuman* plural, agreeing with the *nonhuman* plural compound subject *tekoi er a Ruk me a tekoi er Belau* 'Trukese and Palauan'. By contrast, in (17b) the first element of the double subject is *te* for *human* plural, agreeing with the *human* plural compound subject *rechad er a Merikel me a rechad er a Siabal* 'Americans and Japanese'.

3. *Note 3* provides an interesting example of a double subject involving the first person plural exclusive pronoun *aki* followed by a compound subject.

[15.3]

1. In this section we discuss the rather controversial issue of the meaning difference between sentences with a preposed element vs. those with a double subject—e.g., (1) vs. (2) below:

   (1) A Droteo a mla mei.

   (2) Ng mla me a Droteo.

   First of all, there are some Palauan speakers who seem to use both sentence types interchangeably, with no difference in meaning or situational use. However, other Palauan speakers do distinguish between the two sentence types and for them, preposing the noun phrase to pre-predicate position in (1) gives it the status of an established *topic*—i.e., of someone or something already mentioned by one of the speakers in the current conversation.

Thus, a speaker who uses (1) considers Droteo to represent *old* information already "registered" in his and the hearers' minds due to previous mention. By contrast, a speaker who uses the double-subject sentence (2) considers Droteo to be *new* information which is being brought to everyone's attention for the very first time. In general, for speakers who distinguish between sentences like (1) and (2), the *post-predicate* position in (2) seems to be reserved for introducing *new* information, while the *pre-predicate* position in (1) is suited for *old*, established information (i.e., a topic). For this reason, the true sense of (1) is something like "Droteo (*whom we've already been talking about*)—he's come." Although the English equivalent for (1) is rather awkward, we will nevertheless use it to express the flavor of Palauan sentences with preposed elements, which seem to have the semantic (meaning) structure **Established Topic + Comment About That Topic**.

2. *Note 4* points out some further factors complicating the issue of preposing in Palauan. You may omit this note if you wish.

[15.4, 15.4.1–3]

1. In these sections we qualify some of our earlier discussions by indicating that preposing of the *entire* post-predicate subject is prevented under certain circumstances. In particular, as the examples of (19) and (21) show, we cannot prepose the entire post-predicate subject if the predicate is an affirmative or negative *expression of existence* (i.e., *ngar er ngii* or *diak* and their forms in various tenses). The reason for this seems to be semantic—that is, any expression of existence (whether affirmative or negative) will necessarily introduce *new* information, and the required position for this new information is post-predicate position (see Special Comment #1 in 15.3 above). If preposing of a noun (phrase) following *ngar er ngii* or *diak* were to occur, the noun (phrase) would thereby be moved into pre-predicate position, implying that the item now represents *old* information. As a result, we have an unacceptable contradiction—i.e., *ngar er ngii* and *diak* always imply new information, but pre-predicate position implies old information—that is avoided by preventing the process of preposing from applying in the first place.

2. *Note 5* and *Note 6* provide some further interesting data in this rather complicated area.

3. Although sentences with affirmative and negative expressions of existence do not allow preposing of the entire post-predicate subject, they nevertheless permit preposing of the possessor alone. This interesting feature is illustrated in (22–3) of 15.4.3.

4. *Note 7* presents additional interesting data and is a follow-up to *Note 6*.

[15.4.4]

1. In sentences containing idiomatic expressions (idioms) based on the possessed forms of *reng* (see 26 for a representative list of such idioms), we notice exactly the same situation as that observed for sentences containing affirmative and negative expressions of existence.

Thus, while preposing of an entire post-predicate subject is prohibited, it is nevertheless acceptable to prepose the possessor alone, as shown clearly in the examples of (27–30). The possible semantic reasons why an entire post-predicate subject can not be preposed in sentences with *reng* are set forth at the end of 15.4.4.

[15.5]

1. As indicated in *Note* 2 of 15.1, equational sentences of the form **Noun #1 + Noun #2** are related to—indeed, *derived from*—sentences with double subjects. Thus, (1) below is derived from (2) by the process of preposing:

   (1) A sechelik a sensei.

   (2) Ng sensei a sechelik.

[15.6]

1. The process of preposing (whether it applies to the entire post-predicate subject or to a possessor alone) is essential to the formation of Palauan *yes-no questions* such as the following:

   (1) A Droteo ng mlo er a chei? 'Did Droteo go fishing?'

   (2) A Toki ng tela a rekil? 'How old is Toki?'

   The defining features of such yes-no questions are listed below:

   a. When a post-predicate element is preposed to form a yes-no question, the original pre-predicate non-emphatic pronoun is *not* deleted. This feature makes yes-no questions very different from statements, where a preposed element always *replaces* the pre-predicate pronoun.

   b. All yes-no questions are pronounced with a sharp rise in intonation (pitch) at the end.

[15.7, 15.7.1–3]

1. The four obligatorily possessed nouns *soak*, *chetik*, *sebechek*, and *kirek* are very important in Palauan because they are used constantly to express such basic ideas as liking/wanting, disliking/not wanting, ability/permission, and obligation. All four nouns in this special group can occur as predicates followed by a specifying clause construction, as indicated in (36a–d). Further, *soak* and *chetik* also occur as predicates with double subjects in sentences like the following:

   (1) Ng soak a kohi. 'I like coffee.'

   (2) Ng chetirir a rrom. 'They dislike liquor.'

Interestingly enough, preposing of the subject in sentences like (1–2) above results in a "borderline" sentence that is acceptable to some Palauan speakers, but not to others. For speakers who accept the preposed equivalents of (1–2)—namely,

(3) A kohi a soak. 'Coffee is what I like.'

(4) A rrom a chetirir. 'Liquor is what they dislike.'

these sentences have the special quality of placing strong, exclusive emphasis on the preposed subject, as the English equivalents are designed to indicate.

2. When the predicate of a sentence consists of one of these four nouns with a third person (singular or plural) possessor suffix followed by a noun phrase expansion (indicating the specific possessor), we find a most interesting application of the process of preposing. Thus, when (2) below is derived from (1) by preposing,

(1) Ng soal a Droteo a biang. 'Droteo likes beer.'

(2) A Droteo a soal a biang. 'Droteo [**topic**]—he likes beer.'

the preposed possessor (*Droteo*) has been removed from the *predicate* of the sentence, and not from the (post-predicate) subject, as seen in all previous cases.

3. *Note 8* presents some contrasting constructions in sentences with *soak* and *chetik*. The main semantic difference between the sentences described is *general statement* vs. *specific occasion*.

4. The formation of yes-no questions from statements containing the four special obligatorily possessed nouns follows all of the patterns previously discussed and shows nothing unusual. See 15.7.2 for relevant examples.

5. In this section each of the four obligatorily possessed nouns *soak*, *chetik*, *sebechek*, and *kirek* is discussed in greater detail, with additional information about meaning, usage, and tense formation.

[15.8]

1. In this section we explore additional types of preposing that differ from preposing of the entire subject, preposing of the possessor, or (with the four special obligatorily possessed nouns) preposing from the predicate. Here we see that preposing can even apply to such sentence elements as the *object* or a noun within a *relational phrase*. The former case is illustrated in the pair of sentences below:

(1) Ng menguiu er a hong a sensei. 'The teacher is reading the book.'

(2) A hong a longuiu er ngii a sensei. 'The book [**topic**]—the teacher is reading it.'

In deriving (2) from (1) above, the sentence object *hong* has been preposed to pre-predicate position, where it replaces the original non-emphatic pronoun *ng*. In this type of preposing, there is a very special feature—namely, the verb of the sentence is transformed into a *prefix pronoun* form (*longuiu*) in which the pronoun (*lo-*) refers to the original subject (*Droteo*) that remains in post-predicate position. In addition, because *hong* originally follows the specifying word *er*, in (2) we note the *pronoun trace ngii* in the position vacated when *hong* was preposed. For a pair of sentences like (1–2) above that contain perfective rather than imperfective verb forms, see (58a–b) of 15.8.

Similar to (1–2) above is the case where a noun within a relational phrase (usually a locational phrase or a source phrase) is preposed:

(3) Ng mesuub er a delmerab a ngalek. 'The child is studying in the room.'

(4) A delmerab a losuub er ngii a ngalek. 'The room [**topic**]—the child is studying in it.'

In deriving (4) from (3) above, the noun *delmerab* has been preposed from within the original locational phrase *er a delmerab*, resulting in a prefix pronoun verb (*losuub*) and a pronoun trace *ngii*.

2. *Note*: In Chapter 19, sec. 19.7 of the *PRG*, sentences like (2) and (4) above were mistakenly classified as Palauan "passive" sentences. As the discussion in 15.8 indicates clearly, they are nothing more than a subtype of preposed sentence, with the special feature of a *prefix pronoun* verb form. This change in analysis, which is much more suitable to Palauan, was also proposed in Lemaréchal's 1991 monograph.

[15.9]

1. In this section two additional relatively minor processes of Palauan sentence formation are discussed. One involves subject-predicate switching, resulting in sentences with a strong focus or emphasis on the (derived) sentence-initial predicate, as shown in sentences (1c), (61c), and (62). The second process involves switching of the direct and indirect objects (under certain circumstances) in sentences containing verbs like *omsa* 'to give' and *olisechakl* 'to teach', as shown in examples (65) and (67b).

KEY TO STUDY QUESTIONS

[15.11: Processes of Sentence Formation in Palauan: Study Questions]

[Question 1]

a. *double subject*: In sentences with third person (singular or plural) subjects, we have a double subject when a non-emphatic pronoun (*ng* or *te*) in pre-predicate position is accompanied by a full noun phrase (expansion) in post-predicate position. In the examples below, the double subjects are italicized:

(1) *Ng* smecher a *bechik*.

(2) *Te* mlo er a Guam a *resechelik*.

Double subjects are important in understanding the major processes of Palauan sentence formation because the process of preposing applies to the second part of a double subject (either to the entire noun phrase expansion or to a part of it—i.e., the possessor).

b. *(full) noun phrase expansion*: In sentences with third person (singular or plural) subjects, the full noun phrase expansion is the second part of the double subject. It is found in post-predicate position and can usually be preposed in its entirety. In (1–2) of Definition (a) above, the full noun phrase expansions are *bechik* and *resechelik*.

c. *pre-verbal vs. post-verbal position*: These terms refer to sentence positions *before* and *after* the verb, respectively. (In this lesson, these terms are quickly replaced with the more appropriate terms *pre-predicate* and *post-predicate*—see Definition (e) below).

d. *predicate*: That part of a sentence which describes the subject is called the predicate. In Palauan sentences, the predicate always directly follows the subject (which may be a pronoun or a preposed element) and usually consists of a verb (but may also be a noun from certain categories). In (1–2) of Definition (a) above, the predicates are both verbs (*smecher* and *mlo*). In the examples below, the predicates are *nouns* (*sensei* and *soak*):

(1) Ng sensei a sechelik.

(2) Ng soak a rrellem.

e. *pre-predicate vs. post-predicate position*: These terms refer to sentence positions *before* and *after* the predicate, respectively. In sentences with double subjects, the non-emphatic pronoun is found in pre-predicate position, while the noun phrase expansion occurs in post-predicate position. All or part of the post-predicate noun phrase expansion can normally be preposed to pre-predicate position to form a variant sentence type.

f. *equational sentence*: This term refers to any sentence of the form **Noun #1 + Noun #2** that is derived by preposing the post-predicate part of a double subject. For example, the equational sentence (2) below is derived from (1) by preposing the post-predicate subject *Droteo*:

(1) Ng sensei a Droteo.

(2) A Droteo a sensei.

g. *subject preposing*: In most sentences with double subjects, the entire post-predicate portion can be moved to pre-predicate position (i.e., *preposed*), where it replaces the original pre-predicate non-emphatic pronoun. For example, (2) below is derived from (1) by preposing the entire post-predicate subject (which itself has a complex internal structure):

(1) Te mle kausechele a Droteo me a Toki.

(2) A Droteo me a Toki a mle kausechelei.

h. *compound subject*: A compound subject consists of two or more nouns (noun phrases) joined by the connecting word *me* 'and'. In example (1) of Definition (g) above, the compound subject (in post-predicate position) is *Droteo me a Toki*. As the accompanying example (2) indicates, a compound subject can be preposed in its entirety. In addition, the sentence below

A Droteo a kausechele ngii me a Toki.

shows that the first member alone of a compound noun phrase can be preposed, leaving a *pronoun trace* (*ngii*) in its original position.

i. *noun phrase of possession*: This construction consists either of a possessed noun followed by a specific possessor (e.g., *blil a Droteo*) or an unpossessible noun followed by a possessor phrase containing the specific possessor (e.g., *rrat er a Droteo*). When a noun phrase of possession is in the position of post-predicate subject, the possessor alone can be preposed—see Definition (j) below.

j. *preposing of possessor*: This is a process of preposing that applies to any possessor within a post-predicate noun phrase of possession and moves that possessor to a pre-predicate position. If the noun phrase of possession has a possessed noun (e.g., *bechil a Droteo*), we can prepose the possessor and derive (2) from (1):

(1) Ng klebokel a bechil a Droteo.

(2) A Droteo a klebokel a bechil.

If the noun phrase of possession has an unpossessible noun followed by a possessor phrase (e.g., *rrat er a Droteo*), preposing of the possessor will derive (4) from (3):

(3) Ng telemall a rrat er a Droteo.

(4) A Droteo a telemall a rrat er ngii.

Note the appearance of the pronoun trace *ngii* in (4), in the position following the relational word *er*—i.e., the position originally occupied by preposed *Droteo*.

k. *pronoun trace*: A pronoun trace is an emphatic pronoun that appears in certain constructions in the position of a particular noun phrase that has bëen preposed. Typical examples of pronoun traces are the following:

(1) See the sample sentence in Definition (h) above. When the first element of a compound subject is preposed, a pronoun trace must be left in the grammatical position it has vacated.

(2) See sentence (4) of Definition (j) above. When the noun in a possessor phrase is preposed, a pronoun trace must be left in its original position following the relational word *er*.

(3) When we prepose a specific sentence object that follows an imperfective verb, or when we prepose a noun from within a relational phrase, a pronoun trace appears after (the specifying or relational word) *er* in the position vacated by the preposed element. For typical examples, see (57), (59), and (60) of 15.8.

l. *new information vs. old information*: New information is information introduced by a speaker into a conversation for the very first time, while old information is information that has already been introduced (mentioned, talked about, etc.). For speakers who distinguish between sentences (1) and (2) below,

(1)	Ng mla me a Droteo.	'Droteo has come.'
(2)	A Droteo a mla mei.	'Droteo [whom we have already been talking about]—he's come.'

the post-predicate position in (1) is used to introduce new information, while the pre-predicate (preposed) position in (2) conveys old information. In sentences like (2), any preposed element is an established topic, while the predicate serves to make a comment about that topic—hence, the English translation style "[someone, something] (that we've already been talking about)—he/she/it/they [**comment**]".

m. *topic*: The topic of a sentence is any element (a full noun phrase, a possessor, part of a compound subject, etc.) that is placed in pre-predicate position by the process of preposing. A topic represents old information—i.e., refers to a person or thing already mentioned in the conversation at hand.

n. *affirmative expression of existence vs. negative expression of existence*: An affirmative expression of existence uses a form of *ngar er ngii* 'there is/are' and asserts the existence of someone or something (in a particular place and/or at a particular time). By contrast, a negative expression of existence, which uses a form of the negative verb *diak* 'not existent, not present', denies the existence of someone or something. Affirmative and negative expressions of existence are interesting because preposing of the entire post-predicate subject seems to be prevented—i.e., the (b)-sentences below are awkward or ungrammatical:

(1) a. Ng ngar er ngii a udoud.

b. ? A udoud a ngar er ngii.

(2) a. Ng dimlak a kall.

b. ? A kall a dimlak.

However, if the post-predicate subject of an expression of existence contains a possessor, then that possessor *can* be preposed. Thus, the (b)-sentences below are both grammatical:

(3) a. Ng ngar er ngii a ududel a Toki.

b. A Toki a ngar er ngii a ududel.

(4) a. Ng dimlak a kelir a rengalek.

b. A rengalek a dimlak a kelir.

o. *idiomatic expression* (or *idiom*): An idiom is an expression that taken as a whole has a specialized meaning that cannot be directly determined just by putting together the meanings of the individual parts. Palauan has hundreds of idioms based on the possessed forms of the abstract noun *reng* 'heart, spirit'—for example, *suebek a rengul* means 'worried', although the word-for-word meaning seems to be 'his/her spirit is flying'. With idioms containing *reng*, preposing of the entire post-predicate subject is prevented—i.e., we cannot derive (2) from (1) below:

(1) Ng suebek a rengul.

(2) ? A rengul a suebek.

However, if the post-predicate subject contains a possessor, then that possessor can be preposed, as the acceptable derivation of (4) from (3) below indicates:

(3) Ng suebek a rengul a mechas.

(4) A mechas a suebek a rengul.

p. *yes-no question*: Any question that simply requests a "yes" or "no" answer is a yes-no question (as opposed to questions that contain words like *what*, *who*, *where*, etc., which ask for specific information). In Palauan, yes-no questions can be derived from corresponding statements just by adding a sharp rise in intonation at the end, as in the following:

(1) Ke mo er a skuul? 'Are you going to school?'

(2) Ng mo er a che a rubak? 'Is the old man going fishing?'

If a sentence contains a double subject, as in (2) above, a yes-no question can also be formed by preposing the post-predicate subject, but the original pre-predicate non-emphatic pronoun remains unchanged:

(3) A rubak ng mo er a chei? 'The old man [**topic**]—is he going fishing?'

q. *four special obligatorily possessed nouns*: These are the four nouns *soak*, *chetik*, *sebechek*, and *kirek*. They occur as predicates accompanied either by a double subject, as in (1) below, or a specifying clause introduced by *el*, as in (2):

(1) Ng soal a Droteo a biang. 'Droteo likes beer.'

(2) Ng kirir a rengalek el mo er a ocheraol. 'The children must go to the money-raising party.'

If either of these four nouns is involved in a third person (singular or plural) noun phrase of possession with a specific possessor such as *soal a Droteo* or *kirir a rengalek* of (1–2) above, then the possessor alone can be preposed, forming the sentences below:

(3) A Droteo a soal a biang. 'Droteo [**topic**]—he likes beer.'

(4) A rengalek a kirir el mo er a ocheraol. 'The children [**topic**]—they must go to the money- raising party.'

What is interesting here is that the preposed elements (*Droteo* and *rengalek*) are removed from the *predicate* of the sentence (rather than the subject).

r. *specifying clause*: Any clause introduced by *el* that *specifies* (narrows down the scope of, gives clarifying details about) the preceding independent clause is called a specifying clause. All four possessed nouns discussed in 15.7 and Definition (q) above can be followed by specifying clauses. Here are two typical examples:

(1) Ng sebechel a Droteo el melekoi a tekoi er a Ruk. 'Droteo can speak Trukese.'

(2) Ng chetirir a rua Toki el oureor. 'Toki and her group don't like to work.'

In (1) the specifying clause indicates what Droteo is able to do, while in (2) it clarifies what Toki and her group dislike. If the predicate contains a noun phrase of possession with a specific possessor, the possessor can be preposed, even when a specifying clause follows. Note that the specifying clause remains in its original position in the examples below:

(3) A Droteo a sebechel el melekoi a tekoi er a Ruk. 'Droteo [**topic**]—he can speak Trukese.'

(4) A rua Toki a chetirir el oureor. 'Toki and her group [**topic**]—they don't like to work.'

s. *preposing from predicate*: This occurs when the process of preposing applies to a specific possessor associated with one of the four special obligatorily possessed nouns described in Definition (q) above.

t. *preposing of sentence object*: The process of preposing can also apply to the object noun phrase of a sentence, resulting in a preposed sentence whose pre-predicate element is

considered old information (a topic). If the transitive verb is *imperfective* and the sentence object is *specific* (marked with the specifying word *er*), then we can derive (2) from (1) below:

(1) Ng menguiu er a hong a sensei. 'The teacher is reading the book.'

(2) A hong a longuiu er ngii a sensei. 'The book [**topic**]—the teacher is reading it.'

When the sentence object is preposed, the verb must be changed into a prefix pronoun form (*longuiu*) in which the prefix pronoun (*lo-*) refers to the original subject (*sensei*), which remains in post-predicate position. In addition, a pronoun trace (*ngii*) appears after the specifying word *er* to indicate the original position of the now preposed object (*hong*).

If the transitive verb is *perfective* (with no specifying word *er* following it), then preposing of the sentence object follows the derivation of (4) from (3) below:

(3) Ng silsebii a blai a ngalek. 'The child burned down the house.'

(4) A blai a lesilsebii a ngalek. 'The house [**topic**]—the child burned it down.'

Again, when the sentence object is preposed, the verb appears with a prefix pronoun (in this case, the variant *le-*). Since there was no specifying word *er* in the original sentence (3), there is of course no pronoun trace in the derived sentence (4).

u. *preposing from relational phrase*: The process of preposing can also apply to a noun appearing within a relational phrase marked with the relational word *er*. Preposing of this type usually occurs with locational or source phrases. See (59–60) of 15.8 for examples.

v. *prefix pronoun verb form*: This is a verb form with a prefixed pronoun (forms: *ku-*, *mo-/chomo-*, *lo-*, etc.) that occurs in certain grammatical constructions. When a sentence object or a noun from within a relational phrase is preposed, the verb must be changed into a prefix pronoun form (with the prefix pronoun always referring to the post-predicate subject). See Definition (t) above for more details.

w. *focus*: Focus is a kind of special emphasis achieved by switching the preposed subject noun phrase and the predicate of a sentence. Compare (1) and (2) below:

(1) A Droteo a mla mei. 'Droteo [**topic**]—he's arrived.'

(2) A mla me a Droteo. 'The one who has arrived is Droteo.'/ 'It is Droteo who has arrived.'

While (1) is a preposed sentence (derived from the original double-subject sentence *Ng mla me a Droteo*), (2) is derived from (1) simply by switching the subject and predicate. This results in a sentence with strong (exclusive) emphasis, as the English equivalents indicate.

x. *direct object vs. indirect object*: In sentences with verbs like *omsang* 'to give' and *olisechakl* 'to teach', etc., we notice two objects—first, the *indirect* object, which is the person receiving something or benefiting from something, and second, the *direct* object, which is the actual item given, taught, etc. Usually, the indirect object (beneficiary) precedes the direct object, as in (1) below:

(1) Ak milsa a Helen a omiange. 'I gave Helen a souvenir.'

However, when both objects are third person singular, they can be switched, resulting in the alternate sentence below:

(2) Ak milsa a omiange a Helen. 'I gave a souvenir to Helen.'

[Question 2]

As shown in the examples of (1–3) in 15.1, the two major sentence structures used for making statements in Palauan are as follows:

1. *Ng mla me a Droteo.* This basic Palauan sentence type contains a double subject (*ng...Droteo*).

2. *A Droteo a mla mei.* This sentence type is derived from (1) by preposing the original post-predicate subject (*Droteo*) and replacing the original pre-predicate non-emphatic pronoun (*ng*). For many speakers, this sentence type implies that the preposed element is a topic—i.e., old information previously mentioned in the conversation.

[Question 3]

If the post-predicate part of a double subject is singular, then the pre-predicate non-emphatic pronoun must also be singular (e.g., *Ng* mla me a *sechelik*). However, if the post-predicate part is (human) plural, then the pre-predicate pronoun must also be (human) plural (e.g., *Te* mla me a *resechelik*).

[Question 4]

Both double subjects and double objects contain a pronoun part as well as a full noun phrase expansion:

1. *double subject*:
non-emphatic pronoun + full noun phrase expansion
Example: *Ng* mla me a *Droteo*.

2. *double object*:
perfective verb form with object pronoun suffix + full noun phrase expansion (sentence object)
Example: Ak chillebedii a *ngalek*.

We can also have a double possessor, which contains a pronoun part followed by a full noun phrase expansion:

3. *double possessor*:
   possessed noun with third person (singular or plural) possessor suffix + full noun phrase expansion (specific possessor)
   Example: blil a *Droteo*

[Question 5]

The terms pre-*verbal* and post-*verbal* are too restrictive for describing the position of other sentence parts (e.g., double subjects) and should be replaced by the terms pre-*predicate* and post-*predicate*. This is because *predicate* is a larger category that contains not only verbs but also certain types of nouns. In other words, in talking about the distribution of the double subject in sentences like the following,

(1) Ng mechiuaiu a Droteo. 'Droteo is sleeping.'

(2) Ng sensei a Droteo. 'Droteo is a teacher.'

we can make the general statement that the non-emphatic pronoun *ng* is in pre-*predicate* position (where both the verb *mechiuaiu* and the noun *sensei* constitute predicates) and the full noun phrase expansion *Droteo* is in post-*predicate* position.

[Question 6]

In the sentence *A Droteo a sensei*, the predicate is *sensei*, a noun denoting a profession. This sentence does have a corresponding (basic) sentence with double subject—namely, *Ng sensei a Droteo*.

[Question 7]

The following elements in the Palauan sentence can be affected by preposing: the entire (post-predicate) sentence subject; the possessor (usually within a post-predicate subject, but sometimes within the predicate itself—e.g., *soal a Droteo*); the first member of a compound subject noun phrase such as *Droteo me a Toki*; the sentence object; and a noun within a relational phrase marked by *er*.

[Question 8]

For *statements*: when a sentence element is preposed, it *replaces* the original pre-predicate non-emphatic pronoun.

For *questions*: when a sentence element is preposed, it is moved to sentence-initial position directly before the original pre-predicate non-emphatic pronoun, which is *not* replaced.

When preposing occurs, the predicate is unchanged except in the following cases:

1. If preposing from the predicate occurs (see 15.7.1), the resulting predicate obviously no longer contains the original (now preposed) possessor. In other words, when deriving *A Droteo a soal a biang* from *Ng soal a Droteo a biang*, the preposed possessor *Droteo* has been removed from its original position within the predicate *soal a Droteo*.

2. When we prepose either a sentence object or a noun phrase from within a relational phrase (see 15.8), the predicate must be marked by adding a *prefix pronoun* to the verb. Thus, in deriving (2) from (1) below,

   (1) Ng silsebii a blai a Toki.

   (2) A blai a lesilsebii a Toki.

   the original (perfective) verb form *silsebii* must be prefixed with the prefix pronoun *le-* (which refers to Toki, the original post-predicate subject).

[Question 9]

a. Preposing of a single noun:
   Ng milil a *ngalek*. → A *ngalek* a milil.

b. Preposing of a noun phrase of possession:
   Ng kmal klou a *blil a Satsko*. → A *blil a Satsko* a kmal klou.

c. Preposing of a compound noun phrase:
   Te kausechele a *Droteo me a Toki*. → A *Droteo me a Toki* a kausechelei.

[Question 10]

The grammatical rule of preposing the possessor applies almost without exception when we have a noun phrase of possession (with specific possessor) as the post-predicate subject, or when a noun phrase of possession containing *soal*, *chetil*, *sebechel*, or *kirel* is itself the predicate of the sentence.

[Question 11]

Basic sentence: Ng kmal klou a ultutelel a llach.
Preposing of entire subject: A ultutelel a llach a kmal klou.
Preposing of possessor only: A llach a kmal klou a ultutelel.

[Question 12]

Basic sentence: Ng kakngodech a blekerdelir a Droteo me a Toki.
Preposing of entire subject: A blekerdelir a Droteo me a Toki a kakngodech.
Preposing of possessor only: A Droteo me a Toki a kakngodech a blekerdelir.

[Question 13]

The result of preposing the possessor is the sentence below:

A sensei a mle kosio a dengua er *ngii*.

The emphatic pronoun *ngii* that appears in this sentence is a *pronoun trace* that marks the original grammatical position of the preposed noun *sensei*. Since the original noun phrase of possession *dengua er a sensei* consists of an *unpossessible* noun (*dengua*) followed by a *possessor phrase* (*er a sensei*), the process of preposing leaves *er* followed by a "blank slot" that must be filled, and the grammatical mechanism for filling it is to use a (third person singular) emphatic pronoun.

[Question 14]

For Palauan speakers who feel that preposing affects the meaning of a sentence, any preposed element is considered to be a *topic*—i.e., old information that has already been mentioned by at least one of the speakers in the current conversation.

[Question 15]

Preposing of the entire post-predicate subject is prohibited in sentences of the following types:

1. Sentences with affirmative and negative expressions of existence.
   Examples: (19) of 15.4.1, (21) of 15.4.2
2. Sentences with idioms containing a possessed form of *reng*.
   Examples: (27) of 15.4.4
3. Sentences with predicates containing forms of the four special obligatorily possessed nouns *soak*, *chetik*, *sebechek*, and *kirek*.
   Note: Some speakers accept sentences with *soak*, etc. in which preposing has occurred.
   Examples: (38) of 15.7

[Question 16]

While preposing of the entire post-predicate sentence subject is prevented with *diak* (or *dimlak*), because *mo diak* 'to disappear, run out, stop, become non-existent' is a change of state (action) expression, no such restriction applies. See *Note 6* in 15.4.2 for examples.

[Question 17]

Typical examples can be found in (22–3) of 15.4.3.

[Question 18]

Idiomatic expressions with *reng* consist of a state verb (or sometimes action verb) followed by a possessed form of *reng*—e.g., *ng suebek a renguk* 'I'm worried', *ng kesib a rengul a*

sensei 'the teacher is angry', etc. With such idiomatic expressions, preposing of the entire post-predicate sentence subject is prohibited, as shown in (27) of 15.4.4. However, if the original expression contains a specific third person possessor, then that possessor can be preposed, as shown the (b)-sentences below:

(1) a. Ng kesib a rengul a sensei. 'The teacher is angry.'

b. A sensei a kesib a rengul. 'The teacher [**topic**]—he/she's angry.'

(2) a. Ng klou a rengrir a resensei. 'The teachers are patient.'

b. A resensei a klou a rengrir. 'The teachers [**topic**]—they're patient.'

[Question 19]

1. Add a sharp rise in intonation at the end of the sentence—e.g.,

   Ng mla mo smecher a ngelekem? 'Has your child gotten sick?'

2. Prepose the post-predicate subject (or a possessor within it) to sentence-initial position without deleting the original pre-predicate non-emphatic pronoun—e.g.,

   A ngelekem ng mla mo smecher? 'Your child [**topic**]—has he/she gotten sick?'

[Question 20]

As indicated in (2) of Question 19 above, when preposing occurs in yes-no questions, the original pre-predicate non-emphatic pronoun does not get deleted. For this reason, yes-no questions differ from statements, where preposing results in deletion (total replacement) of the original pre-predicate pronoun.

[Question 21]

Basic sentence: Ng mla mo diak a ududir a resensei.
Preposing of entire subject: A ududir a resensei a mla mo diak.
Preposing of possessor only: A resensei a mla mo diak a ududir.

[Question 22]

a. Ng chetil a Droteo a rrom.
The predicate is *chetil a Droteo* (a noun phrase of possession containing *chetil* followed by a specific possessor); the subject is a double subject *ng...rrom*.

b. Ng chetil a Droteo el melim a rrom.
The predicate is *chetil a Droteo* (as above); it is followed by a specifying clause *el melim a rrom* that specifies what Droteo does not want to do. The subject is the pre-predicate non-emphatic pronoun *ng*.

[Question 23]

a. Ng chetil a Droteo el melim a rrom.
The predicate is *chetil a Droteo* (as above); it is followed by a specifying clause *el melim a rrom* that specifies what Droteo does not want to do on a single, particular occasion: "Droteo doesn't want to drink liquor."

b. Ng chetil a Droteo a omelim el rrom.
In this sentence, the predicate is followed by the *derived action noun omelim* '(action of) drinking', whose object (*rrom*) is marked with *el*. This is a general statement about Droteo's habitual dislike of drinking: "Droteo dislikes drinking liquor."

c. Ng sebechem el melim a rrom?
With a specifying clause (*el melim a rrom*), this sentence is a question about what someone is able to do (or is permitted to do) on a single, particular occasion: "Can you (= are you able to, are you permitted to) drink liquor (now)?"

d. Ng sebechem a omelim el rrom?
With a derived action noun (*omelim*), this sentence is a general question about someone's ability or capacity: "Can you drink liquor (= is liquor drinking something you can do)?" This question could be used in a very challenging way: "Are you strong/mature enough to drink liquor?"

[Question 24]

For some speakers, deriving (b) from (a) is acceptable. The resulting sentence, however, has a very emphatic sense: "Candy is what the child likes" or "It is candy that the child likes."

[Question 25]

As noted in 15.7.1, the unusual feature is that the preposed possessor is removed from the *predicate* of the sentence (rather than from the subject, as observed in all previous cases). Appropriate examples can be found in (41–2).

[Question 26]

Forming yes-no questions from sentences containing the four special obligatorily possessed nouns conforms to expected patterns. See 15.7.2 for discussion and examples.

[Question 27]

In this sentence, *soal* means "looks as if" and therefore refers to a kind of prediction based on observation of current circumstances. The given sentence means "It looks as if there will be a big typhoon."

[Question 28]

Sebechel, etc. can refer either to *ability* or to *permission*. See (49) of 15.7.3 for examples.

[Question 29]

See the examples of (53) in 15.7.3.

[Question 30]

Since they are nouns, the forms of the four special obligatorily possessed nouns use the auxiliary *mle* in the past tense. For change of state, they use the auxiliary *mo* (past: *mlo*, recent past: *mla mo*). See the examples of (54) and (56) in 15.7.3.

[Question 31]

When preposing has applied either to the sentence object or to a noun within a relational phrase, the verb in the derived sentence must take a *prefix pronoun*. See 15.8 for discussion and examples.

[Question 32]

When the subject and predicate are switched, the resulting sentence places a special focus or emphasis on a particular person (or thing) as the one and only item satisfying the description of the (switched) predicate. Thus, a sentence like *A kmudel a chiul a Toki* should be translated as "What must be cut is Toki's hair."

[Question 33]

Verbs like *omsang* 'to give' and *olisechakl* 'to teach' typically take two objects. In an example like the following,

Ak milsa a Helen a omiange. 'I gave Helen a souvenir.'

the first object (*Helen*) identifies the *beneficiary* (the person to whom the item is given), while the second object (*omiange*) identifies the actual item given. Traditionally, the beneficiary is called the *indirect object*, while the object given (transferred, etc.) is called the *direct object*.

[Question 34]

When both the indirect and direct objects of a verb like *omsang* 'to give' are third person singular, their order can be switched. Thus, in addition to the sentence given in Question 33 above, we can also have the following:

Ak milsa a omiange a Helen. 'I gave a souvenir to Helen.'

KEY TO EXERCISES

[15.12: Processes of Sentence Formation In Palauan: Exercises]

[Exercise 1]

1. Original sentence: Te mla me a rechad er a Merikel.
   Preposed sentence (entire post-predicate subject preposed):

   A rechad er a Merikel a mla mei. 'The Americans [**topic**]—they've come.'

2. Original sentence: Te mlo kaubuch a Droteo me a Toki.
   Preposed Sentence 1 (entire post-predicate compound subject preposed):

   A Droteo me a Toki a mlo kaubuch. 'Droteo and Toki [**topic**]—they've gotten married.'

   Preposed Sentence 2 (first member of compound subject preposed):

   A Droteo a mlo kaubuch ngii me a Toki. 'Droteo [**topic**]—he's gotten married to Toki.'

   Note: pronoun trace *ngii*

3. Original sentence: Ng kmal klou a belkul a tekingel a rubak.
   Preposed Sentence 1 (entire post-predicate subject preposed):

   A belkul a tekingel a rubak a kmal klou. 'The meaning of the old man's words [**topic**]—it's very important.'

   Preposed Sentence 2 (possessor *tekingel a rubak* preposed):

   A tekingel a rubak a kmal klou a belkul. 'The old man's words [**topic**]—they're very important.'

   Preposed Sentence 3 (possessor *rubak* preposed):

   A rubak a kmal klou a belkul a tekingel. 'The old man [**topic**]—his words are very important.'

4. Original sentence: Ng diak a temek el mo er a chei.
   Preposing of entire subject prevented (negative expression of existence)

5. Original sentence: Ng kmal mle meringel a daob.
   Preposed sentence (entire post-predicate subject preposed):

   A daob a kmal mle meringel. 'The ocean [**topic**]—it was very rough.'

6. Original sentence: Ng mla mo diak a sidosia er a Droteo.
   Preposed Sentence 1 (entire post-predicate subject preposed):

   A sidosia er a Droteo a mla mo diak. 'Droteo's car [**topic**]—it's disappeared.'

Preposed Sentence 2 (possessor only preposed):

A Droteo a mla mo diak a sidosia er ngii. 'Droteo [**topic**]—his car has disappeared.'

Note: pronoun trace *ngii*

7. Original sentence: Te mlo er a che a demak me a obekuk.
Preposed Sentence 1 (entire post-predicate compound subject preposed):

A demak me a obekuk a mlo er a chei. 'My father and my older brother [**topic**]—they went fishing.'

Preposed Sentence 2 (first member of compound subject preposed):

A demak a mlo er a che ngii me a obekuk. 'My father [**topic**]—he went fishing with my older brother.'

Note: pronoun trace *ngii*

8. Original sentence: Ng kmal mle kesib a rengul a sensei.
Preposing of entire subject prevented (idiomatic expression with *reng*); however, we have the following:
Preposed sentence (possessor only preposed):

A sensei a kmal mle kesib a rengul. 'The teacher [**topic**]—he was very angry.'

9. Original sentence: Ng mla mo bengngos a ngelekek.
Preposed sentence (entire post-predicate subject preposed):

A ngelekek a mla mo bengngos. 'My child [**topic**]—he/she has become a lawyer.'

10. Original sentence: Ng smecher a demal a sechelik.
Preposed Sentence 1 (entire post-predicate subject preposed):

A demal a sechelik a smecher. 'My friend's father [**topic**]—he's sick.'

Preposed Sentence 2 (possessor only preposed):

A sechelik a smecher a demal. 'My friend [**topic**]—his/her father is sick.'

11. Original sentence: Te blechoel el kaingeseu a rechad er a Modekngei.
Preposed Sentence 1 (entire post-predicate subject preposed):

A rechad er a Modekngе a blechoel el kaingeseu. 'The Modekngei people [**topic**]—they always help each other.'

Preposed Sentence 2 (possessor only preposed):

A Modekngе a blechoel el kaingeseu a rechad er ngii. 'Modekngei [**topic**]—its people always help each other.'

Note: pronoun trace *ngii*

12. Original sentence: Ng dimlak a ududel a mechas.
Preposing of entire subject prevented (negative expression of existence); however, we have the following:
Preposed sentence (possessor only preposed):

A mechas a dimlak a ududel. 'The old woman [**topic**]—she didn't have any money.'

13. Original sentence: Ng daiksang a Satosi.
Preposed sentence (entire post-predicate subject preposed):

A Satosi a daiksang. 'Satoshi [**topic**]—he's a carpenter.'

14. Original sentence: Ng milseseb a blil a Toki.
Preposed Sentence 1 (entire post-predicate subject preposed):

A blil a Toki a milseseb. 'Toki's house [**topic**]—it burned down.'

Preposed Sentence 2 (possessor only preposed):

A Toki a milseseb a blil. 'Toki [**topic**]—her house burned down.'

[Exercise 2]

1. Original sentence: Te mlo kaubuch a Droteo me a Toki.
Yes-no Question 1: A Droteo me a Toki te mlo kaubuch?
Yes-no Question 2: A Droteo ng mlo kaubuch ngii me a Toki?
In Question 2, note the pronoun trace *ngii* and the non-emphatic pronoun *ng*, which agrees with preposed *Droteo*, which is singular.

2. Original sentence: Ng soal a Toki el mesuub a tekoi er a Siabal.
Yes-no question: A Toki ng soal el mesuub a tekoi er a Siabal?

3. Original sentence: Ng mle suebek a rengul a ngalek.
Yes-no question: A ngalek ng mle suebek a rengul?

4. Original sentence: Ng sebechir a rengalek el mo er a chelebacheb.
Yes-no question: A rengalek ng sebechir el mo er a chelebacheb?

5. Original sentence: Ng mle klebokel a bechil a Martin.
Yes-no Question 1: A bechil a Martin ng mle klebokel?
Yes-no Question 2: A Martin ng mle klebokel a bechil?

[Exercise 3]

1. A ngalek a lechillebedii a sensei. 'The child [**topic**]—the teacher hit him/her.'

2. A Toki a kirel el mo er a ocheraol. 'Toki [**topic**]—she must go to the money-raising party.'

3. A blsibs a letilobed er ngii a beab.	'The hole [**topic**]—the mouse came out of it.'
4. A kall a blechoel el loruul a redil.	'The food [**topic**]—women always prepare it.'
5. Se el delmerab a lemechiuaiu er ngii a rengalek.	'That room [**topic**]—the children sleep in it.'

[Exercise 4]

1. A ochur a chetirir.	'What they (really) dislike is math.'
2. A rirekemii a karas a ngalek.	'The one who broke the (window) glass is the child.'
3. A mo er a che a resechal.	'It's the men who go fishing.'
4. Ak milsa a hong a Droteo.	'I gave a book to Droteo.'
5. A bengngos a Toki.	'The one who is a lawyer is Toki.'

SUGGESTIONS FOR ADDITIONAL ACTIVITIES

1. Find several selections of written Palauan and analyze each sentence within the selection in terms of the concepts of sentence formation discussed in this lesson. The data can be analyzed by answering questions such as the following:
   a. Is the sentence a statement (assertion)? If so, does it have a double subject or is there a preposed element?
   b. If preposing is involved, precisely what sentence element has been preposed—the entire subject, a possessor, etc.? Is the predicate affected in any way (e.g., changed into a prefix pronoun form)?
   c. Is the sentence a yes-no question? If so, what is its structure?
   d. Does the structure of the sentence involve any switching of major parts (e.g., subject and predicate)?
2. Using the same materials analyzed in No. 1 above, have students translate into appropriate English, being sure that the translation reflects such concepts as the difference between new vs. old information, special focus or emphasis, etc.

16

Teacher's Manual

NEGATION IN PALAUAN

GENERAL COMMENTS

1. Although the order of presentation has been somewhat modified, the material covered in Lesson 16 corresponds to that found in *PRG* Chapter 18 ("Negation"). Because some aspects of negation have already been described in detail in earlier lessons (see, for example, the discussion of *negative expressions of existence* in 15.4.2), this lesson concentrates primarily on the derivation of *complex* negative sentences (16.4, 16.4.1–4)—that is, sentences like *Ng diak lebo er a skuul a ngalek* 'The child doesn't go to school', in which a sentence-initial negative expression such as *ng diak* is followed by a predicate in *prefix pronoun form* (in this case, *le-* + *bo*). The derivation of these complex negative sentences is presented in a more straightforward way than in the original *PRG* Chapter 18: thus, the derivation follows the principles listed in (28a–c) of 16.4 and is supplemented by the already familiar principles of *preposing*. In the current lesson, the additional process of "subject shifting" referred to extensively in *PRG* Chapter 18 (and *PRG* Chapter 17 as well) has been totally eliminated.

2. In addition to focusing on the derivation of complex negative sentences, Lesson 16 concentrates on some issues relating to the internal structure and meaning of Palauan negative verbs. Thus, an attempt is made to explain the internal structure of such forms as *dimlak*, *dirkak*, *lak*, *lemlak*, and so on. We also concentrate on the meaning of (a) *dimlak* vs. *dirkak*, (b) *mo diak*, and (c) various kinds of questions containing negative verbs (16.5, 16.5.1). Because complex negative sentences always require a prefix pronoun to be attached to the predicate that immediately follows the negative expression, and because prefix pronouns show a wide range of phonetic variants, an earlier chart of prefix pronoun forms is provided again in 16.4.1.

3. The major issues that students should be familiar with after reading this lesson are the following:

   a. The sentences of Palauan, like those of every language, can be classified into *affirmative* vs. *negative* types. Whereas an affirmative sentence *asserts* (affirms, makes a statement about) the occurrence of some action, event, state, condition, etc., a negative sentence *denies* such occurrence. All Palauan negative sentences contain some form of the negative verb *diak* (including *di kea* 'not yet').

b. Any sentence with the negative verb *diak* and a double subject—e.g., *Ng diak a udoud* 'There is no money'—constitutes a *negative expression of existence* and denies the existence of someone or something in a particular place and/or at a particular time. Negative expressions of existence contrast with *affirmative expressions of existence*—e.g., *Ng ngar er ngii a udoud* 'There is money'—which contain the expression *ng ngar er ngii* 'there is/are, exists' and a double subject and assert or affirm the existence of someone or something, etc.

c. Any sentence that starts with a negative expression (*ng diak*, *ng dimlak*, etc.) followed by a predicate that has a *prefix pronoun* attached to it is a *complex* negative sentence—for example, as above, *Ng diak lebo er a skuul a ngalek* 'The child doesn't go to school'. Such sentences have the following important features:

(1) A prefix pronoun (in the form of the appropriate phonetic variant) must be attached to the predicate (whether a verb or a noun). Thus, the third person (singular) prefix pronoun *le-* is attached to *bo* (from *mo* 'to go') in the example above.

(2) The prefix pronoun always refers to the subject of the predicate to which it is attached. Thus, *le-* refers to the person who doesn't go to school (namely, *ngalek* 'child') in the example under discussion.

(3) The sentence as a whole is derived from a "basic" structure like the following (for the example under discussion):

Ng diak [ng mo er a skuul a ngalek]

In this structure, the negative expression *ng diak* is followed by the entire sentence or idea (in brackets) that is being negated or denied. This basic structure reflects the general meaning of such sentences—namely, "It is (was) NOT the case that [such-and-such action, process, etc., occurs]". The actually spoken sentence *ng diak lebo er a skuul a ngalek* is derived merely by transforming the non-emphatic pronoun subject *ng* of the bracketed sentence into the corresponding prefix pronoun *le-* and attaching it to the predicate (forming the prefix pronoun verb form *lebo*).

(4) If the bracketed sentence contains a *double subject* (in the current example, *ng...ngalek*), then the post-predicate portion of that subject (*ngalek*) can be optionally *preposed* to sentence-initial position before *diak*, where it replaces *ng*, the original subject of *diak*. The resulting sentence is perfectly grammatical (and even preferred by some Palauan speakers): *A ngalek a diak lebo er a skuul* 'The child [**topic**]—he/she doesn't go to school'.

d. There is a wide variety of predicates to which prefix pronouns can be attached in complex sentences introduced by negative verbs. See 16.4.2–4 for details. When the predicate itself is complex (e.g., the complex verb phrase *mo merek*), any prefix pronoun associated with it will be attached to both parts (i.e., *kbo kmerek*, *lebo lemerek*, etc.).

e. Although easy to derive by structural principles already discussed, Palauan *negative questions* offer some challenges in terms of meaning, interpretation, and situational use.

4. Many of the ideas that have been used to improve the content and presentation of this lesson over that of *PRG* Chapter 18, particularly the approach to deriving complex negative sentences described in 3c(1–4) above, are due to the work of Alain Lemaréchal in *Problèmes de sémantique et de syntaxe en Palau* ("Problems of Semantics and Syntax in Palauan"). For a fuller reference to Lemaréchal's very important contributions, see General Comment 1 for Lesson 15 in this manual.

SPECIFIC COMMENTS

[16.1]

1. In this section students are introduced to the topic of negation by looking again at the contrast between *negative expressions of existence* vs. *affirmative expressions of existence* that was recently discussed in 15.4.1–3. A negative expression of existence is a sentence that contains a form of the negative verb *diak* and *denies* the existence of someone or something (in a particular place and/or at a particular time). Besides having a negative verb or expression as their predicate, all negative expressions of existence contain a *double subject*—e.g., *Ng diak a ududel a Toki* 'Toki doesn't have any money'. As already learned in Les. 15, we are prevented from preposing the entire post-predicate subject (*ududel a Toki*) with an expression of existence (affirmative or negative), but we can freely prepose the *possessor* alone, deriving the acceptable sentence *A Toki a diak a ududel* 'Toki [**topic**]—she doesn't have any money' (where the preposed noun phrase *Toki* now represents old information—i.e., something previously mentioned in the conversation).

2. *Note 1* fills in some additional information on *affirmative* expressions of existence, since this will be the last opportunity to touch upon that topic while it is still relevant.

[16.2–16.2.1]

1. In these sections we discuss the internal structure and meaning of the negative verb forms *dimlak* (used to indicate that something did not occur in the past on a single, specific occasion) and *dirkak* (used to indicate that something has not yet occurred as part of someone's past experience). There is ample structural evidence that *dimlak* is a special infixed form derived from the expected sequence *mle* + *diak*, while *dirkak* is a contracted form derived from the expected sequence *dirk* + *diak*. It is also clear that *diak* is a *state verb* in Palauan.

[16.2.2]

1. As seen in several earlier lessons, when *mo* is used with any state verb like *diak*, the resulting interpretation involves a *change of state*. Thus, *mo diak* usually means '(will) run out/ disappear', *mochu diak* (where *mochu* is the *predictive* form of *mo*) means 'is about to run out/disappear', and *mlo diak/mla mo diak* mean 'ran out, disappeared' and 'has run out/disappeared', respectively.

[16.2.3]

1. There is ample structural evidence that the negative verb *diak* itself has special prefix pronoun forms that are used in particular grammatical constructions (e.g., in "conditional" clauses after *a* 'if'). Thus, the present tense form *diak* shows the prefix pronoun form *lak* (a contraction from *le* + *diak*), and the past tense form *dimlak* shows the prefix pronoun form *lemlak* (a contraction from *le* + *dimlak*).

2. If students ask about the structure of the sentences in (15), you can explain them informally in the following way. All of these sentences have the meaning structure **condition** (i.e., **if** such-and-such is the case) + **consequent** (i.e., **then** such-and-such would be the result). The condition is expressed by a clause introduced by *a* 'if' directly followed by a predicate in *prefix pronoun* form. The consequent is expressed by a clause introduced by *e* 'and (then)' followed by a subject and verb in "normal" (i.e., *non*-prefix pronoun) form. In the conditional clauses of (15), the prefix pronoun predicates can be analyzed as follows:

   (15a) *kusuub*: 1st pers. sg. prefix pronoun *ku-* + *suub* (stem from transitive action verb *mesuub*)

   (15b) *lebo*: 3rd pers. (sg.) prefix pronoun *le-* + *bo* (stem from intransitive action verb *mo*; note change of stem-initial consonant M→B)

   (15c) *lsecher*: 3rd pers. (sg.) prefix pronoun *l-* + *secher* (stem from state verb *smecher*)

   (15d) *ksensei*: 1st pers. sg. prefix pronoun *k-* + *sensei* (independent noun stem)

   (15e) *lechad*: 3rd pers. (sg.) prefix pronoun *le-* + *chad* (independent noun stem)

3. Sentences (16a) and (16b) both exhibit two prefix pronoun forms. In each sentence, the first form is *lak*, the prefix pronoun form of *diak* required after *a* 'if' in the conditional clause. The second form is either *losuub* or *lebo*, third person (singular) prefix pronoun forms required after the negative verb itself. In other words, the prefix pronoun form *lak* is "governed" (determined) by *a* 'if', while the prefix pronoun forms *losuub* and *lebo* are governed by the negative verb *lak*.

4. In exactly the same way, sentence (17b) shows several prefix pronoun verb forms: *lemlak* comes from *dimlak* and is determined by *a* 'if'; *lebo* and *llengir* (joined by *me* into a compound verb phrase) are themselves governed by the negative verb *lemlak*. Note the

structure of *llengir*: third person (singular) prefix pronoun *l-* + *lengir*, which is derived from perfective *longir* (cf. imperfective *meleng*) by deleting the infixed verb marker *-o-* and replacing it with weak E.

[16.2.3.1]

1. *Lak* (from *le* + *diak*) is also used to mark or identify a *negative command* ("Don't...!"). It is always followed by an imperfective verb in prefix pronoun form (*mo-* in all the examples given, because the command is obviously directed at the person addressed).

[16.2.4]

1. The sequence *di kea* functions as a negative expression meaning either 'no longer' or 'not...after all'. In the examples of (20c–f), the original post-predicate subject of the "bracketed" sentence (see 16.4 below) has been preposed to sentence-initial position before *di kea* (where it functions as a topic, which for purposes of simplicity is not reflected in the English translations). Following the process of derivation to be described in 16.4, we would derive a sentence like (20c) by the steps below:

   a. Start with the "basic" sentence structure:

      Ng di kea [ng katungek a Toki]

   Notice that the bracketed sentence is itself in basic form with a double subject *ng...Toki* and the noun *katungek* as predicate.

   b. Change the subject *ng* of the bracketed sentence into the prefix pronoun *le-* and attach it to the predicate:

      Ng di kea [lekatungek a Toki]

   Without any further changes, this sentence is acceptable.

   c. Optionally prepose the post-predicate subject *Toki* to sentence-initial position before *di kea*, where it replaces the original sentence-initial non-emphatic pronoun *ng*:

      A Toki a di kea lekatungek.

   As noted above, the most appropriate translation for this sentence (with *Toki* as topic) would be: "Toki (whom we have already been talking about)—she's no longer my girlfriend".

   In the sentences of (20c–g), the prefix pronoun predicates can be analyzed as follows:

   (20c): *le-* + *katungek* (noun)

   (20d): *le-* + *ngalek* (noun)

(20e): *le-* + *ngar* (state verb *ngar* 'be located')

(20f): *le-* + *chad* (noun)

(20g): *k-* + *ureor* (intransitive action verb *oureor* 'to work'—note loss of initial *o-*)

[16.3–4, 16.4.1]

1. The expressions *ng diak*, *ng dimlak*, and *ng dirkak*, which are in fact short sentences with *ng* as subject and a negative verb as predicate, can function as complete answers to yes-no questions.

2. When the negative verbs *diak*, *dimlak*, etc., have a *double subject*, then the resulting sentence is a *negative expression of existence*—e.g., *ng diak a uos er Belau* 'There aren't any horses in Palau'. Such sentences are *simple* since they contain only the negative verb as predicate and no other predicate (verb) forms.

3. A *complex* negative sentence results when *ng diak*, *ng dimlak*, etc., are followed directly by an entire independent sentence ("proposition") that contains its own predicate and expresses the idea that is being negated or denied. Thus, a sentence like *ng diak lebo er a skuul a ngalek* 'The child doesn't go to school' has the basic grammatical and conceptual structure *ng diak* '**it is *not* the case**' + [ng mo er a skuul a ngalek] 'the child goes to school'. As indicated by the principles of (28) and in the subsequent discussions, we can explain the derivation of all Palauan complex negative sentences by proposing a "basic" structure in which the negative expression is followed by an entire ("bracketed") sentence which itself may have either a single (pre-predicate) pronoun subject or a double subject.

   If the bracketed sentence contains only a single pre-predicate non-emphatic pronoun as subject, we have the following typical derivation:

   a. Basic sentence structure:

      Ng dimlak [ak meruul a kall]

   b. Change subject *ak* of bracketed sentence into the corresponding prefix pronoun *ku-* and attach to the predicate:

      Ng dimlak [kuruul a kall]

   Notice that the imperfective form *meruul* loses the verb marker *me-* when a prefix pronoun is attached.

   Now, if the bracketed sentence contains a double subject, the following type of derivation occurs:

   a. Basic sentence structure:

      Ng dimlak [ng meruul a kall a redil]

b. Change subject *ng* of bracketed sentence into the corresponding prefix pronoun *lo-* and attach to the predicate:

Ng dimlak [loruul a kall a redil]

Without any further changes, this sentence is acceptable.

c. Optionally prepose the post-predicate subject *redil* to sentence-initial position before *dimlak*, where it replaces the sentence-initial non-emphatic pronoun *ng*:

A redil a dimlak loruul a kall. 'The woman/women (whom we have already been talking about)—she/they didn't prepare the food.'

The process of preposing illustrated here is covered extensively in 16.4.3.

4. See 16.4.1 for a review chart of the many variant forms of the Palauan prefix pronouns.

[16.4.2–16.4.4]

1. These sections introduce a large variety of complex negative sentences in Palauan. Students should recognize that prefix pronouns can be attached to a wide range of different predicates (i.e., many types of verbs as well as nouns functioning as predicates). The following types of prefix pronoun predicates are illustrated in these sections:

   a. prefix pronoun + transitive action verb (imperfective form):
   kuruul, *moruul*, *loruul*, etc. See (31–2), (43).

   b. prefix pronoun + transitive action verb (perfective form):
   kngesuir, *mngesuir*, *lengesuir*, etc. See (50).

   c. prefix pronoun + intransitive action verb (including directional verb):
   ktobed, *mtobed*, *ltobed*, etc.; *kbo*, *chobo*, *lebo*, etc. See (49).

   d. prefix pronoun + state verb (including *ngar*):
   ksecher, *msecher*, *lsecher*, etc.; *kngar*, *mngar*, *lengar*, etc.; *lemekngit*, *ledibus*, *leklou*, etc. See (33–4), (44), (52).

   e. prefix pronoun + basic form of transitive action verb:
   lemeruul, *lemengim*, *lemechelebed*, etc. See (51).

   f. prefix pronoun + noun:
   ksensei, *msensei*, *lsensei*, etc. See (35–6), (37–8), (45).

2. As summarized in (47) and illustrated by many examples, if the predicate of a bracketed sentence following *ng diak* consists of a complex verb phrase like *mo merek*, *mo ungil*, etc., or a change of state phrase like *mo sensei*, etc., then the appropriate prefix pronoun

must be attached separately to each part (e.g., *kbo kmerek*, *lebo lungil*, *chobo msensei*, and so on).

3. An interesting feature of complex negative sentences is that a prefix pronoun verb will always be in the *present tense* form, even though the entire sentence refers to past time (denoted by such negative verbs as *dimlak* and *dirkak*). This phenomenon is quite similar to what was observed in Lesson 14, where we noted that the tense of the verb in a *dependent clause* is normally present, even when the entire sentence (and the form of the independent clause verb) indicates a past event. See the discussion in (a) following (43–5) of 16.4.4.

4. The comments following each of the sentence groups in (49–52) focus on the phonetic structure of prefix pronoun verb forms. Students should understand that the (infixed, and sometimes prefixed) verb marker is deleted in many types of verbs when a prefix pronoun is attached. In (50c–d) the prefix pronoun forms *lleng* and *kkerir* can be analyzed as follows:

   lleng: *l-* + *leng*

   l-: third person (singular) prefix pronoun

   leng: derived from perfective form *lmeng* by deleting infixed verb marker *-m-*; *lmeng* (with zero suffix) refers to a non-human plural object (*hong* 'books')

   kkerir: *k-* + *kerir*

   k-: first persson singular prefix pronoun

   kerir: derived from perfective form *korir* by deleting infixed verb marker *-o-* and putting weak E in its place; *korir* refers to a third person singular object (*sensei* 'teacher')

[16.5–16.5.1]

1. The formation of negative yes-no questions (i.e., questions containing negative verbs) follows structural principles already studied in earlier lessons. In addition to simply pronouncing a basic sentence with rising intonation (e.g., *Ng diak lsensei a Satsko*? 'Isn't Satsko a teacher?'), we can form a negative yes-no question by preposing the post-predicate subject (or a possessor within it) (e.g., *A Satsko ng diak lsensei*? 'Satsko [**topic**]—isn't she a teacher?'). As expected, the original non-emphatic pronoun (*ng*) before *diak* is not replaced when an element is preposed to form a negative yes-no question.

2. While it is easy to describe the formation of Palauan yes-no questions, it is somewhat more difficult to deal with their meaning. This is because some Palauan speakers can interpret such negative questions in two ways. As described below, the situation as well as the speaker's assumptions will be different depending on what meaning is intended:

Negative yes-no question: Ng diak lsensei a Satsko?

Interpretation 1: 'Isn't Satsko a teacher?'
The speaker assumes or believes that Satsko is a teacher and simply wants to get a reconfirmation of this assumption or belief.

Interpretation 2: 'Is it (really) true that Satsko isn't a teacher?'
The speaker has found evidence or heard that Satsko is *not* a teacher. The speaker had assumed or believed the opposite and now wishes to confirm the real facts.

It will be interesting to see if the students in your class make the distinction between Interpretation 1 and Interpretation 2 described above. The distinction might come across more clearly if for Interpretation 2 the sentence is pronounced with extra high, prominent intonation at the end (to accentuate the speaker's surprise to hear the opposite of what he had believed). For those speakers who only assign one type of meaning to negative yes-no questions, Interpretation 1 will predominate.

3. We also notice that negative yes-no questions sometimes function as polite offers or invitations—see (57a–b).

4. Two additional types of Palauan questions can be formed by adding *ada ng diak* or *ng diak* in sentence-final position. A full explanation and examples are provided in 16.5.1.

KEY TO STUDY QUESTIONS

[16.7: Negation in Palauan: Study Questions]

[Question 1]

a. *negative verb*: the verb *diak* '(there) isn't/aren't, doesn't exist' and its various related forms—*dimlak* (single past event), *dirkak* (past experience), and *di kea* 'no longer'. A negative verb form always makes some kind of denial and occurs in negative expressions of existence, complex negative sentences, and negative questions.

b. *negative expression of existence*: an expression containing a form of the negative verb *diak* that denies the existence of someone or something in a particular place and/or at a particular time. *Example*: *Ng diak a malk er a chelsel a blai*. 'There aren't any chickens inside the house.' Negative expressions of existence contrast with affirmative expressions of existence (containing a form of *ngar er ngii*) that assert or affirm the existence of someone or something (e.g., *Ng ngar er ngii a malk er a chelsel a blai*. 'There are chickens inside the house.').

c. *double subject*: occurring in sentences whose subjects are third person (singular or plural), a subject with multiple parts consisting of (a) a nonemphatic pronoun (*ng* or *te*) in pre-predicate position and (b) a full noun phrase expansion in post-predicate position. Negative expressions of existence always have double subjects with *ng* as the first part, as in the following examples:

Ng diak a oluches.	'There aren't any pencils.'
Ng dimlak a cheldecheduch er a elii.	'There wasn't any meeting yesterday.'

d. *past experience*: the concept of whether or not someone has had the experience of doing something on at least one occasion in the past. To indicate past experience, Palauan uses *mla* as an auxiliary in affirmative sentences—e.g., *Ke mla mo er a Guam*? 'Have you ever gone to Guam?' To deny that one has had a particular experience, Palauan uses the negative verb *dirkak* 'not yet, not ever' (followed by a predicate in prefix pronoun form)—e.g., *Ng dirkak kbo er a Guam*. 'I haven't ever gone to Guam/I haven't gone to Guam yet.' Denying past experience with *dirkak* contrasts with denying the occurrence of a single, specific past event with *dimlak*—e.g., *Ng dimlak kbo er a Guam er tia el mlo merek el sandei*. 'I didn't go to Guam last week.'

e. *change of state*: used only with state verbs, an indication by means of the auxiliary *mo* that a particular state has come into being that contrasts with an earlier (opposite) state. For example, *Ng mlo mekelekolt a delmerab*. 'The room got cold.' implies a change of state with respect to the room's temperature (it is cold now, having been warm before). Since the negative verb *diak* is a state verb, *mo diak* indicates a change of state—e.g., *Ng mlo diak a ududek*. 'My money ran out.' (i.e., I had money previously, but then the money became "non-existent").

f. *prefix pronoun*: a bound pronoun (*ku-*, *mo-*, *lo-*, etc., and many variants) that is prefixed to a predicate (verb or noun) in a wide variety of grammatical constructions. In complex sentences containing the negative verb *diak*, the predicate immediately following *diak* must have a prefix pronoun attached. *Examples*:

Ng diak kuruul a kall.	'I don't prepare the food.'
Ng dimlak lebo er a skuul.	'He/she didn't go to school.'

g. *negative command*: a sentence expressing an order or command to someone *not* to do something. Negative commands consist of the negative verb *lak* followed by a verb with a second person prefix pronoun attached—e.g., *Lak molim a biang*! 'Don't drink any beer!'

h. *yes-no question*: any question that simply requests a "yes" or "no" answer (as opposed to questions containing words like *what*, *who*, *where*, etc., which ask for specific information). Palauan sentences with negative verbs can function as (negative) yes-no questions—e.g., *Ng diak chome er a blik*? 'Aren't you coming to my house?'

i. *complex sentence*: any sentence containing more than one clause and therefore more than one predicate (or verb). Palauan negative verbs typically occur in complex sentences like *Ng diak lebo er a skuul a ngalek*. 'The child doesn't go to school.' In such complex sentences, we have two predicates: (a) *diak* itself and (b) the predicate following *diak*, which must be in prefix pronoun form (in this example, *lebo*).

j. *complex verb phrase*: any verb phrase that is composed of two or more parts—e.g., *mla mo merek*, *mo remei*, *mo ungil*, etc. When a complex verb phrase is the predicate that follows the negative verb *diak*, as indicated in (i) above, then the required prefix pronoun must be attached multiply to each of its parts. *Example*: *Ng dirkak kbo kmerek er a subelek*. 'I haven't finished my homework yet.'

[Question 2]

An affirmative expression of existence asserts or affirms the existence of someone or something in a particular place and/or at a particular time, while a negative expression of existence denies the existence of someone or something. Whereas affirmative expressions of existence use *ng ngar er ngii* 'there is/are' (past tense: *mla er ngii*), negative expressions of existence use *diak* 'there isn't/aren't' (past tense: *dimlak*). Both affirmative and negative expressions of existence require double subjects, and the post-predicate portion always represents new information. *Examples*: *Ng ngar er ngii a kall*. 'There's food.' vs. *Ng diak a kall*. 'There's no food.'

[Question 3]

As noted in the answer to Question 2 above, sentences containing a negative expression of existence always contain a double subject (whose pre-predicate portion is invariably the third person singular nonemphatic pronoun *ng*). In a sentence containing a

negative expression of existence—e.g., *Ng diak a ududel a Toki.* 'Toki doesn't have any money.'—we are prevented from preposing the entire post-predicate subject, but it is perfectly acceptable to prepose a possessor alone, as in *A Toki a diak a ududel.* 'Toki [**topic**]—she doesn't have any money.'

[Question 4]

The negative verb *dimlak* probably has its source in "mle diak", where the auxiliary *mle* is used to indiicate the past tense with *state verbs*, which is the category to which *diak* belongs. The actual form *dimlak* seems to be derived from "mle diak" by a unique rule of infixing—i.e., *di-mle-ak* → *dimlak*. The negative verb *dirkak* also seems to have an unusual source—i.e., it comes from "dirk diak" (meaning 'still not' = 'not yet') by a kind of contraction (loss of the initial syllable *di* of *diak*): i.e., *dirk-diak* → *dirkak*.

[Question 5]

As indicated in 16.2.1, *dimlak* (followed by a prefix pronoun predicate) means that some event did not occur (failed to occur) on a single, specific occasion in the past. By contrast, *dirkak* (followed by a prefix pronoun predicate) means that the event in question failed to occur repeatedly or on many past occasions—that is, someone has never had the *experience* of carrying out a particular activity, etc. This meaning contrast is illustrated in the examples below:

a. Ng dimlak kbo er a Ngeaur er a elii.
'I didn't go to Angaur yesterday.' (i.e., I do go to Angaur on some occasions, but I did not go on the particular occasion mentioned—namely, yesterday.)

b. Ng dirkak kbo er a Ngeaur.
'I haven't gone to Angaur yet./I've never gone to Angaur.' (i.e., So far I haven't had the experience of going to Angaur, not even once.)

[Question 6]

For change of state we use *mo diak* (past: *mlo diak*; recent past: *mla mo diak*). See 16.2.2 for an explanation and examples.

[Question 7]

Both *lak* and *lemlak* are used in certain grammatical constructions that require prefix pronoun predicates—e.g., after *a* 'if' in conditional clauses (see the examples of 16 and 17). The negative form *lak* is a contraction of the prefix pronoun *le-* + *diak* (present tense), while *lemlak* is a contraction of the prefix pronoun *le-* + *dimlak* (past tense).

[Question 8]

Affirmative commands contain an imperfective (or perfective) verb form with a second person prefix pronoun—e.g., *Molim a kerum*! 'Drink you medicine!' or *Mngilmii a kerum*!

'Drink up your medicine!' By contrast, negative commands start with *lak* (see Question 7 above) and are followed by a verb form (imperfective only) with a second person prefix pronoun—e.g., *Lak molim a biang*! 'Don't drink any beer!'

[Question 9]

The negative expression *di kea*, just like *diak* (or *dimlak*), can be used in simple sentences with a double subject or in complex sentences followed by a predicate in prefix pronoun form. Both of these constructions are illustrated in the sentences below, where *di kea* means 'no longer' (i.e., some action, state, etc., used to occur but has stopped occurring at the present time):

a. Ng di kea a ududel a Satsko. 'Satsko no longer has any money.'

b. Ng di kea lekie er a Guam. 'He/she no longer is living in Guam.'

Sentences like (b) can also be interpreted to mean "not..after all" (see the examples of 21 in 16.2.4).

[Question 10]

This is illustrated clearly by Speaker B's responses in the dialogs of (23–6) in 16.3.

[Question 11]

As noted in (28a–c) of 16.4, complex sentences containing a negative verb have the following characteristics:

a. The negative verb must be immediately followed by a predicate (verb or noun) which is in *prefix pronoun form*—i.e., to which a prefix pronoun has been attached.

b. The general meaning of such sentences is "It is/was **not** the case that such-and-such action or process occurs, etc."

c. The prefix pronoun always denotes the *subject* of the predicate to which it is attached—i.e., the subject of the predicate that immediately follows *diak*.

[Question 12]

a. *Basic sentence structure*: Ng diak [ng mo er a skuul a ngalek]

b. Change subject *ng* of bracketed sentence into the prefix pronoun *le-* and attach to the predicate (note the change of M→B in *mo* 'to go'). This gives the sentence below:

Ng diak lebo er a skuul a ngalek.

c. Optionally *prepose* the post-predicate subject *ngalek* to sentence-initial position before *diak*, where it replaces the sentence-initial nonemphatic pronoun *ng*:

A ngalek a diak lebo er a skuul.

[Question 13]

As the list in (30) of 16.4.1 indicates, each Palauan prefix pronoun has quite a large number of phonetic variants. The full variants *ku-*, *mo-*, *lo-*, etc., occur with the imperfective forms of transitive action verbs (e.g., for *mesuub*: *kusuub*, *mosuub*, *losuub*, etc.), while the reduced variants *ke-/k-*, *m-*, *le-/l-*, etc., are attached to all other verb forms (e.g., perfective verbs such as *kngesuir*, *mngesuir*, *lengesuir*, etc.; state verbs like *ksecher*, *msecher*, *lsecher*, etc.) as well as nouns functioning as predicates (e.g., *ksensei*, *msensei*, *lsensei*, etc.). More details are found in the answer to Question 14 below.

[Question 14]

a. imperfective form of a transitive action verb: replace the verb marker *me-* with the appropriate full variant of the prefix pronoun.

Example: *meruul*: *kuruul*, *moruul*, *loruul*, etc.

b. perfective form of a transitive action verb: delete (in most cases) any infixed verb marker *-m-*, *-o-*, or *-u-* and attach a reduced variant of the prefix pronoun.

Examples: *ngosuir*: *kngesuir*, *mngesuir*, *lengesuir*, etc.
lmeng: *kleng*, *mleng*, *lleng*, etc.

c. intransitive action verb: delete any infixed verb marker *-m-*, *-o-*, or *-u-* and attach a reduced variant of the prefix pronoun.

Example: *tuobed*: *ktobed*, *mtobed*, *ltobed*, etc.

d. state verb with infixed verb marker: same as (c) above.

Example: *smecher*: *ksecher*, *msecher*, *lsecher*, etc.

e. state verb with prefixed verb marker: attached a reduced variant of the prefix pronoun without deleting the verb marker prefix *me-*.

Examples: *mekngit*: *lemekngit*; *meched*: *lemeched*, etc.

f. noun functioning as predicate: attach a reduced variant of the prefix pronoun directly to the noun stem.

Example: *sensei*: *ksensei*, *msensei*, *lsensei*, etc.

g. basic form of transitive action verb: same as (e) above.

Examples: *mechelebed*: *lemechelebed*; *mechat*, *lemechat*, etc.

h. directional verbs *mo* and *mei*: See (67) of 4.10.3 for details. Reduced variants are prefixed in some cases (*kbo*, *lebo*, etc.), while fuller variants are prefixed in others (e.g., *chobo*, *chomei*, etc.). While the M of *mei* remains unchanged, *mo* is affected by the rule M→B when a prefix pronoun is added.

[Question 15]

a. *Basic sentence structure*:

Ng diak [ng meringel a chimal a ngelekek]

b. Change subject *ng* of bracketed sentence into the prefix pronoun *le-* and attach to the predicate. This gives the sentence below:

Ng diak lemeringel a chimal a ngelekek.

c. Optionally *prepose* the entire post-predicate subject *chimal a ngelekek* to sentence-initial position before *diak*, where it replaces the sentence-initial nonemphatic pronoun *ng*:

A chimal a ngelekek a diak lemeringel.

d. Optionally *prepose* the possessor only (*ngelekek*) to sentence-initial position before *diak*, etc.:

A ngelekek a diak lemeringel a chimal.

[Question 16]

The prefix pronoun verb can be in the present tense form (*loluches*) because the negative verb *dimlak* already makes it clear that the speaker is referring to *past* time. The past tense negative verb form *dimlak* allows us to infer that an act (or process) of writing failed to take place at the past time indicated (*er a elii* 'yesterday').

[Question 17]

As the examples of (47) indicate, a copy of the relevant prefix pronoun is attached separately (multiply) to each part of the complex predicate.

[Question 18]

The formation of negative yes-no questions is not difficult structurally. There are two methods:

a. Add a sharp rise in intonation at the end of the corresponding statement (if that statement has either a single pre-predicate nonemphatic pronoun as subject or a double subject), making no changes in word order.

b. Prepose the entire post-predicate portion of a double subject (or the possessor within it), but do *not* delete (replace) the original nonemphatic pronoun subject *ng* preceding *diak*.

Examples: *Statement → Yes-no question by intonation method:*
Ng diak lemeringel a chimal a ngelekek?
'Doesn't my child's hand hurt?'

Preposing of entire post-predicate subject:
A chimal a ngelekek ng diak lemeringel?
'My child's hand [**topic**]—doesn't it hurt?'

Preposing of possessor alone:
A ngelekek ng diak lemeringel a chimal?
'My child [**topic**]—doesn't his/her hand hurt?'

[Question 19]

The answer to this question follows the format of Special Comment 2 on [16.5–16.5.1] above:

Negative yes-no question: Ng diak chobo er a chei?

Interpretation 1: 'Aren't you going fishing?'
The speaker assumes or believes that the hearer is going fishing and simply wants to get a reconfirmation of this assumption or belief. This could also possibly be a polite invitation ("Won't you go fishing with us?").

Interpretation 2: 'Is it (really) true that you are not going fishing?'
The speaker has found evidence or heard that the hearer is *not* going fishing. The speaker had assumed or believed the opposite and now wishes to confirm the real facts.

[Question 20]

As indicated in (57) of 16.5, any negative question in which *diak* is followed by a second person prefix pronoun verb form (e.g., *monga*, *chomei*, etc.) can function as a polite invitation or offer.

[Question 21]

When *ada ng diak* is attached to the end of a statement, the speaker is trying to reconfirm an assumption or belief. Sentence-final *ada ng diak* corresponds to English 'isn't that right/so?' or, depending on the subject, 'isn't he/she/it?', 'aren't you?', 'don't they', etc. It is also similar to *nee* at the end of any Japanese sentence.

[Question 22]

When *ng diak* is attached to the end of any yes-no question, the speaker is asking an emphatic yes-no question that means something like "is such-and-such the case or **not**?" Sometimes such questions have a very challenging tone.

KEY TO EXERCISES

[16.8: Negation in Palauaan: Exercises]

[Exercise 1]

a.	Ng diak a bilis er tiang.	'There aren't any dogs here.'
b.	Ng dimlak a kemeldiil er a elii.	'There wasn't any funeral yesterday.'
c.	Ng diak a chad er a chelsel a delmerab.	'There aren't any people in the room.'
d.	Ng dimlak a klakoad er a medal a restorangd.	'There wasn't any fight in front of the restaurant.'
e.	Ng diak a uos er Belau.	'There aren't any horses in Palau.'

[Exercise 2]

a.	Lak mongetmokl er a delmerab!	'Don't clean the room!'
b.	Lak moleng er a sebel!	'Don't borrow the shovel!'
c.	Lak mosiik er a sechelim!	'Don't look for your friend!'
d.	Lak doilil er tiang!	'Let's not play here!'
e.	Lak dorael!	'Let's not leave!'

[Exercise 3]

a. Ng dirkak [aki menga a kall er a Sina] →
Ng dirkak kimonga a kall er a Sina. 'We (excl.) haven't ever eaten Chinese food.'
Predicate: prefix pronoun *kimo-* + *nga* (from imperfective *menga*)

b. Ng diak [ak songerenger] →
Ng diak ksengerenger. 'I'm not hungry.'
Predicate: prefix pronoun *k-* + *sengerenger* (from state verb *songerenger*, with verb marker *-o-* deleted and replaced by weak E)

c. Ng dimlak [ke melatech er a mlik] →
Ng dimlak molatech er a mlik. 'You didn't clean my car.'
Predicate: prefix pronoun *mo-* + *latech* (from imperfective *melatech*)

d. Ng dimlak [ng mechat a ngikel] →
Ng dimlak lemechat a ngikel. 'The fish didn't get smoked.'
Predicate: prefix pronoun *le-* + *mechat* (basic form of *mengat*)

Additional sentence by preposing:

A ngikel a dimlak lemechat. 'The fish [**topic**]—it didn't get smoked.'

e. Ng dirkak [ng mo bechiil a Droteo] →
Ng dirkak lebo lebechiil a Droteo. 'Droteo hasn't gotten married yet.'
Predicate: prefix pronoun *le-* + *bo* (from *mo*); prefix pronoun *le-* + *bechiil* (state verb)
Note: A prefix pronoun is added to each part of the complex predicate *mo bechiil*.

Additional sentence by preposing:

A Droteo a dirkak lebo lebechiil. 'Droteo [**topic**]—he hasn't gotten married yet.'

f. Ng diak [ng sorir el me er a party] →
Ng diak lsorir el me er a party. 'They don't want to come to the party.'
Predicate: prefix pronoun *l-* + *sorir* (obligatorily possessed noun functioning as predicate)

g. Ng di kea [ak mesuub a tekoi er a Siabal] →
Ng di kea kusuub a tekoi er a Siabal. 'I'm no longer studying Japanese.'
Predicate: prefix pronoun *ku-* + *suub* (from imperfective *mesuub*)

h. Ng diak [ng bengngos a obekul a Tochi] →
Ng diak lebengngos a obekul a Tochi. 'Tochi's older brother isn't a lawyer.'
Predicate: *le-* + *bengngos* (noun functioning as predicate)

Additional sentences by preposing:

1. Prepose entire post-predicate subject:
A obekul a Tochi a diak lebengngos. 'Tochi's older brother [**topic**]—he isn't a lawyer.'

2. Prepose possessor only:
A Tochi a diak lebengngos a obekul. 'Tochi [**topic**]—his older brother isn't a lawyer.'

i. Ng dimlak [ng mo smecher a tolechoi] →
Ng dimlak lebo lsecher a tolechoi. 'The baby didn't get sick.'
Predicate: prefix pronoun *le-* + *bo* (from *mo*); prefix pronoun *l-* + *secher* (from state verb *smecher*, with verb marker *-m-* deleted)
Note: A prefix pronoun is added to each part of the complex predicate *mo smecher*.

Additional sentence by preposing:

A tolechoi a dimlak lebo lsecher. 'The baby [**topic**]—he/she didn't get sick.'

j. Ng di kea [ng sensei a Satsko] →
Ng di kea lsensei a Satsko. 'Satsko is no longer a teacher.'
Predicate: prefix pronoun *l-* + *sensei* (noun functioning as predicate)

Additional sentence by preposing:

A Satsko a di kea lsensei. 'Satsko [**topic**]—she's no longer a teacher.'

k. Ng dimlak [ng sebechek el mo er a blirir] →
Ng dimlak lsebechek el mo er a blirir. 'I couldn't go to their house.'
Predicate: prefix pronoun *l-* + *sebechek* (obligatorily possessed noun functioning as predicate)

l. Ng diak [ng ngar er a osbitar a mechas] →
Ng diak lengar er a osbitar a mechas. 'The old woman isn't in the hospital.'
Predicate: prefix pronoun *le-* + *ngar* (existential state verb)

Additional sentence by preposing:

A mechas a diak lengar er a osbitar. 'The old woman [**topic**]—she isn't in the hospital.'

m. Ng dimlak [ng dibus a demak] →
Ng dimlak ldibus a demak. 'My father wasn't away from home.'
Predicate: prefix pronoun *l-* + *dibus* (state verb)

Additional sentence by preposing:

A demak a dimlak ldibus. 'My father [**topic**]—he wasn't away from home.'

n. Ng di kea [ng ousers a rubak] →
Ng di kea lousers a rubak. 'The old man doesn't own a farm any more.'
Predicate: prefix pronoun *l-* + *ousers* (derived verb in *ou-*)

Additional sentence by preposing:

A rubak a di kea lousers. 'The old man [**topic**]—he doesn't own a farm any more.'

o. Ng dirkak [kede subedii a sensei] →
Ng dirkak desbedii a sensei. 'We haven't informed the teacher yet.'
Predicate: prefix pronoun *de-* + *sbedii* (from perfective verb *subedii*, with verb marker *-u-* deleted)

p. Ng diak [aika a babier er a Siabal] →
Aika a diak lebabier er a Siabal. 'These are not Japanese letters.'
Predicate: prefix pronoun *le-* + *babier* (noun functioning as predicate)
Note: Because the subject of the bracketed sentence is a demonstrative (*aika* 'these'), it *must* be preposed.

q. Ng dimlak [te cholebedii a ngalek] →
Ng dimlak lechelebedii a ngalek. 'They didn't hit the child.'
Predicate: prefix pronoun *le-* + *chelebedii* (from perfective verb *cholebedii*, with verb marker *-o-* deleted and replaced by weak E)

r. Ng diak [ng dengerenger a ngelekel a Satsko] →
Ng diak ldengerenger a ngelekel a Satsko. 'Satsko's child isn't badly behaved.'
Predicate: prefix pronoun *l-* + *dengerenger* (state verb)

Additional sentences by preposing:

1. Prepose entire post-predicate subject:
A ngelekel a Satsko a diak ldengerenger. 'Satsko's child [**topic**]—he/she's not badly behaved.'

2. Prepose possessor only:
A Satsko a diak ldengerenger a ngelekel. 'Satsko [**topic**]—her child isn't badly behaved.'

s. Ng dimlak [ak mo merek er a urerek] →
Ng dimlak kbo kmerek er a urerek. 'I didn't finish my work.'
Predicate: prefix pronoun *k-* + *bo* (from *mo*); prefix pronoun *k-* + *merek* (part of complex verb phrase *mo merek*)
Note: A prefix pronoun is added to each part of the complex predicate *mo merek*)

t. Ng dimlak [ng kolii a ngikel] →
Ng dimlak lekelii a ngikel. 'He/she didn't eat up the fish.'
Predicate: prefix pronoun *le-* + *kelii* (from perfective verb *kolii*, with verb marker *-o-* deleted and replaced by weak E)

[Exercise 4]

a. Ng dimlak mongiis er a kliokl? 'Weren't you digging the hole?'

b. Ng diak a ngelekir a Toki me a Droteo? 'Don't Toki and Droteo have children?'
Additional question by preposing:
A Toki me a Droteo ng diak a ngelekir? 'Toki and Droteo [**topic**]—don't they have children?'

c. Ng diak lsebek a rengul a mechas? 'Isn't the old woman worried?'
Additional question by preposing:
A mechas ng diak lsebek a rengul? 'The old woman [**topic**]—isn't she worried?'

d. Ng diak lecheroid a blil a Satsko? 'Isn't Satsko's house far?'
Additional question by preposing:
A Satsko ng diak lecheroid a blil? 'Satsko [**topic**]—isn't her house far?'

e. Ng dimlak morrenges er a derumk? 'Didn't you hear the thunder?'

SUGGESTIONS FOR ADDITIONAL ACTIVITIES

1. Select one or more texts of naturally written Palauan (from a letter, story, textbook, etc.). Have students identify every sentence in which a negative form occurs. Once the sentence has been isolated, it can be analyzed in terms of the concepts introduced in this lesson:

   a. What form does the negative verb take (*diak*, *dimlak*, *lak*, etc.)?

   b. Does the negative form function as a negative expression of existence in a simple sentence? If so, what is the subject of the negative verb—i.e., is it a single nonemphatic pronoun or is it a double subject?

   c. Does the negative sentence observed involve preposing of a particular sentence element?

   d. Is the negative sentence complex—i.e., does it contain a form of *diak* followed by a predicate in *prefix pronoun* form? If so, what is the internal structure of the prefix pronoun predicate—what form is the prefix pronoun in, and if the predicate is a verb, how is that verb modified when the prefix pronoun is attached?

   e. What is the English equivalent of the negative sentence being analyzed? Are there any unusual features of the situation in which the sentence would be used?

2. Have each student in the class formulate ten different sentences that are affirmative statements. Then, as an exercise or game, other students must transform the sentences correctly into their negative counterparts. As part of this exercise, students should be able to answer questions like (1a–e) above about the sentences they have produced. The exercise can be taken further by then deriving *negative questions* from the model sentences offered.

17

Teacher's Manual

PREFIX PRONOUN PREDICATES IN PALAUAN

GENERAL COMMENTS

1. This lesson is based on *PRG* Chapter 19 ("Uses of Hypothetical Verb Forms"). The most obvious difference is that the controversial meaning-based term "hypothetical" used in the *PRG* has been totally abandoned in favor of the term *prefix pronoun*, which refers solely to the grammatical (or structural) characteristics of such pronouns—namely, that they are bound forms that are prefixed to predicates (mostly verbs, but sometimes nouns) in a wide variety of constructions.

   Thus, instead of "hypothetical pronoun" (originally introduced in *PRG* 4.10) and "hypothetical verb form" (used extensively in *PRG* Chapter 19), the current lesson uses the conceptually simpler, less controversial terms *prefix pronoun* and *prefix pronoun predicate* (or *verb*). Recall that in the *PRG*, the term "hypothetical" was chosen because some of the constructions in which such pronouns are used (e.g., complex negative sentences and conditional sentences) involve supposed, imagined (i.e., "hypothesized"), or unreal situations or events. Although passing reference is made to this concept in the summary section 17.12, it is not as heavily emphasized as in the *PRG* because subsequent research on Palauan has revealed some alternative ways of approaching the difficult question of what unifying semantic factors, if any, underlie the use of prefix ("hypothetical") pronouns.

   In particular, the French linguist Alain Lemaréchal, in his *Problèmes de sémantique et de syntaxe en Palau* ("Problems of Semantics and Syntax in Palauan"), which we have already mentioned earlier in this manual (see Lesson 15, General Comment 1), has made many valuable contributions in this area. He claims, for example, that most instances where prefix pronouns are used in Palauan boil down to an emphasis (by the speaker) on an entire *process* or activity rather than on any of its individual "participants" (i.e., the subject, object, etc.). Even so, Lemaréchal still needs to invoke a separate principle ("de-orientation"—see his Chapter VIII, Sections 4–6) to explain why prefix pronoun predicates are used when the sentence object (17.9) or an element from within a relational phrase (17.10) is preposed. Though very valuable and insightful, Lemaréchal's theory and analysis are too difficult to introduce to students in any form, and therefore, Lesson 17 basically

says that there is a wide variety of environments (i.e., grammatical constructions) in which Palauan prefix pronouns are used, but that it is very difficult to find a single, unifying principle that will explain each and every use.

2. Just as Lesson 15 eliminated the concept of "subject shifting" in favor of an analysis that proposes basic Palauan sentences with *double subjects* that are affected by a variety of *preposing* processes (again, see the Teacher's Manual for Lesson 15, General Comment 1), this lesson also maintains that analysis and makes no reference to the unnecessary concept of "subject shifting" found in *PRG* Chapter 19. The concept of *preposing*, introduced originally in 15.2, etc., is referred to primarily in 17.9 and 17.10, where we observe that preposing of the sentence object or an element from within a relational phrase triggers a prefix pronoun construction.

3. In *PRG* Chapter 19, all sentences involving preposing of the sentence object or an element from within a relational phrase were described as "passive sentences". For many reasons, the most important of which is that the *PRG* wrongly tried to force Palauan grammar into an English "mold", we are no longer justified in applying the term "passive" to such sentences as the following:

   a. A hong a longuiu er ngii a ngalek. 'The book (which we have already been talking about)—the child is reading it.'

   b. A delmerab a losuub er ngii a ngalek. 'The room (which we have already been talking about)—the child is studying in it.'

   As Lemaréchal has pointed out, it is especially inappropriate to apply the term "passive" to a sentence like (b), where the supposed "passivized" element was *never* the sentence object. In fact, our interpretation of sentences like (a–b) above follows Lemaréchal's simple and straightforward theory of preposing, which we have already assumed in this textbook.

   In other words, these examples are nothing more than cases in which the very *general* process of preposing has been *specifically* applied to a *sentence object* in (a) and to a *noun within a relational phrase* in (b). This special subcategory of cases is distinct from the more common preposing of the *subject* (or a possessor within the subject), and therefore it gets a special grammatical "marking"—namely, the appearance of a prefix pronoun attached to the verb. Since for many Palauan speakers the preposing of any sentence element expresses the idea of an established *topic* (*old information*), we have chosen to translate (a–b) into English in a way that reflects this usage—namely, with the parenthesized expression "which we have already been talking about", for which we have chosen the notation [**topic**] throughout our presentation. It is important to note that, although somewhat awkward because they are designed to reflect the true situational meaning, the English equivalents for (a–b) are *not* passive sentences.

4. As noted in 17.9.1, the closest Palauan construction to English passive sentences like "The house was burned down (by the child)" is simply a sentence containing a transitive action verb in its *basic form* (i.e., verb marker *me-* + stem). For example, a basic form like *meseseb* 'get burned down' (related to imperfective *meleseb* 'to burn') is used with a subject indicating the thing that *undergoes* the process of burning, as in the example below:

   a. Ng milseseb a blai. 'The house was/got burned down.'

   Because the subject of *milseseb* (*ng...blai* 'house') is affected by the *process* of burning, we have also chosen to call *milseseb* a *processive form* from the viewpoint of meaning. As the examples in 17.9.1 indicate, (a) above can be transformed by subject preposing into (b):

   b. A blai a milseseb. 'The house [**topic**]—it was/got burned down.'

   Finally, what differentiates sentences like (a–b) from their English (passive) counterparts is that, unlike English, there is usually no phrase indicating the person responsible for the action (i.e., the doer or agent). If the doer or agent is mentioned, a relational phrase is used, but many Palauan speakers consider its insertion to be quite awkward:

   c. A blai a milseseb er a ngalek. 'The house [**topic**]—it was/got burned down by the child.'

   It should be recognized that analyzing sentences like (a–c) above as the only genuine "passive" sentences of Palauan is also due to an insight of the French linguist Lemaréchal (see General Comment 1 above).

5. While many of the basic assumptions and terms of *PRG* Chapter 19 have been partially or even drastically modified for presentation in Lesson 17, as described in General Comments 1–4 above, certain other parts of the original *PRG* Chapter 19 are maintained with little or no change. Thus, Lesson 17 follows *PRG* Chapter 19 very closely with respect to the following topics:

   a. Structure and meaning of Palauan *conditional sentences*, which contain a *condition clause* and a *consequent clause* (17.2, etc.) that are often *switched* (17.3).

   b. Structure and meaning of additional types of Palauan *condition clauses*—i.e., clauses introduced by *a lsekum*, *ulekum*, and *a kmu* (17.4, 17.4.1–3).

   c. Conditional sentences with a form of *soal* or *chetil* followed by a (switched) condition clause (17.5), and the contrast with other constructions following these same possessed nouns (17.5.1).

   d. Condition clauses containing time words, as in *a letutau* 'in the morning, mornings' (17.6).

   e. Affirmative and negative imperative sentences (and verb forms) (17.7, 17.7.1).

   f. Affirmative and negative propositive sentences (and verb forms) (17.8).

6. Since prefix pronoun constructions associated with *negative verbs* (i.e., in complex negative sentences) were discussed at great length in 16.4 and 16.4.1–4, they are only referred to briefly in 17.1 (see examples 1a–d of this lesson).

7. The main issues that students should be aware of after reading this lesson are listed below:

   a. The use of Palauan prefix pronouns covers a wide range of grammatical constructions (see the summary in 70 of 17.12), of which many represent very important sentence types (negative sentences, conditional sentences, imperative and propositive sentences, sentences with preposed elements, etc.). There are certain common features of meaning that unite some of these constructions (see the discussion at the end of 17.12).

   b. In any grammatical construction requiring a prefix pronoun, that pronoun is prefixed to the predicate, which may be a verb form or a noun. When such prefixing occurs, a verb may often change its form (e.g., lose an infixed verb marker, etc.). A prefix pronoun always refers to the subject of the predicate to which it is attached.

   c. All complex sentences containing negative verbs will show a prefix pronoun predicate.

   d. In conditional sentences, the usual order of clauses is *condition clause + consequent clause*, with a prefix pronoun predicate occurring in all condition clauses introduced by *a* 'if'. In many cases, the condition clause and the consequent clause can be switched, and in some constructions (e.g., clauses associated with *soal* and *chetil*—see 17.5) a condition clause normally occurs in switched position.

   e. In addition to *a* 'if' (+ prefix pronoun predicate), we can use *a lsekum*, *ulekum*, and *a kmu* in condition clauses, although these elements are not followed by prefix pronoun predicates. Condition clauses can describe a wide variety of situations in the present, future, or past (see 27 of 17.4.1), and for many speakers there are subtle contrasts of meaning among them (see 28 of 17.4.1).

   f. When the process of preposing applies either to the sentence object or to a noun found within a relational phrase, the resulting construction requires a prefix pronoun predicate. As expected, the preposed elements in such sentences represent an established topic (old information).

SPECIFIC COMMENTS

[17.1]

1. In this introductory section, we review previously studied uses of prefix pronouns. Points (a–d) after the examples of (1) summarize the most important features of Palauan (complex) negative sentences. Examples (2a–b), (3a–b), and (4a–b) review cases in which the sentence object or a noun from within a relational phrase has been preposed.

[17.2–17.2.2]

1. Here we introduce the concept of conditional sentence—i.e., a sentence in which the speaker imagines, speculates, hypothesizes, etc., as follows: "If event/situation A occurs/occurred, then situation B would occur/would have occurred." The basic structure of Palauan conditional sentences—namely, *condition clause* + *consequent clause*—is also discussed and illustrated. If a condition clause is introduced by *a* 'if', then it must contain a prefix pronoun predicate (in the present tense for present and future conditions, and in the past tense for past conditions—see the summary in 10).

2. Many of the conditional sentences given as examples are of the contrary-to-fact variety—i.e., the condition on which the possible consequent depends is not or was not a real fact. Thus, the present contrary-to-fact condition described in sentence (6) is something like: "If I had the money now (*but I don't*), then I would buy a car (*but since I don't have the money, I can't*)." Similarly, the past contrary-to-fact condition described in (15) would be something like: "If I had been a teacher (*but I wasn't*), then I would have just taught math (*but since I wasn't a teacher, I didn't*)."

3. In examples (7a–d), students should have no trouble identifying the condition clause (introduced by *a* 'if') and the consequent clause (introduced by *e* 'then'). The prefix pronoun predicates in each of these sentences can be analyzed as follows:

   7a. *lebo*: 3rd pers. (sg.) prefix pronoun *le-* + *bo*
   (from intransitive action verb *mo* 'to go')

   7b. *lsecher*: 3rd pers. (sg.) prefix pronoun *l-* + *secher*
   (from state verb *smecher* 'sick', with infixed verb marker *-m-* deleted)

   7c. *ksensei*: 1st pers. sg. prefix pronoun *k-* + *sensei*
   (noun functioning as predicate)

   7d. *lechad*: 3rd pers. (sg.) prefix pronoun *le-* + *chad*
   (noun functioning as predicate)

[17.2.3]

1. We have already seen in 16.2.3 that when the negative verb *diak* appears in a construction requiring a prefix pronoun form, we get *lak* in the present tense (a contraction of *le-* + *diak*) and *lemlak* in the past tense (a contraction of *le-* + *dimlak*). This explains why condition clauses introduced by *a* 'if' will contain *lak* or *lemlak* if they express the ideas "if event/situation A does *not* occur" or "if event/situation A did *not* occur".

2. In example (17), there are two predicates following *lemlak* which themselves must be in prefix pronoun form (following a negative verb). Thus, we find *lebo* (*le-* + *bo*) and *llengir* (*l-* + *lengir*, in which the original verb marker *-o-* of perfective *longir* has been deleted and replaced by weak E).

3. *Note 1* shows an interesting combination of conditional clause + (negative) imperative clause.

[17.3]

1. Just as in English, the order of condition clause and consequent clause in Palauan conditional sentences can be switched (called "permutation" in *PRG* Chapter 19). When a consequent clause is moved to first (sentence-initial) position, the conjunction *e* 'then' is lost. Switching clauses has no discernible effect on the meaning.

2. In some types of Palauan conditional sentences, the switched order *consequent clause + condition clause* is either preferred or required (see 20a–b). The same phenomenon occurs for clauses following *soal* and *chetil* (17.5) and for clauses involving time words (e.g., *a letutau*—see 17.6).

3. *Notes 2–4* introduce some interesting variations among Palauan conditional sentences.

[17.4–17.4.3]

1. In addition to condition clauses of the form *a* 'if' + *prefix pronoun predicate*, we also have condition clauses using *a lsekum*, *ulekum*, and *a kmu* (all followed, interestingly enough, *not* by a prefix pronoun predicate, but a predicate in "normal" form).

2. Although there is a lot of data here, the charts in (27) and (28) of 17.4.3 usefully summarize both the structural and semantic differences among the four types of condition clauses under discussion. Some students may consider certain types of condition clauses to be equivalent in meaning and therefore may not agree with the contrasting "degrees of confidence" described in (28b) and (28d).

[17.5–17.5.1]

1. Following forms of *soal* and *chetil*, we can use a (switched) condition clause introduced by *a* 'if' (followed by a prefix pronoun predicate) to express the idea "A wants/does not want B to do something". The literal meaning of such sentences (i.e., consequent clause with *soal* or *chetil* + condition clause) seems to be "A would like/dislike it *if* B..."

2. The sentences of (32a–c) and (33a–f) can be discussed and analyzed as an in-class exercise. In each situation described, the participants (A and B) can be identified as follows:

   32a. A: *sensei* (of *soal a sensei*);
   B: the speaker—1st pers. sg. prefix pronoun *ku-*

   32b. A: *demak* (of *chetil a demak*);
   B: the speaker—1st pers. sg. prefix pronoun *ku-*

   32c. A: *resechelik* (of *sorir a resechelik*), pl.;
   B: the person(s) being spoken to—2nd pers. (sg. or pl.) prefix pronoun *cho-*

33a. A: the speaker (*-ak* of *soak*);
B: *Droteo* (including *lo-* of *longetmokl*)

33b. A: the speakers (*-mam* of *somam*), 1st pers. pl. excl.;
B: the person(s) spoken to—2nd pers. (sg. or pl.) prefix pronouns *cho-* and *m-* (attached to complex verb phrase *chobo mrei*)

33c. A: the person spoken to (*-am* of *soam*), sg.;
B: the speaker—1st pers. sg. prefix pronoun *ku-*

33d. A: *Toki* (of *chetil a Toki*);
B: *rengalek* (including *lo-* of *loilil*), pl.

33e. A: 3rd pers. human pl. "they" (*-irir* of *chetirir*);
B: the speakers—1st pers. pl. incl. prefix pronoun *de-*

33f. A: *sensei* (of *soal a sensei*);
B: *Droteo* (including *lo-* of *lolim*)

Example (33f) is interesting because it says "A wants B *not* to do something", and as such it has a very emphatic connotation.

3. *Note 6* at the end of 17.5 introduces some related constructions with the transitive state verb *medakt* 'to be afraid of, fear'.

4. In 17.5.1 the construction *soal/chetil + condition clause* (introduced in 17.5) is contrasted with various other constructions, yielding four sentence types:

   a. *soal/chetil* + specifying clause introduced by *el* (A wants/ doesn't want A himself to do something):

      A sensei a soal el mesuub. 'The teacher wants to study.'

   b. *soal/chetil* + condition clause (as in 17.5) (A wants/doesn't want B to do something):

      A sensei a soal a kusuub. 'The teacher wants me to study.'

   c. *soal/chetil* + action noun (makes a generalization about what A likes/dislikes):

      A sensei a soal a omesuub. 'The teacher likes studying.'

   Note: If an object is expressed in this construction, it will be marked with *el*:

      A sensei a soal a omesuub el tekoi er a Siabal. 'The teacher likes studying Japanese.'

   d. *soal/chetil* + action noun in possessed form (A likes/dislikes the fact that B is doing something):

      A sensei a soal a omesubek. 'The teacher likes my studying (so hard).'

Note: If an object is expressed in this construction, it will be marked with *er* (see *Note 7* at the end of 17.5.1):

A sensei a soal a omesubek er a ochur. 'The teacher likes the way I study math (so hard).'

[17.6]

1. In order to express the idea of frequent or habitual occurrence of an event or activity, we use a condition clause (usually in switched position) containing a time word like *tutau* 'morning', *sueleb* 'afternoon', etc., The resulting clauses are *a letutau* 'in the morning, mornings', *a lesueleb* 'in the afternoon, afternoons', and so on. Sentence (37) provides an example with *bek* 'each, every', which contrasts in meaning with clauses like *a letutau*, *a lesueleb*, etc.

[17.7–17.7.1]

1. As noted earlier in the textbook (e.g., in 4.10.6), Palauan imperative verb forms, used to give an order or command to the person(s) spoken to, are nothing more than second person prefix pronoun verb forms. When the verb of the command is a transitive action verb, the (affirmative) command can use either the imperfective or perfective form, with different variants of the second person prefix pronoun (*mo-*, *m-*, *cho-*, etc.) used in each case (e.g., imperfective *molim* vs. perfective *mngilmii*, both from *melim* 'to drink').

2. In the imperative forms of *perfective* verbs listed in (40), the infixed verb marker of the original perfective form is lost in many cases. Have students look at all the examples of (40) to discover this phonetic/structural change:

   40a. ngilmii → mngilmii (no change)
   nguim → mngim (loss of verb marker *-u-*)

   40b. silekii → msilekii (no change)
   smilek → msilek (loss of verb marker *-m-*)

   40c. kiiesii → mkiiesii (no change)
   kmiis → mkiis (loss of verb marker *-m-*)

   40d. chieuii → mchieuii (no change)
   chemuiu → mchuiu (loss of verb marker *-em-*)

   40e. luchesii → mlechesii (loss of verb marker *-u-* and replacement by weak E)
   lmuches → mluches (loss of verb marker *-m-*)

   40f. kolii → mkelii (loss of verb marker *-o-* and replacement by weak E)
   kma → mka (loss of verb marker *-m-*)

   40g. ngotechii → mngetechii (loss of verb marker *-o-* and replacement by weak E)
   ngmatech → mngatech (loss of verb marker *-m-*)

   40h. longir → mlengir (loss of verb marker *-o-* and replacement by weak E)
   lmeng → mleng (loss of verb marker *-m-*)

40i. durur → mderur (loss of verb marker *-u-* and replacement by weak E)
dmul → mdul (loss of verb marker *-m-*)

3. The same exercise—i.e., looking for the loss of the verb marker—should be applied to the examples of (41):

41a. cholebedii → mchelebedii (loss of verb marker *-o-* and replacement by weak E)
cholebedeterir → mchelebedeterir (loss of verb marker *-o-* and replacement by weak E)

41b. kimdak → mkimdak (no change)
kimdeterir → mkimdeterir (no change)

41c. tochelbii → mtechelbii (loss of verb marker *-o-* and replacement by weak E)
tochelbeterir → mtechelbeterir (loss of verb marker *-o-* and replacement by weak E)

41d. siiekii → msiiekii (no change)
siieketerir → msiieketerir (no change)

4. Have students examine the imperative forms in (42) and determine the original intransitive action verb from which each form is derived. Then, they should be able to say whether or not an original infixed verb marker has been lost:

42a. omengur (no change)

42b. dengchokl (no change)

42c. dechor (no change)

42d. remei (verb marker *-em-* lost)

42e. mechiuaiu (no change)

42f. ngmasech (verb marker *-m-* lost)

42g. kmerd (verb marker *-m-* lost)

42h. tuobed (verb marker *-u-* lost)

5. Negative commands (17.7.1) are quite straightforward in their structure: they simply use *lak* followed by the second person prefix pronoun form of the verb. If the verb is a transitive action verb, only the imperfective form can occur following *lak* in this construction. Another way of giving a negative command, possibly different in meaning for some Palauan speakers, is illustrated in (45).

[17.8]

1. Propositive verb forms, which contain the first person plural *inclusive* prefix pronoun *do-* (*de-*, *d-*), are used when the speaker wishes to propose or suggest that the group of which he is a part do something. As (46d–e) indicate, with transitive action verbs we can have a propositive form based on either the imperfective or perfective verb. Negative propositive expressions can also be made, as shown in (47a–c).

2. *Note 8* at the end of 17.8 introduces a few additional types of imperative-like sentences that involve first and third person prefix pronouns.

[17.9]

1. In 15.8 we already discussed in detail the preposing of a sentence object, so that very little new material is introduced here. The main point to remember is that object preposing triggers the appearance of a prefix pronoun verb form; and, furthermore, if the preposed element was originally the *specific object of an imperfective verb* (i.e., marked with the specifying word *er*), then the preposed sentence will contain *er ngii* or *er tir*, where *ngii* and *tir* are *pronoun traces* of the preposed object. Thus, for example, *er ngii* appears in (48b) because the original sentence (48a) contains a specific *singular* object (*ngikel*) marked with *er* in the position following the imperfective verb form *menga*. In (49b), however, we note the appearance of *er tir* because the original sentence (49a) contains a specific (human) *plural* object (*rengalek*) marked with *er* following the imperfective verb form *mengelebed*. See examples (51a–b) for the significance of *er ngii* vs. *zero* in the position following an imperfective verb in prefix pronoun form.

2. As the examples of (3a–b), (52a–b), and (53a–b) make clear, no pronoun trace appears in preposed sentences when the original verb is *perfective*. To indicate a *singular* object, the sentences of (52a–b) and (53a–b) would have to be modified as follows:

   a. 1. Ng chilitii a babier a Toki. 'Toki threw out the letter.'
      2. A babier a lechilitii a Toki. 'The letter [**topic**]—Toki threw it out.'

   b. 1. Ng chillebedii a bilis a rubak. 'The old man beat the dog.'
      2. A bilis a lechillebedii a rubak. 'The dog [**topic**]—the old man beat it.'

[17.9.1]

1. In this section we review material from 15.3 relating to the meaning of sentences with preposed elements. For many Palauan speakers, a preposed element (whether originally a sentence subject, a possessor, an object, or a noun within a relational phrase) represents an established topic—i.e., old information that has already been introduced (talked about) within the conversation at hand.

2. It is very important to remember that sentences with preposed objects or with nouns preposed from within a relational phrase are simply that—namely, a variety of preposed sentence. In particular, they are *not* passive sentences in which we focus on an affected person or thing as undergoing a particular process. This type of situation—quite similar to English passive sentences—is expressed solely in Palauan by sentences like the following, where the affected person or thing is the subject of a transitive action verb in its *basic* (or processive) form:

   a. Ng milseseb a blai. 'The house was/got burned down.'
   b. Ng mla mechelebed a ngelekek. 'My child has been/gotten beaten.'

The important distinction between sentences with preposed objects (*not* passive sentences in Palauan) vs. sentences like (a–b) above with basic (processive) verb forms (*genuine* passive sentences in Palauan) is also due to the French linguist Lemaréchal (see General Comment 1 above).

[17.9.2–17.9.2.1]

1. In this section we present more examples of sentences with preposed objects, with both imperfective and perfective verb forms.

2. In the sentences of (60), which involve object preposing with imperfective verb forms (or other types of transitive verbs), students should be able to analyze the prefix pronoun verb forms as follows:

   60a. *lulemes*: prefix pronoun *l-* + *ulemes*, past tense of imperfective *omes*

   60b. *lousbech*: prefix pronoun *l-* + *ousbech*, present tense of verb formed with *ou-*

   60c. *lolengeseu*: prefix pronoun *l-* + *olengeseu*, present tense of imperfective *olengeseu*

   60d. *dongitakl*: prefix pronoun *do-* + *ngitakl*, from present tense of imperfective *mengitakl* (with loss of verb marker *me-*)

   60e. *kulluches*: prefix pronoun *ku-* + *lluches*, from *milluches*, past tense of imperfective *meluches* (with loss of verb marker *m-* and *i* of past tense marker *-il-*)

   60f. *lomekcharm*: prefix pronoun *l-* + *omekcharm*, present tense imperfective form of causative verb *omekcharm*

   60g. *lemekdakt*: prefix pronoun *le-* + *medakt*, transitive state verb (no loss of verb marker *me-*)

   Because the preposed sentence object is specific singular in (60a–d) and (60g), we have *er ngii*, with a singular emphatic pronoun. In (60e–f), however, the preposed object is plural (and nonhuman), and therefore there is no pronoun trace at all.

3. In the sentences of (61), which involve object preposing with perfective verbs, students should be able to analyze the prefix pronoun verb forms as follows:

   61a. *ulsa*: prefix pronoun *lu-* + *lsa*, from *milsa*, past tense perfective form of *omes* (with loss of verb marker *m-* and *i* of past tense marker *-il-*)

   61b. *ksilebekii*: prefix pronoun *k-* + *silebekii*, past tense perfective form of *mesebek*

   61c. *lulekerngii*: prefix pronoun *l-* + *ulekerngii*, past tense perfective form of causative verb *olekar* (note vowel weakening of A → weak E)

   61d. *lekila*: prefix pronoun *le-* + *kila*, past tense perfective form (nonhuman plural object) of *menga*

   61e. *lulekerngak*: prefix pronoun *l-* + *ulekerngak*, past tense perfective form of causative verb *olekar* (note vowel weakening of A → weak E)

   61f. *lekilisii*: prefix pronoun *le-* + *kilisii*, past tense perfective form of *mengiis*

61g. *lebilskak*: prefix pronoun *le-* + *bilskak*, past tense perfective form of *omsa* (note change of M → B in verb stem)

61h. *kbilsterir*: prefix pronoun *k-* + *bilsterir*, past tense perfective form of *omsa* (note change of M → B in verb stem)

61i. *lekelii*: prefix pronoun *le-* + *kelii*, present tense perfective form of *menga* (when *kolii* changes to *-kelii*, note loss of verb marker *-o-* and replacement by weak E)

61j. *lechemechii*: prefix pronoun *le-* + *chemechii*, present tense perfective form of *melamech* (when *chomechii* changes to *-chemechii*, note loss of verb marker *-o-* and replacement by weak E)

In all of the examples of (61), there are no pronoun traces (i.e., no phrases of the form *er ngii* and *er tir*) because the original verb is perfective and could never have been followed by a specific object marked by *er*. Finally, sentence (61e) is rather unusual because of the apparently preposed emphatic pronoun *ngak*. It appears as if this sentence were derived by object preposing from "Ng ulekerngak *a ngak* a Toki", with the emphatic pronoun as an "expanded" object, but such a sentence is obviously impossible in spoken Palauan.

4. Take a quick look at the examples of (63a–b) and compare them with those of (62a–b). Poll students to see if there is any preference for keeping or dropping the prefix pronoun on the first element of the complex verb phrase.

[17.10]

1. The topic of preposing a noun (phrase) from within a relational phrase has already been taken up in 15.8. Just like object preposing (see 17.9), preposing out of a relational phrase triggers a prefix pronoun predicate. The examples given in 17.10 show that this kind of preposing can remove a noun from a *locational phrase*, a *cause phrase*, or a *source phrase*. In the vacated position following the relational word *er*, a pronoun trace (*ngii*) must always be left behind.

[17.11]

1. The sentences in this section combine some of the grammatical processes or constructions already studied—e.g., we see preposing of the sentence object when the predicate is negative, or preposing of the (clause) object within a conditional clause, and so on.

[17.12]

1. The chart presented in (70) is a comprehensive summary of all the uses of prefix pronouns studied so far. As noted at the end of this section, there are still some very important constructions involving prefix pronouns—i.e., *relative clauses* and certain types of *time clauses*—that must be examined in the remaining lessons of this textbook.

2. Most students will probably be curious about whether all of the uses of Palauan prefix pronouns can be explained in terms of one or several unifying principles. The discussion following (70a–j) is an attempt to satisfy that curiosity. The suggestion that prefix pronoun predicates occur when there is focus on an *entire process or event* comes from Lemaréchal (see General Comment 1 above).

KEY TO STUDY QUESTIONS

[17.14: Prefix Pronoun Predicates in Palauan: Study Questions]

[Question 1]

a. *prefix pronoun*: a type of bound pronoun that is prefixed to a predicate (verb or noun) in a wide variety of grammatical constructions. The prefix pronoun always refers to the subject of the predicate to which it is attached. Palauan prefix pronouns make only five distinctions, although for each person-number combination there are quite a few phonetic variants:

1st pers. sg.:	*ku-*, *ke-*, *k-*
2nd pers. sg./pl.:	*mo-*, *mu-*, *chomo-*, *chomu-*, *chome-*, *cho-*, *m-*
3rd pers. sg./pl.:	*lo-*, *lu-*, *le-*, *l-*
1st pers. pl. incl.:	*do-*, *du-*, *de-*
1st pers. pl. excl.:	*kimo-*, *kimu-*, *ki-*

Examples: After *diak*, we have prefix pronouns attached to the predicate, as in the forms below:

1. Ng diak kusuub/mosuub/losuub/dosuub/kimosuub
2. Ng diak ksensei/msensei/lsensei/desensei/kisensei

b. *complex negative sentence*: a sentence with two predicates, the first a negative verb, and the second a verb (or noun) in prefix pronoun form.

Examples: See (1–2) in the definition above, or note the following:

1. Ng dimlak leme er a blik. 'He/she/they didn't come to my house.'
2. Ng dirkak kbo er a Lukilei. 'I haven't gone to New Guinea yet.'

c. *preposing of sentence object*: a process by which the object of a transitive verb (if an action verb, either imperfective or perfective) is moved (preposed) to pre-predicate position. During this process, (1) any pre-predicate nonemphatic (subject) pronoun is replaced by the preposed element, (2) the verb of the sentence appears obligatorily in prefix pronoun form, and (3) a pronoun trace (in the form of an emphatic pronoun) occurs as part of the phrase *er ngii* (or *er tir*) if the original object of an imperfective verb is marked with the specifying word *er*.

Example: Sentence (2) is derived from (1) by preposing the object:

1. Ng melasech er a mlai a rubak. 'The old man is carving the canoe.'
2. A mlai a lolasech er ngii a rubak. 'The canoe [**topic**]—the old man is carving it.'

As the English equivalent for (2) indicates, the preposed object is considered a topic (old information).

d. *preposing from relational phrase*: a process by which a noun (phrase) within a relational phrase is moved (preposed) to pre-predicate position. During this process, (1) any pre-predicate nonemphatic (subject) pronoun is replaced by the preposed element, (2) the verb of the sentence appears obligatorily in prefix pronoun form, and (3) a pronoun trace always occurs after the relational word *er* in the position vacated by the preposed element. This kind of preposing can occur when the relational phrase is a locational phrase, cause phrase, or source phrase.

Example: Sentence (2) is derived from (1) by preposing the noun within the relational phrase (in this case, a locational phrase):

1. Ng mesuub er a delmerab a ngalek. 'The child studies in the room.'
2. A delmerab a losuub er ngii a ngalek. 'The room [**topic**]—the child studies in it.'

As the English equivalent for (2) indicates, the preposed noun (originally in the relational phrase) is considered a topic (old information).

e. *conditional sentence*: a sentence containing two clauses—the condition clause and the consequent clause—that conveys the general meaning "if such-and-such is the case [the condition], then such-and-such will be the result [the consequent]". Conditional sentences often involve the speaker's imagining or hypothesizing a particular situation and predicting what might happen if that situation were true. Conditional sentences can express imagined or unreal situations in the present, future, or past, as shown in the examples below:

1. *Future condition*:
   A leme a Droteo er a klukuk, e ak mo subedii. 'If Droteo comes tomororrow, then I'll tell him.'
2. *Present condition*:
   A kudenge a tekoi er a Siabal, e ak merael el mo er a Siabal. 'If I knew Japanese, then I'd travel to Japan.'

3. *Past condition*:

A kble kudenge a tekoi er a Siabal, e ak mirrael el mo er a Siabal.	'If I had known Japanese, then I would have travelled to Japan.'

f. *condition clause*: that clause within a conditional sentence that expresses the imagined, hypothesized, or hoped for event (and upon which the consequent clause depends). The condition clause represents the "if" of an "if...then" situation and can be introduced by *a* 'if' (followed by a prefix pronoun predicate) or *a lsekum*, *ulekum*, or *a kmu* (no prefix pronoun required).

Examples: In sentences (1–3) of the definition above, the condition clauses are all introduced by *a* 'if' and contain prefix pronoun predicates (*leme*, *kudenge*, *kble kudenge*). The condition clauses *precede* the consequent clauses (introduced by *e* 'then'), although the order of clauses can be switched.

g. *consequent clause*: that clause within a conditional sentence that expresses the result (or consequence) of the event expressed by the condition clause. The consequent clause represents the "then" of an "if...then" situation, and it is always introduced by *e* '(and) then' when it occurs following the condition clause.

Examples: In sentences (1–3) of (e) above, the consequent clauses are all introduced by *e* (and have "normal"—i.e., non-prefix pronoun predicates).

h. *switching (of condition and consequent clauses)*: the process of changing the normal order of *condition clause + consequent clause* in conditional sentences to the opposite order *consequent clause + condition clause*. Although the clause switching, as in English, has no effect on the meaning, when a consequent clause is shifted to first position, it is no longer introduced by *e*.

Example: 1. *Normal order*:

A lengar er ngii a ududek, e ak mo er a Guam.	'If I had money, then I'd go to Guam.'

2. *Switched order*:

Ak mo er a Guam a lengar er ngii a ududek.	'I'd go to Guam if I had money.'

In certain grammatical constructions, the switched order is either required or highly preferred—e.g., after a form of *soal* or *chetil*:

3. Ng soak a chobo mrei.	'I want you to go home.'

i. *imperative verb (and sentence)*: a verb form (or the sentence containing it) that expresses an order or command. Palauan imperative verbs (and sentences) always involve second person prefix pronoun forms because the order or command is being directed at the

person(s) spoken to (the "you" of the conversation). Palauan imperative sentences can be affirmative or negative, and if affirmative can contain either the imperfective or perfective form of a transitive action verb. They may also contain intransitive action verbs.

Examples: 1. Monga a kall! 'Eat the food!'
2. Mkelii a kall! 'Eat up the food!'
3. Bo er a skuul! 'Go to school!'

j. *negative command*: an imperative sentence containing *lak* followed by a second person prefix pronoun verb form. Such sentences express an order or command *not* to do something and may contain transitive action verbs in the imperfective form or intransitive action verbs.

Examples: 1. Lak molamech a dekool! 'Don't smoke cigarettes!'
2. Lak morael! 'Don't leave!'

k. *propositive verb (and sentence)*: a verb form (or the sentence containing it) that expresses the speaker's proposal or suggestion that he and the person(s) being addressed do something together. Palauan propositive verbs (and sentences) always use first person plural *inclusive* prefix pronoun forms because the proposal includes both speaker and hearer(s) (the inclusive "we"—i.e., "I and you" of the conversation). Palauan propositive sentences can be affirmative or negative.

Examples: 1. Dorael! 'Let's go!'
2. Lak dorael! 'Let's not go!'

l. *pronoun trace*: a pronoun left in the position of a preposed sentence element in certain grammatical constructions. The pronoun trace takes the form of an emphatic pronoun (*ngii* or *tir*) which must agree (singular vs. human plural) with the noun that it substitutes for. A pronoun trace occurs in the following two situations:

1. when we prepose a specific sentence object that follows an *imperfective* verb and is marked with the specifying word *er*.

   Examples:

   a. A ngalek a longelebed er ngii a sensei. 'The child [**topic**]—the teacher beats him/her.'

   b. A rengalek a longelebed er tir a sensei. 'The children [**topic**]—the teacher beats them.'

2. when we prepose a noun (phrase) from within a relational phrase (with the noun introduced, of course, by the relational word *er*).

   Example: A delmerab a losuub er ngii a ngalek. 'The room [**topic**]—the child studies in it.'

m. *complex verb phrase*: any verb phrase that contains two or more parts—e.g., *mla mo merek*, *mlo ungil*, *mo remei*, etc. When a complex verb phrase occurs in a grammatical construction requiring prefix pronouns, then a copy of the prefix pronoun will usually be added to each part.

Example: Ng dirkak kbo kmerek er a subelek. 'I haven't finished my homework yet.'

[Question 2]

There are at least five different ways in which Palauan prefix pronouns differ from the other groups of pronouns in Palauan:

a. They are the only pronouns that are (bound) prefixes (the others are either independent words or suffixes).

b. When they are attached to a verb, the form of the verb must usually be modified (e.g., the verb marker is lost in *menga* → *kunga*, *smecher* → *ksecher*, etc.).

c. Unlike other pronouns, prefix pronouns make only five person-number distinctions: first person singular, second person, third person, first person plural inclusive, and first person plural exclusive. This is because second person *mo-*, *cho-*, *m-*, etc. and third person *lo-*, *le-*, etc., can be either singular or plural.

d. Each prefix pronoun has a large number of phonetic variants—e.g., for third person: *lo-*, *lu-*, *le-*, and *l-*.

e. The prefix pronouns exceed all the other pronoun types in the wide variety of grammatical constructions in which they occur.

[Question 3]

The features of Palauan complex negative sentences were introduced in 16.4 and 16.4.2–4 and are summarized in points (a–d) of 17.1.

[Question 4]

Sentence (1d) in 17.1 is a good example of a complex negative sentence in which preposing of the subject has applied. Thus, from the basic sentence below,

a. Ng di kea lsensei a Droteo.

we take the post-predicate subject *Droteo* and prepose it to the position before the negative verb *di kea*, where it replaces *ng*. The resulting sentence is (1d)—namely,

b. A Droteo a di kea lsensei.

[Question 5]

Preposing of the sentence object (see 17.9) or of a noun (phrase) from within a relational phrase (see 17.10) will cause a predicate to appear in prefix pronoun form. By contrast, preposing of a (post-predicate) subject noun phrase, or of a possessor within that phrase, will not cause the accompanying predicate to appear in prefix pronoun form.

[Question 6]

As indicated in 17.2, the main parts of a Palauan conditional sentence are (in normal order) *condition clause + consequent clause*. The condition clause is introduced by *a* 'if' or by other conjunctions like *a lsekum*, *ulekum*, and *a kmu*, while the consequent clause is introduced by *e* '(and) then'. If the order of condition clause and consequent clause is switched, then the resulting sentence-initial consequent clause is no longer marked with *e*. The switched clauses show no real difference in meaning.

[Question 7]

In a Palauan conditional sentence the speaker is imagining (or hypothesizing) a particular situation and predicting what might happen if that situation were true. In other words, if something were the case (*condition*), then something else would happen as a result (*consequent*). See 17.2 for more discussion.

[Question 8]

As indicated in the chart of (10), with a clause expressing a present (or future) condition, the predicate will be a present tense verb in prefix pronoun form (or a noun in prefix pronoun form). With a clause expressing a past condition, the predicate will be a past tense verb in prefix pronoun form (and any noun will be in prefix pronoun form preceded by *kble*, *leble*, etc.). In clauses indicating past conditions, the auxiliary words *mle* and *mla* change to *ble* and *bla* before any prefix pronouns are added (e.g., *A kble ksensei,...* 'If I had been a teacher,...').

[Question 9]

This would be expressed by a conditional sentence in the present tense—e.g.,

A kchad er a Merikel, e ak mo kie er a Hawaii.	'If I were an American, then I'd go live in Hawaii.'

[Question 10]

As seen in 16.2.3 and 17.2.3, *diak* takes the form *lak* in a clause designating a present (or future) condition, while it appears as *lemlak* in a clause indicating a past condition. See 16.2.3 and 17.2.3 for good examples.

[Question 11]

In both English and Palauan conditional sentences, the order of the condition clause and consequent clause can be switched, with no important difference in meaning. Note the examples below:

Normal:	A lengar er ngii a ududek, e ak merael el mo er a Guam.	'If I had the money, then I'd travel to Guam.'
Switched:	Ak merael el mo er a Guam a lengar er ngii a ududek.	'I'd travel to Guam if I had the money.'

[Question 12]

While condition clauses introduced by *a* 'if' must have a prefix pronoun predicate, condition clauses introduced by *a lsekum*, *ulekum*, and *a kmu* do not take a prefix pronoun predicate (i.e., the verb or noun is in normal form).

[Question 13]

It is possible that condition clauses introduced by *a lsekum* and *ulekum* do not contain prefix pronoun predicates because these words themselves are already "fossilized" prefix pronoun forms containing the third person singular prefix pronoun *l-*. Therefore, it would be redundant (unnecessary) to mark the accompanying predicate with prefix pronouns as well. This explanation is speculative because we really do not know anything about the origin of *a lsekum* and *ulekum*.

[Question 14]

With condition clauses introduced by *a*, the speaker has the most confidence that the situation could actually occur; with *a lsekum* the speaker has somewhat less confidence (in other words, he believes the situation might occur); but with *a kmu* the speaker has the least confidence (in other words, he believes it doubtful that the situation would occur). See (28b) of 17.4.3 for more details.

[Question 15]

Clauses introduced by *ulekum* involve a strong desire, hope, or wish by the speaker that the event or situation might occur, although the speaker knows that such an occurrence is very unlikely. For this reason *ulekum* clauses have a close English equivalent in "if only..."

[Question 16]

a.	Ng chetik el melim a rrom.	'I don't want to drink liquor.'

Structure: *chetik* followed by a specifying clause introduced by *el*.

Meaning: understood subject of *melim* is identical to person denoted by possessor pronoun on *chetik*—namely, the speaker *-ik* 'I'; this is a statement about the speaker's not wanting to drink on a single, particular occasion.

b. Ng chetik a omelim el rrom. 'I dislike drinking liquor.'

Structure: *chetik* followed by a post-predicate subject in the form of an action noun (*omelim*); the object of *omelim* (*rrom*) is marked by *el*.

Meaning: this a general statement about the speaker's (habitual) dislike for drinking and does not necessarily refer to a single occasion.

c. Ng chetik a ngelekek a lolim a rrom. 'I don't want/like my child to drink liquor.'

Structure: *chetik* followed by a prefix pronoun predicate (*lolim*) whose subject (*ngelekek*) has been preposed to initial position within its clause.

Meaning: the subject of *lolim* is *ngelekek* and therefore different from the other person (the speaker, identified by *-ik* of *chetik*) involved in the situation. This is a general statement of the form "A does not want/like B (to do something)".

[Question 17]

A sentence like *Ng chetik a ngelekek a lolim a rrom* seems to be a conditional sentence in which the condition clause (*a ngelekek a lolim a rrom*) has been switched. This implies that *ng chetik* is the consequent clause and therefore the entire sentence means something like 'I would dislike it *if* my child were to drink liquor'.

[Question 18]

33a: the speaker ("I") wants the event to occur; speaker indicated by *-ak* of *soak*;
structure of prefix pronoun verb: third person prefix pronoun *lo-* + *ngetmokl* (from imperfective *mengetmokl*, with loss of verb marker *me-*);
preposing of post-predicate subject *Droteo* has applied within the condition clause

33b: the speakers ("we—exclusive") want the event to occur; speakers indicated by *-mam* of *somam*;
structure of prefix pronoun verb: second person prefix pronoun attached to each part of complex verb phrase *mo remei*: *cho-* + *bo* (from intransitive *mo*) and *m-* + *rei* (from intransitive *remei*, with loss of infixed verb marker *-em-*);
no preposing involved

33c: the person spoken to ("you") wants the event to occur; "you" indicated by *-am* of *soam*;
structure of prefix pronoun verb: first person singular prefix pronoun *ku-* + *ngesbreber* (from imperfective *mengesbreber*, with loss of verb marker *me-*);

no preposing involved

33d: Toki does not want the event to occur; identity of Toki indicated by the name itself and by *-il* of *chetil*;
structure of prefix pronoun verb: third person. prefix pronoun *lo-* + *ilil* (from intransitive *milil*, with loss of verb marker *m-*);
preposing has occurred twice: (1) *Toki* is a preposed possessor from *chetil a Toki*, and (2) *rengalek* is the post-predicate subject of *loilil* and has been preposed within the condition clause

33e: a group of people ("they") does not want the event to occur; "they" indicated by *-irir* of *chetirir*;
structure of prefix pronoun verb: first person plural inclusive prefix pronoun *de-* + *bo* (from intransitive *mo*);
no preposing involved

33f: The teacher wants a particular event (Droteo's drinking liquor) *not* to occur; identity of teacher indicated by noun *sensei* and *-al* of *soal*;
structure of prefix pronoun verb: *lak* is special contracted form of (third person) *le-* + *diak*, and *lak* itself is followed by the prefix pronoun form *lolim*;
preposing has occurred twice: (1) *sensei* is a preposed possessor from *soal a sensei*, and (2) *Droteo* is the post-predicate subject of *lolim* and has been preposed within the condition clause to the position before the negative verb *lak*

[Question 19]

Example sentences containing the transitive state verb *medakt* are given in *Note 6* at the end of 17.5.

[Question 20]

a. Ng chetik a ngelekek a lolim a rrom. — See answer to Question 16–c above for all details.

b. Ng chetik a omelmil a ngelekek er a rrom. — 'I dislike my child's drinking liquor.'

Structure: following *chetik* we have a derived action noun (*omelim*) in possessed form (with third person singular possessor suffix *-il*), itself followed by a specific possessor *ngelekek*; the object of *omelim* (in its possessed form) is marked by *er* (*er a rrom*).

Meaning: the possessed form of the action noun (*omelmil*) implies that the child's drinking liquor is an actual fact (an event that has already occurred), and

the speaker is indicating his dislike (disapproval) of that fact.

[Question 21]

With the third person prefix pronoun *le-* attached, time words like *tutau*, *sueleb*, etc., function as (switched) condition clauses indicating frequent or habitual occurrence of an event. See 17.6 for details.

[Question 22]

Imperative sentences function to give orders or commands to the person(s) spoken to (the "you" of the conversation), and therefore they contain a second person prefix pronoun verb form (usually with the variants *mo-* or *m-*). While affirmative commands (ordering someone to do something) may contain either the imperfective or perfective form of a transitive action verb (e.g., *molim* or *mngilmii* for *melim* 'to drink'), negative commands (ordering someone *not* to do something) contain *lak* (the third person prefix pronoun form of the negative verb *diak*) followed by the imperfective form only of a transitive action verb (e.g., *lak lolim*, but not "*lak mngilmii*").

[Question 23]

With intransitive action verbs we usually formulate a command by using a complex verb phrase of the form *directional verb mo* 'to go' + *intransitive action verb*. In this construction, *mo* occurs in its special imperative form *bo*, and the intransitive action verb is prefixed with the variant *m-* of the second person prefix pronoun (with loss of an original infixed verb marker). See (42a–h) of 17.7 for examples.

[Question 24]

In (a) the command is given to stop an activity that has already begun (that is, there is already noise being made), while in (b) the command is intended as a precautionary warning (before any noise has actually been made).

[Question 25]

Propositive sentences function as proposals or suggestions by the speaker that he and those addressed (the inclusive "we" of the conversation) do some action together. For this reason, Palauan propositive sentences characteristically contain verbs prefixed with the first person plural inclusive pronoun *do-* (*de-*, etc.). An affirmative propositive sentence basically says "Let's (do something)", while a negative one says "Let's not (do something)".

[Question 26]

We use a very interesting construction consisting of *bechire*, an imperative perfective form of *omeche* 'to leave, let' (with an extremely unusual variant *-(i)re* of the third person singular object pronoun suffix), followed by *me* '(and) so, so that' and a third person

prefix pronoun verb form.

Example: Bechire me lebo lemerek er a subelir. 'Let them finish their homework.'

[Question 27]

The appearance of *er ngii* (i.e., specifying word *er* + *pronoun trace*) correlates with an original sentence in which the specific singular object of an *imperfective* verb is marked with the specifying word *er*.

[Question 28]

Example sentences can be modeled after (3a–b) for third person singular objects and after (52a–b) or (53a–b) of 17.9 for third person plural nonhuman objects.

[Question 29]

For many Palauan speakers, any preposed element (whether a subject, possessor, object, or noun from within a relational phrase) represents old information—i.e., a person or thing already mentioned in the conversation and therefore available as a topic for further discussion. All the relevant ideas are presented, with examples, in 17.9.1.

[Question 30]

a. Ng mla obalech a belochel. 'The pigeon has been/gotten shot with a slingshot.'

Note: This is the closest Palauan equivalent to an English passive sentence, which focuses on the object of an action as undergoing that action. The Palauan sentence contains the basic (or processive) form of the verb (i.e., *obalech*: verb marker *o-* + *balech*, noun stem).

b. A belochel a lebla lemelechii a ngalek. 'The pigeon [**topic**]—the child has shot it with a slingshot.'

Note: This is a sentence with object preposing which, for many Palauan speakers, involves stating the topic (*belochel*) and making a comment about it (i.e., the rest of the sentence).

[Question 31]

As noted many times earlier, a copy of the appropriate prefix pronoun is normally attached to each part of the complex verb phrase, as seen in (62a–c) of 17.9.2. In rapid, informal speech, the prefix pronoun may be omitted from the very first element of a complex verb phrase, as the examples of (63a–c) show clearly.

[Question 32]

A noun phrase can be preposed from within the following types of relational phrase: locational phrase, source phrase, and cause phrase. When a noun is preposed from within a relational phrase, the accompanying predicate must appear in prefix pronoun form,

and an emphatic pronoun (*ng* or *tir*) must also be included as part of the sequence *relational word er + pronoun trace*. See 17.10 for numerous examples.

[Question 33]

As indicated in the discussion following (70a–j) in 17.12, the common conceptual features found in the usage of various prefix pronoun predicates might be summarized in terms of such principles as the following: (1) prefix pronoun forms are often used in situations where an activity or event is *not actually real*, but proposed, imagined, hypothesized, hoped for, etc., or (2) prefix pronoun forms indicate a focus on the *entire process or event* rather than on individual participants (subject, object, etc.) in that event.

KEY TO EXERCISES

[17.15: Prefix Pronoun Predicates in Palauan: Exercises]

[Exercise 1]

Make sure that students use the proper prefix pronoun predicate in each of the condition clauses that they write. Examples (c), (e), (f), (g), and (i) are originally in the (simple or recent) past tense, so the verb in the condition clause should also be a *past* tense prefix pronoun form (*leblo*, *debla*, *lemlak*, etc.). Since conditional sentences express the meaning "if...then", there should be a logical connection between the condition and consequent clauses—i.e., the event denoted by the consequent clause should be a reasonable, or at least possible, result of the event indicated by the condition clause. As additional practice, you may ask students to rewrite (or transform orally) each of their sentences by switching the order of the clauses.

[Exercise 2]

a. A leble lsensei a Satsko, e ng di ullisechakl a tekoi er a Merikel.	'If Satsko had been a teacher, (then) she would have just taught English.'
b. A lebla er ngii a ududed, e kede di mlo er a Guam el mo milil.	'If we (incl.) had had the money, (then) we would have gone to Guam for fun.'
c. A kullechar a beches el mlai, e ak milecherar a Toyota.	'If I had bought a new car, (then) I would have bought a Toyota.'
d. A deble dodenge a tekoi er a Marsial, e ng mle sebeched el mo oureor er a Jaluit.	'If we (incl.) had known Marshallese, (then) we would have been able to go work in Jaluit.'
e. A chomullim tia el ralm, e kom mlo smecher.	'If you (pl.) had drunk this water, (then) you would have gotten sick.'
f. A lemlak molim a kerum, e ng dimlak	'If you (sg.) hadn't drunk your medicine,

chobo mungil el smecher.	(then) you wouldn't have gotten better.'
g. A leble lungil a eanged, e aki mlo er a chei.	'If the weather had been good, (then) we (excl.) would have gone fishing.'
h. A kblo er a party, e ak di ulebengkel a Maria.	'If I had gone to the party, (then) I would have gone with Maria.'

[Exercise 3]

When the clauses are switched, make sure that any specific reference to a third person appears first in the (switched) consequent clause. There is only one example of this type in this exercise—namely,

a. A Satsko a di ullisechakl a tekoi er a Merikel a leble lsensei.	'Satsko would have just taught English if she had been a teacher.'

[Exercise 4]

Sample answer: (a) Ng mo er ngii a taifun er a klukuk.

Condition clause: A lsekum ng mo er ngii a taifun er a klukuk,...

Consequent clause: e ng diak debo er a chei.

Full conditional sentence:

A lsekum ng mo er ngii a taifun er a klukuk, e ng diak debo er a chei.	'If there's going to be a typhoon tomorrow, (then) we (incl.) won't go fishing.'

Make sure that there is a logical, reasonable connection between the condition clause with *a lsekum* and the following consequent clause in all the sentences that the students write.

[Exercise 5]

Sample answer: (b) Ak mle meduch er a ochur.

Condition clause: A kmu ak mle meduch er a ochur,...

Consequent clause: e ak mlo oureor er a bangk.

Full conditional sentence:

A kmu ak mle meduch er a ochur, e ak mlo oureor er a bangk.	'If I had known math, (then) I would have gone to work at the bank.'

[Exercise 6]

Sample answer: (b) A demak a ouchert.

Condition clause: Ulekum a demak a ouchert,...

Consequent clause: e ng di sebeched el mo er a chelebacheb.

Full conditional sentence:

Ulekum a demak a ouchert, e ng di sebeched el mo er a chelebacheb.	'If my father only owned a motorboat, (then) we (incl.) would just be able to go to the rock islands.'

[Exercise 7]

a. Ng soak a rengalek a losuub el kirel a test.	'I want the children to study for the test.'
b. Ng sorir a kbo er a party el ngar er a mlai.	'They want me to go to the party by car.'
c. Ng chetil a sensei a rua Toki a longedecheduch se el lengar er a klas.	'The teacher doesn't want Toki and her friends to chat when they are in class.'
d. Ng chetik a chomosilek a bail er a chelsel a delmerab.	'I don't like you to wash clothes inside the room.'
e. Ng sorir a dousbech a taib el meluches a babier.	'They want us (incl.) to use a typewriter for writing letters.'

[Exercise 8]

The correct imperative verb forms, imperfective and perfective, are given below. Each perfective form is provided with two third person objects, singular and plural:

a. mengesbreber: mongesbreber; mchesberberii, mchesbreber

b. melul: molul; mderur, mdul

c. meluches: moluches; mlechesii, mluches

d. olengeseu: molengeseu; mngesuir, mngesuterir

e. orrenges: morrenges; mrengesii, mrenges

f. omoes: momoes; bosii, boes

g. meruul: moruul; mrellii, mruul

h. mengetmokl: mongetmokl; mketmeklii, mketmokl

i. melekosek: molekosek; msekesekii, msekosek

j. melecholb: molecholb; mtechelbii, mtechelbeterir

k. mengesimer: mongesimer; mchesmerii, mchesimer

l. meleb: moleb; mdebengii, mdeb

[Exercise 9]

These are all very straightforward—e.g.,

Lak mongesbreber er a mlik!	'Don't paint my car!'
Lak moluches er a babier!	'Don't write the letter!'

[Exercise 10]

1. A few sample affirmative propositive verb forms, imperfective and perfective, are presented in the same format as the imperative verb forms given in Exercise 8 above, except that the prefix is of course *do-* (*de-*, *d-*):

   a. mengesbreber: dongesbreber; dechesberberii, dechesbreber

   d. olengeseu: dolengeseu; dengesuir, dengesuterir

   l. meleb: doleb; dedebengii, dedeb

2. The negative propositive forms are all very straightforward—e.g.,

Lak dongesbreber er a blai!	'Let's not paint the house!'
Lak dolengeseu er tir!	'Let's not help them!'

[Exercise 11]

a. A kedera a lebla lekikingelii a rekangkodang.	'The beach [**topic**]—the tourists have gotten it dirty.'
b. A biskelengel a rubak a lechilam a ngelekek.	'The old man's spears [**topic**]—my child broke them.'
c. A rengalek a blechoel el longelebed er tir a Tony.	'The children [**topic**]—Tony is always hitting them.'
d. A ngalek a ktilchelbii.	The child [**topic**]—I bathed him/her.'
e. A tekoi er a Ruk a kimosuub.	'Trukese [**topic**]—we (excl.) are studying it.'
f. A bresengt a lebilskak a Droteo.	'The present [**topic**]—Droteo gave it to me.'
g. A kerrekar a ledilbechii a mechas.	'The tree [**topic**]—the old woman chopped it down.'
h. A rubak a lebo loleb er ngii a soldau.	'The old man [**topic**]—the soldier is going to kill him.'
i. A Toki ng chomullengeseu er ngii el meruul a subelel?	'Toki [**topic**]—were you helping her do her homework?'
j. A remerechorech a lulsiik er ngii a bulis.	'The robber [**topic**]—the police were looking for him.'

[Exercise 12]

a. A omoachel a lulengedub er ngii a rengalek.	'The river [**topic**]—the children were swimming in it.'
b. A blsibs a letilobed er ngii a beab.	'The hole [**topic**]—the rat came out of it.'
c. A kiubio a lemlad er ngii a rubak.	'A heart attack [**topic**]—the old man died of one.'
d. A delmerab er ngak a leble lemechiuaiu er ngii a bilis.	'My room [**topic**]—the dog was sleeping in it.'
e. A bangk a loureor er ngii a Droteo.	'The bank [**topic**]—Droteo works there.'

[Exercise 13]

Make sure students attach a copy of the appropriate prefix pronoun to each part of the complex verb phrase or predicate. The prefix pronoun may be optionally omitted from the very first element of the phrase.

SUGGESTIONS FOR ADDITIONAL ACTIVITIES

1. Select a text of naturally written Palauan (from a book, letter, newspaper article, etc.) and have students identify every usage of prefix pronouns within it. Each construction involving a prefix pronoun predicate should be classified according to the various types summarized in (70) of 17.12 (e.g., negative sentence, conditional sentence, etc.). Note that a few usages may not have been studied yet (e.g., the time clauses to be examined in Lesson 20 and the relative clauses to be described in Lesson 21). For each prefix pronoun predicate identified, students should be able to analyze the form (i.e., prefix pronoun + verb or noun stem) and describe any morphological (structural) changes within the verb.

2. Because the topic of Palauan prefix pronoun predicates is so broad and complex, students may wish to discuss some of the general issues in greater detail. Students can exchange their own views as to what elements of meaning unify some (or all) of the usages of prefix pronouns. They may also try to discover additional types of constructions (possibly overlooked in this lesson) that are characterized by the use of prefix pronouns.

18

Teacher's Manual

QUESTIONS IN PALAUAN

GENERAL COMMENTS

1. Much of the material in this lesson is taken from *PRG* Chapter 20, which basically follows the same format. After a general review of yes-no questions (already introduced earlier), we go on to examine the function of various question words like *techa(ng)*, *ngara(ng)*, *tela(ng)*, and so on.

2. The various question words each have their individual grammatical characteristics, most of which conform to previously studied principles such as preposing. Certain question words, however, have some unique or idiosyncratic grammatical properties.

3. The major points to be emphasized in this lesson are summarized below:

   a. Palauan, like all languages of the world, distinguishes (1) between statements vs. questions and (2) between yes-no questions vs. those demanding specific information (i.e., questions that contain a question word).

   b. In forming yes-no questions from statements that originally have double subjects, the process of preposing applies to a post-predicate subject, a possessor, or other elements, but the preposed element does *not* replace the original pre-predicate non-emphatic pronoun.

   c. By adding *ng diak* in sentence-final position, we get an emphatic yes-no question, while adding *ada ng diak* in that position produces a question asking for reconfirmation of the speaker's assumption or belief.

   d. The main grammatical feature of the question word *techa(ng)* 'who?' is that it appears as a *predicate* surrounded by a *double subject*, as in *Ng techa a sensei*? 'Who is the teacher?'. Palauan structures of this kind correspond to English sentences in which "who?" is the subject. The Palauan sentence *Ng techa a sensei*? can also be transformed by preposing the subject, deriving *A sensei ng techang*?

e. As explained following examples (15a–c) of 18.3, Palauan sentences with *techa* as predicate have the special characteristic of allowing what is structurally a *verb phrase* to function as a subject *noun phrase* in post-predicate position. Thus, the overall structure of *Ng techa a mlo er a party*? 'Who went to the party?' parallels that of *Ng techa a sensei*?, except that in the former sentence we have a verb phrase (*a mlo er a party*) functioning as a noun phrase—i.e., as sentence subject. As *Note 1* implies, *a mlo er a party* in this example represents one of several cases in which a Palauan verb phrase can be "nominalized"—that is, *made to function as a noun phrase*. Since *a mlo er a party* has this status in the sentence *Ng techa a mlo er a party*?, it should, like any other noun phrase, undergo preposing, and indeed this is substantiated by the grammatically correct equivalent *A mlo er a party ng techang*? From the viewpoint of English, such nominalized verb phrases correspond to expressions of the form "the one(s) who..." or "the person(s) who..."

f. In addition to functioning as a predicate, *techa(ng)* has a straightforward use as a noun phrase when representing the sentence object (see 17a–c), when part of a relational phrase (see 19a–b), or when indicating a specific third person possessor (see 20a–b).

g. The question word *ngara(ng)* appears as a normal sentence object following transitive action verbs (see 22a–d). It can be preposed to pre-predicate position, as in (24), with the accompanying predicate changing to prefix pronoun form. In addition, it can be preposed *without* having any effect on the predicate, which seems to be a special, idiosyncratic feature of *ngara* (see 26a–c).

h. When appearing as sentence subject, *ngara* occurs in post-predicate position as part of a double subject (*ng...ngarang*), as in (27a–b). However, it is often moved by preposing, even in some unexpected environments (see 28a–b and the discussion immediately following those examples).

i. *Ngara* also functions as part of the sentence-initial expression *ngara (uchul) me...*, equivalent to English "why?" or "for what reason?". In addition, it occurs in modifier constructions of the form *ngara el...*, meaning "which?/what?/what kind of?"

j. Although there are many details and a few idiomatic usages, there are no particularly unusual features of the question words *tela(ng)* 'how much, how many?', *ker* 'where?', and *oingara(ng)* 'when?'. A few very specialized question words with restricted usage—e.g., *mekera(ng)* 'do what?'—are covered in 18.8.

k. Questions with two identical question words forming a compound noun phrase—e.g., *techa me techa*, *ker me ker*, etc.—are used when the speaker assumes at least two items are involved. See 18.9 for details and examples.

SPECIFIC COMMENTS

[18.1]

1. As a review and as a good introduction to this lesson, discuss with students the difference between *statements* (assertions) and *questions*. Make sure students understand the difference between *yes-no questions* and questions that ask for specific types of identifying information—e.g., about a person (*techa* 'who?'), thing (*ngara* 'what?'), place (*ker* 'where?'), and so on.

2. This section fully reviews the discussion of yes-no questions presented earlier in 15.6. Students should be familiar with the ways of forming yes-no questions in Palauan: (1) use of sentence-final rising intonation and (2) preposing of the post-predicate subject (or other qualifying element) *without* deletion of the original pre-predicate non-emphatic pronoun. In (6) the first member of a post-predicate compound subject (*Droteo me a Toki*) has been preposed, leaving a pronoun trace (*ngii*) in its original position.

3. The structure of negative yes-no questions is quickly covered in examples (8–10).

[18.2.1]

1. The information here on questions with sentence-final *ng diak* or *ada ng diak* is repeated from 16.5.1.

[18.3]

1. Depending on its function in the Palauan sentence, the question word *techa(ng)* 'who?' appears in a variety of grammatical constructions. Perhaps most interesting are Palauan sentences in which *techa* is the equivalent of English "who?" used as sentence subject. In the corresponding Palauan sentences, *techa* functions as the *predicate*, with a double subject surrounding it, as in (13a–b). As expected, the post-predicate portion of the double subject can be preposed, yielding variants like (14a–b).

2. In sentences like *Ng techa a mo er a chei*? 'Who is going fishing?' and (15a–c), we note that the second portion of the double subject *ng... mo er a chei*—namely, *mo er a chei*—is actually a *verb phrase* in form, although it functions as a *noun phrase*. Further evidence that *mo er a chei* in this example has noun phrase status is seen in the fact that, like any other post-predicate subject noun phrase, it can be preposed to derive the alternative sentence *A mo er a che ng techang*? 'Who is the one who is going fishing?' (see also 16a–c, the preposed equivalents of 15a–c).

3. *Note 1*, which you should try to have students read, is designed to provide further evidence that verb phrases in Palauan can be "nominalized"—i.e., used as noun phrases in the position of sentence subject. In sentences like (b1–5) and (c–3) of *Note 1*, the sentence subject is a nominalized verb phrase placed in sentence-initial position by applying a series of familiar rules (see the discussion immediately following c1–3).

The resulting sentence puts special emphasis or focus on the subject noun phrase, so that a sentence like *A rirebet a Droteo* is best rendered in English as "The one who fell down is Droteo". The ideas introduced here, particularly the concept of a nominalized verb phrase that is under special emphasis or focus, are also due to the French linguist Alain Lemaréchal (for full reference, see the Teacher's Manual, Lesson 15, General Comment 1).

[18.3.1]

1. When *techa* functions as sentence object, it appears to act like a "normal" noun (phrase), not like a predicate. Thus, after a transitive action verb, it appears in the expected position of sentence object (see 17a–c), introduced by the specifying word *er* when the verb is imperfective.

2. When used as sentence object, *techa* can be preposed like all sentence objects, resulting in a prefix pronoun verb form, as in (18a–c). The derivation of these sentences is probably more complicated than the presentation given here, which merely tells students that when *techa* is preposed, "the pronoun *ng* must be inserted sentence-initially to complete the structure".

3. *Techa* can also occur in other positions where nouns function—i.e., after the relational word *er* in (19a–b), after a possessed noun as specific possessor in (20a–b), and in other structures such as compound noun phrases in (21a).

4. *Note 2* illustrates the preposing of *techa* when it occurs originally as a possessor introduced by the relational word *er* after an unpossessible noun. This process is applied to (19b), with an explanation of all the resulting changes.

5. One interesting characteristic of *techa* in all of its usages is that it appears never to be preceded by the word *a* (which normally introduces most Palauan noun and verb phrases).

6. In (21e) *er ngii* appears because the original sentence contains a transitive action verb in the imperfective form followed by a specific (sg.) object—namely,

   Ng techa a milluches er tia el babier? 'Who was (the one) writing this letter?'

   In (21e) *er ngii* therefore represents the specifying word *er* followed by the pronoun trace *ngii*, which appears in the position left vacant by the preposed noun phrase *tia el babier*. By contrast, in (21f) neither the specifying word *er* nor the pronoun trace *ngii* appears because the original sentence contains a transitive action verb in the perfective form—namely,

   Ng techa a silsebii a blai? 'Who (is the one who) burned down the house?'

7. One unusual feature shared by (21e–f) is that although the sentence object has been preposed in both cases, the predicate does not get changed into prefix pronoun form. The very same interesting phenomenon will be noted for one type of preposing involving the question word *ngara(ng)* 'what?' as sentence object (see the discussion of 25 and 26a–c in 18.4 below).

[18.4–18.4.1]

1. When used as sentence object, the question word *ngara(ng)* 'what?' appears, as expected, directly following a transitive action verb (see 22a–d). It can be preposed from this position, resulting in a prefix pronoun predicate (see 24). In addition, a special rule of preposing seems to apply to the question word *ngara*—namely, it can simply be moved to sentence-initial position, as in (25) and (26a–c), with no effect on the predicate, which does *not* change to prefix pronoun form (compare Specific Comment 7 for 18.3, directly above).

2. When used as sentence subject, *ngara* is usually the post-predicate portion of a double subject, as in (27a–b). As such, it can readily be preposed, as in (28a–b), even with predicates that normally *prevent* preposing (e.g., possessed forms of *soal* and *chetil*, expressions of existence, etc.).

3. With demonstratives, most question sentences have the preferred order indicated in (29a–b)—e.g., *Tia ng ngarang*? Such sentences are probably derived from original structures of the form *Ng ngara tiang*?, where *ngara* is a predicate surrounded by a double subject *ng...tiang*. Although the non-emphatic pronoun *ng* appears to be present structurally, it is absent phonetically due to contraction with the initial NG of the following word *ngara*.

4. When preceded by the relational word *er*, *ngara* acts like a noun phrase and shows nothing unusual. In the examples of (31), the relational phrases of the form *er a ngarang* function as follows:

   (31a) relational phrase indicating material or color—see (69) of 13.10

   (31b) relational phrase indicating goal or purpose—see (74) of 13.10

   (31c) source phrase

   (31d) cause phrase

5. The expressions *ngara me* and *ngara uchul me*, followed by a clause, are the most common way in Palauan of asking for the reason—i.e., "why?". The clause following *me* 'and (so)', a conjunction used to focus on the result, indicates the particular event, state, etc., that the speaker is seeking a reason or explanation for. Inclusion of *uchul* seems to add an element of seriousness—i.e., "what is the *real* reason why...?"

6. When linked by the conjunction *el* to a following noun, *ngara* functions as a *modifier* (see Lesson 22) meaning "which, what, what kind of?". Asking the students to analyze the examples of (36a–g) would make a good in-class exercise. Some important points about these sentences are given below:

   (36a) The original sentence object *ngara el tekoi* has been preposed, resulting in the prefix pronoun predicate *chomosuub* (*chomo-* + *suub*).

   (36b) The original sentence object *ngara el mubi* has been preposed, resulting in the prefix pronoun predicate *chobo momes* (a complex verb phrase: *cho-* + *bo* and *mo-* + *mes*). Note the pronoun trace *ngii*.

   (36c) The noun phrase *ngara el kedera* has been preposed from an original locational phrase, leaving a pronoun trace *ngii* after the relational word *er*. The predicate is in prefix pronoun form: *debo dongedub* (a complex verb phrase: *de-* + *bo* and *do-* + *ngedub*).

   (36d) The noun phrase *ngara el delmerab* has been preposed from an original locational phrase, leaving a pronoun trace *ngii* after the relational word *er*. The predicate is in prefix pronoun form: *losuub* (*lo-* + *suub*).

   (36e) The noun phrase *ngara el blsibs* has been preposed from an original source phrase, leaving a pronoun trace *ngii* after the relational word *er*. The predicate is in prefix pronoun form: *letilobed* (*le-* + *tilobed*).

   (36f) The noun phrase *ngara el kerrekar* has not been preposed from its source phrase, although this would be possible: *Ngara el kerrekar a lesilebek er ngii a belochel*?; however, the post-predicate portion *belochel* of the original double subject *ng...belochel* has been preposed.

   (36g) The word order in this sentence is basic—namely, a predicate (this time, the complex phrase *ngara el blai*) surrounded by a double subject *ng...blim*. The post-predicate portion *blim* could be preposed, resulting in the variant *A blim ng mo ngara el blai*?

[18.5]

1. The question word *tela(ng)* 'how much, how many?' follows an already familiar pattern: it functions as a *predicate* surrounded by a *double subject*. If the post-predicate portion of the subject consists of a noun phrase of possession with a specific third person possessor (as in the a-sentences of 39–41), then two further sentence variants are possible, one derived by preposing the entire subject (see the b-sentences of 39–41), and the other derived by preposing the possessor alone (see the c-sentences of 39–41).

2. The question word *tela* can also be used as a modifier, connected to a following noun by the conjunction *el* (e.g., *tela el klok*).

3. In (37a–c) the pre-predicate non-emphatic pronoun must agree with the second (post-predicate) portion of the double subject, as follows:

(37a) (nonhuman) singular *ng* agrees with (nonhuman) singular *klemengetem* 'your (sg.) height'

(37b) nonhuman plural *ng* agrees with nonhuman plural *chermem el bilis* 'your (sg.) dogs'

(37c) human plural *te* agrees with human plural *resechelim* 'your (sg.) friends'

[18.6]

1. The question word *ker* can occur in various relational phrases, all of which have the form *er ker*. Depending on the context (in particular, the accompanying verb), *er ker* can denote the location (i.e., 'where = in what place?'), the direction (i.e., 'where = to what place?'), or the source ('from where?'). All of these types are illustrated in the sentences of (43–5).

2. In (43c–d) we can apply preposing as follows:

(43c) Preposing applies to (full) subject *ngalek*:

A ngalek ng mla er ker?

(43d) (i) Preposing applies to (full) subject *ududel a Toki*:
A ududel a Toki ng ngar er ker?

(ii) Preposing applies to the possessor *Toki* alone:
A Toki ng ngar er ker a ududel?

[18.7]

1. The question word *oingara(ng)* always occurs in the temporal phrase *er oingara(ng)* and means 'when?'.

2. Sentences (46d–e) have both been derived by preposing the second part of a double subject—i.e., *Helen* and *resechelim*—to sentence-initial position, without deleting the original pre-predicate non-emphatic pronoun.

[18.8]

1. All of the question words presented in this section are unusual in some way—for example, *mekera(ng)* 'do what?' is a single form that incorporates both the idea of a general transitive action verb ("do") and a question word ("what?") used as object. See the detailed descriptions of examples (47a–i) and (48a–e).

[18.9]

1. Although certain question words like *techa* 'who?' and *ngara* 'what?' may refer to one or more persons or things (i.e., singular vs. plural) depending on the context or situation, compound noun phrases like *techa me techa* or *ngara me ngara* are used specifically when the speaker assumes (or even knows) that two items are involved (see 49a–c). A similar implication is found for *(er) ker me ker* and *(er) oingara me oingarang* (see 50a–b).

KEY TO STUDY QUESTIONS

[18.11: Questions in Palauan: Study Questions]

[Question 1]

a. *yes-no question*: a question whose answer can simply be "yes" or "no". Palauan yes-no questions are formed either by adding a sharp rise in intonation in sentence-final position, or by preposing the post-predicate subject (while maintaining the original pre-predicate non-emphatic pronoun).

Examples: Ng mla me a Droteo? (with sharp rise in intonation)
A Droteo ng mla mei? (by application of preposing)

b. *intonation*: the relative pitch of the voice (high to low). One type of Palauan yes-no question is formed by adding a sharp rise in intonation in sentence-final position—see (a) above. Palauan statements, as well as questions containing question words, have (low) falling intonation at the end of the sentence.

c. *question word*: a word used in questions that asks for the specific identity of a person, thing, place, etc. Palauan question words are a small set including *techa(ng)* 'who?', *ngara(ng)* 'what?', *ker* 'where?', and so on.

d. *double subject*: a subject consisting of two parts—i.e., a pre-predicate non-emphatic pronoun (*ng* or *te*) and a post-predicate full noun phrase expansion. Certain Palauan question words function as predicates surrounded by a double subject, as in *Ng techa a sensei*? or *Ng tela a rekim*? In yes-no questions, the second (post-predicate) portion of a double subject can be preposed—e.g., *A Droteo ng mla mei*?

e. *preposing*: the process of moving a particular sentence element to pre-predicate (or sentence-initial) position, with various grammatical consequences. In Palauan question sentences, preposing operates in several ways:

(1) The post-predicate subject of a yes-no question or a question with *techa*, *tela*, etc., can be preposed:

(a) yes-no question: A Droteo ng mla mei?

(b) with question word: A sensei ng techang?

(2) When functioning as sentence object, question words can also be preposed, resulting in a prefix pronoun predicate:

(a) with *techa*: Ng techa a chomongiil er ngii?

(b) with *ngara*: Ngara a chomulecherar er a stoang?

Note: With *ngara*, a special rule of preposing simply allows us to move the question word to sentence-initial position without changing the predicate to prefix pronoun form:

Ngara ke milecherar er a stoang?

(3) When functioning within a relational phrase, question words can also be preposed, leaving a pronoun trace and causing the predicate to appear in prefix pronoun form:

Ngara el blsibs a letilobed er ngii a beab?

(4) As expected, preposing can also apply to a possessor found within a (post-predicate) subject noun phrase:

A kerrekar ng tela a klemengetel?

f. *verb phrase (functioning as noun phrase)*: a sequence of words containing a verb that occurs in a position normally occupied by a noun phrase. In questions containing the question word *techa*, the second (post-predicate) portion of a double subject can itself be a verb phrase in form:

Ng techa a lilechesii a babier?

Because *lilechesii a babier* in this example functions as a noun phrase (subject), it can also be preposed:

A lilechesii a babier ng techang?

See *Note 1* in 18.3 for more examples and discussion.

g. *modifier*: a word that modifies (describes, qualifies) a following noun and is linked to that noun by the conjunction *el*. Some question words can be used as modifiers—e.g., *ngara el tekoi*, *tela el klok*, etc.

h. *relational phrase*: any phrase of the form *relational word er + noun phrase*. Certain question words always occur in a relational phrase (e.g., *er ker* 'where?', which can function as a locational, directional, or source phrase, or *er oingara* 'when?', which always functions as a temporal phrase). Other question words can also occur in a relational phrase depending on the construction (e.g., *rruul er a ngarang*? 'made of what?', where *ngara* is in a relational phrase designating material, or *sensei er techang*? 'whose teacher?', where *er techang* is a possessor phrase after the unpossessible noun *sensei*).

i. *compound noun phrase*: a noun phrase consisting of two (or more) nouns joined by the connecting word *me* 'and' (e.g., *Droteo me a Toki*). When the speaker assumes that two (or more) persons, things, etc. will be involved in the answer, he can formulate a question using two identical question words in a compound noun phrase:

Ng techa me techa a mlo er a party? 'Who (pl.) went to the party?'

[Question 2]

Yes-no questions are ones that can be answered with "yes" or "no"; they do not contain any question words and involve either (1) a sharp rise in intonation at the end or (2) preposing of the post-predicate subject. By contrast, questions containing question words demand specific information about a particular person, thing, place, etc. and cannot be answered simply with "yes" or "no"—in fact, an appropriate answer must contain the specific type of information asked for by the question word. Questions containing question words do not show any sentence-final rise in intonation.

[Question 3]

As noted many times, Palauan yes-no questions have the following grammatical characteristics: (1) words are in normal sentence order but there is a sharp rise in intonation in sentence-final position; (2) a post-predicate subject can be preposed to sentence-initial position but the original pre-predicate non-emphatic pronoun remains. When a sentence has a double subject, a yes-no question can be derived in two ways:

(1) add rising intonation: Ng mla me a Droteo?

(2) prepose post-predicate subject: A Droteo ng mla mei?

[Question 4]

See (8–10) of 18.1 for examples and discussion.

[Question 5]

As shown in 18.2, with *ng diak* in sentence-final position, we get a relatively emphatic yes-no question (see 11a–c). With *ada ng diak* in sentence-final position, we get a question asking for confirmation of the speaker's assumption or belief (see 12a–b).

[Question 6]

In *Ng techa a demam*?, the question word *techa* functions as a predicate, with the double subject *ng...demam* surrounding it. The post-predicate subject *demam* can be preposed, giving *A demam ng techang*?

[Question 7]

In *Ng techa a mlo er a party*?, the question word *techa* also functions as a predicate. This time, too, the subject of the sentence is double—i.e., *ng...mlo er a party*—but the second part has the form of a verb phrase (although it obviously functions as a noun phrase). Since it is the sentence subject, *mlo er a party* can be preposed, deriving *A mlo er a party ng techang*? 'Who is the one who went to the party?'

[Question 8]

Students may use sentences from 18.3 modeled after (16a–c) or after (b1–5) or (c–3) of *Note 1*.

[Question 9]

Just like sentences (c1–3) of *Note 1* in 18.3, these sentences are interrelated as follows:

(a) is the basic sentence type with double subject *ng...dorobo*

(b) is derived from (a) by preposing the subject (and replacing *ng*)

(c) is derived from (b) by switching the subject and predicate

The subject of (c) is the "nominalized" verb phrase *chiliis* 'the one who escaped'.

[Question 10]

The resulting sentence is an emphatic question:

A kikingelii a sersek ng techang? 'Who is the one who messed up my garden?'

[Question 11]

Examples are given in (17a–c) of 18.3.1. Note that the question word *techa* never seems to be introduced by *a*.

[Question 12]

(a) *techang* is the specific possessor following a possessed noun (*ngelekel*).

(b) *techang* is the specific possessor following an unpossessible noun (*delmerab*); *er techang* constitutes a possessor phrase.

(c) *techang* is part of a compound noun phrase *Droteo me techang* that was originally in post-predicate subject position. The first member (*Droteo*) of the compound noun phrase has been preposed, leaving the pronoun trace *ngii* in its place.

(d) *techa* functions as a predicate, surrounded by the double subject *ng...ngklem*. Use of *techa* with *ngklem* is somewhat idiomatic (meaning, literally, "Who is your name?").

(e) *techa me techa*, a compound noun phrase, functions as a predicate surrounded by the double subject *ng...ngilsuterir a rechedam*. The second part of the double subject—i.e., *ngilsuterir a rechedam*—is itself a verb phrase functioning as a noun phrase.

[Question 13]

(a) As sentence subject, *ngara* occurs basically as the second (post-predicate) portion of a double subject, as in (27a–b) of 18.4.1. This subject can be preposed, as in (28a–b), even with certain predicates that normally prevent such preposing.

(b) As sentence object, *ngara* occurs (as expected) directly following a transitive action verb, as in (22a–d). In this function, it can be preposed, either triggering a prefix pronoun predicate (see 24) or not (see 25 and 26a–c). The second situation, with no resulting prefix pronoun predicate, is quite unusual.

[Question 14]

In sentences with *ngara (uchul) me...* 'why?', the conjunction *me* 'and (so)' introduces a clause designating the event or state for whose occurrence a reason or explanation is sought. While *ngara (uchul) me...* is normally in sentence-initial position, as in (32a–d), (33a–b), and (35a–b), it is possible to prepose the subject of the clause introduced by *me* to a position preceding *ngara (uchul) me...*, as in (34a–b).

[Question 15]

The question words *ngara* and *tela* can be used as modifiers by linking them with the conjunction *el* to the following (modified) noun phrase. See (36a–g) for examples with *ngara el* and (42a–f) for examples with *tela el*.

[Question 16]

In both of these examples, the question words *techa* and *tela* function as the sentence predicate, surrounded by a double subject (*ng...sechelim* and *ng...rekim*).

[Question 17]

a. Prepose the entire post-predicate subject: A klemengetel a kerrekar ng telang?

b. Prepose the possessor alone: A kerrekar ng tela a klemengetel?

[Question 18]

The question word *ker* occurs in the following types of relational phrases: locational, directional, and source. Examples are provided in (43–4) of 18.6.

[Question 19]

To express "when?" or "at what time?" we can use the question word *oingara(ng)* as part of a temporal phrase *er oingarang*?

[Question 20]

The question word *mekera(ng)* 'do what?' is a verb (past tense: *milekera/mlekera*) that incorporates the idea of a general action ("do") and a question word ("what?") functioning as object.

[Question 21]

A Palauan speaker will formulate a question with two identical question words (joined by *me*) if he or she specifically assumes (or knows) that two (or more) individuals or items will be involved in the answer. Typical examples are given in (49–50) of 18.9.

KEY TO EXERCISES

[18.12: Questions in Palauan: Exercises]

[Exercise 1]

a.	1. Ng mlo smecher a ngelekel a Toki?	'Did Toki's child get sick?'
	2. A ngelekel a Toki ng mlo smecher?	'Toki's child [**topic**]—did he/she get sick?'
	3. A Toki ng mlo smecher a ngelekel?	'Toki [**topic**]—did her child get sick?'
b.	Ng dimlak chomoruul a kall?	'Didn't you prepare the food?' *or* 'You mean you didn't prepare the food?'
c.	1. Ng soal a Droteo el mesuub er a Siabal?	'Does Droteo want to study in Japan?'
	2. A Droteo ng soal el mesuub er a Siabal?	'Droteo [**topic**]—does he want to study in Japan?'
d.	1. Ng kmal klou a sidosia er a Satsko?	'Is Satsko's car very big?'
	2. A sidosia er a Satsko ng kmal klou?	'Satsko's car [**topic**]—is it very big?'
	3. A Satsko ng kmal klou a sidosia er ngii?	'Satsko [**topic**]—is her car very big?'
e.	Ke melasem er ngak?	'Are you challenging me?'
f.	Te ulebengkel a sensei el mo er a party?	'Did they go with the teacher to the party?'
g.	1. Ng diak lebo er a che a rubak?	'Isn't the old man going fishing?' *or* 'You mean the old man isn't going fishing?'
	2. A rubak ng diak lebo er a chei?	'The old man [**topic**]—isn't he going fishing?'
h.	Kede merael er a klukuk?	'Are we (incl.) leaving tomorrow?'

[Exercise 2]

a. Ke ngilsuir techang?
b. A chad er Belau te ousbech a ngara el meruul a mlai?
c. Ng tela el chad a mlo er a meeting?
d. Ng techa a ngklel a ngalek?/A ngklel a ngalek ng techang?
e. Ngara a ngar er ngii er a chelsel a kahol?
f. Ngara (uchul) me ng dimlak chobo er a party?
g. A ngalek ng millasech er a kerrekar el oba a ngarang?
h. Kom milengedub er ker?
i. Ng techa a sensei er kemam?/A sensei er kemam ng techang?
j. A Haruko ng chad er ker?

k. A Droteo ng ulsiik a ngarang?
l. A bechars ng tilobed er ker?
m. Tia ng sidosia er techang?
n. Ke milsuub er a Hawaii er oingarang?
o. A ngelekem ng mle smecher er a ngarang?
p. Ng techa (me techa) a kiltmeklii a blai?
q. Ng tela el klok?
r. Te mo er ker er tia el me el buil?
s. Ke uludengua el mo er techang?
t. Ng soam el mo er a Ngeaur er oingarang?
u. A rengalek ng sorir a ngarang?/Ngara a sorir a rengalek?
v. Ng mo merael el mo er ker (me ker)?
w. A Satsko ng mle merur er techang?
x. Ng tela a cheral a tibi?/A cheral a tibi ng telang?/A tibi ng tela a cheral?
y. Te milekera/mlekera er a chelsel a bai?

[Exercise 3]

a. ngara (uchul)
b. mekera
c. tela
d. techa
e. ker
f. oingarang, tela el klok
g. keskelel
h. ker
i. techa me techa
j. ngara

SUGGESTIONS FOR ADDITIONAL ACTIVITIES

1. Find a text of naturally written Palauan and have students isolate all the question sentences in it. For each question sentence discovered, students should provide a full analysis by supplying all the relevant information—e.g.,
   a. Is it a yes-no question or a question containing a question word?
   b. What kind of preposing, if any, has applied within the question sentence?
   c. Are there any new or unusual grammatical features that have not been covered in this lesson?
   d. What is the appropriate English equivalent?
2. Students can create their own exercise based broadly on the model of Exercise 2 above. One student presents a statement (e.g., *A Droteo a mlo er a Guam er a elii*), and the other students then formulate as many questions that the statement could be an answer to (e.g., *A Droteo ng milekera er a elii*?, *A Droteo ng mlo er ker er a elii*?, *A Droteo ng mlo er a Guam er oingarang*?, and so on.

19

Teacher's Manual

DIRECT & INDIRECT QUOTATION IN PALAUAN

GENERAL COMMENTS

1. The information presented in this short lesson corresponds closely to the content of *PRG* Chap. 21 ("Direct and Indirect Quotation"). Once the basic difference between the two types of quotation is explained, we examine the structure of directly and indirectly quoted statements, commands, and questions.

2. In most cases, direct and indirect quotations are introduced by the conjunction-like elements *el kmo* or *el ua se*, which directly precede the clause being quoted or summarized. The one exception is the case of indirectly quoted commands, which use a clause introduced by *me* 'and so' rather than *el kmo* or *el ua se*.

3. Indirectly quoted statements introduced by *el kmo* or *el ua se* characteristically follow a main (independent) clause containing either a verb of communication (e.g., *dmu* 'to say, tell', *mesubed* 'to notify, tell', etc.) or a verb of mental activity (e.g., *omdasu* 'to think', *medenge* 'to know', etc.). Indirectly quoted commands introduced by *me* normally follow *dmu*—here, in the meaning 'to ask/request/tell (someone to do something)'—in the main clause, while indirectly quoted questions introduced by *el kmo* or *el ua se* follow verbs like *oker* 'to ask' or certain expressions like *ng soak el mo medenge...* 'I'd like to know...'.

SPECIFIC COMMENTS

[19.1]

1. Remind students that sentences with direct or indirect quotation are necessarily *complex* sentences because they contain at least two clauses: the main (independent) clause featuring a verb of communication, mental activity, etc., and the (dependent) clause introduced by *el kmo*, *el ua se*, or *me* that expresses the direct or indirect quotation.

2. While direct quotation represents the speaker's attempt to repeat what was uttered word-for-word, indirect quotation is a summary (rephrasing, paraphrase) of the content or gist of what was said (i.e., not necessarily the original speaker's exact words).

3. When going from direct to indirect quotation, the change of viewpoint will often entail a change in the pronouns. Note what happens when a direct quotation like (a) is transformed into the indirect quotation of (b):

   a. Ng uleker er ngak el kmo, "Ke chad er Belau?" — 'He asked me, "Are you Palauan?"'

   b. Ng uleker er ngak el kmo ak chad er Belau. — 'He asked me if I was/am Palauan.'

   Obviously, the *ke* 'you (sg.)' used in (a) when someone questioned the speaker *directly* must be changed to *ak* in (b) when the speaker has chosen to report on the event with *indirect* quotation. Note that in English, the use of verb tense in indirect quotation is quite complicated, since either present tense or past tense forms (e.g., *am* vs. *was*) are acceptable in (b).

4. In addition to pronouns, certain other elements may change when direct quotation is transformed into indirect quotation. Thus, *eko* 'to go (to the hearer's location)' in the direct quotation of (1a) must become *me* 'to come (to the speaker's location)' in (1b), where indirect quotation requires the speaker's viewpoint.

[19.1.1]

1. As indicated here, *el kmo* is perhaps best analyzed as a special conjunction-like element that introduces a type of *specifying clause*. In all cases, the specifying clause provides further information about the previous verb of communication or mental activity by specifying or describing the *content* of what was said, thought, etc., Unlike the specifying clauses studied earlier, however, clauses introduced by *el kmo* (and *el ua se* as well) have a complete internal structure (for example, their subject cannot be omitted, etc.). Although *el kmo* seems to be a "fossilized" element (i.e., a single unit) in modern Palauan, *kmo* is probably an intransitive verb meaning 'to be like (something)' derived by infixing the verb marker *-m-* into the stem *ko* 'like, as', which occurs most commonly in the expression *ko er a* 'sort of, kind of, like'.

2. In comparing the direct quotation of (2a) with the indirect quotation of (2b), we note the following interesting changes. In (2a), when addressing Droteo directly, the speaker had to use *eko* 'to go (to the hearer's location)' and *blim* 'your house'; in (2b), however, when reporting indirectly on what he himself said, the speaker must now use *mo* 'to go (to the location of someone other than the current hearer)' and *blil* 'his house' (i.e., the house of Droteo, who is now a third party and not being direct addressed). See *Note 1* for further discussion of sentence (2a).

3. Similarly, in comparing the direct quotation of (3a) with the indirect quotation of (3b), the following changes occur. In (3a), the person who is being directly quoted had to refer to his own desire (to drink) as *soak* 'my desire'; in (3b), however, when the speaker

is now talking to that very same person and reminding him of his (the other person's) earlier words, then *soam* 'your desire' is the obvious choice.

[19.2–3]

1. With verbs of communication or mental activity, we typically have clauses expressing indirect quotation of statements. These clauses may be introduced by either *el kmo* or *el ua se*.

2. With verbs of communication, the person who receives the information is usually structured as the object of the main clause verb (imperfective or perfective), as in (4a), (4c–e), and (4g–h). With verbs of mental activity (e.g., *melebedebek* as described in *Note 2*), the semantic "object" (i.e., the person or thing thought about) can appear in a relational phrase (of goal or content) directly following the main clause verb.

3. An interesting rule allowing the subject of an indirectly quoted clause following a verb of communication to be restructured as the object of that verb of communication is illustrated in *Note 3* near the end of 19.3.

[19.4]

1. There is an interesting grammatical difference between the direct vs. indirect quotation of commands. While direct quotation of commmands uses *el kmo* (or *el ua se*) and works as expected (see 8a–b), the construction used for indirect quotation of commands is rather different. To express the indirect quotation of a command, we use *dmu* followed by a clause introduced by the conjunction *me* 'and so', which focuses on a result. What we are observing here is a *result clause* (see the next lesson) being used in the context of an indirectly quoted command, so that sentences of this type really mean "I ordered/commanded (someone) with the (desired or expected) *result* that..." As the examples of (10a–e) make clear, the result clause can be affirmative (i.e., the performance of a particular action is desired, required, etc., by the speaker) or negative (i.e., the performance of a particular action is not desired by the speaker and should not occur).

[19.5]

1. The grammatical constructions used for the direct and indirect quotation of questions show nothing unusual. Either *el kmo* or *el ua se* can introduce directly or indirectly quoted questions, which may be of the yes-no type or may contain any of the various question words.

2. As *Note 4* indicates, while directly quoted yes-no questions reflect the sharp rise in sentence-final intonation exhibited by all yes-no questions, indirectly quoted yes-no questions do not have this feature. Of course, any directly or indirectly quoted question that contains a question word will show no rise in intonation (which is true of all questions containing question words).

3. If (11c–d) were intended as indirectly quoted questions, their meanings would be as follows:

   (11c): 'Your friend asked me what you are going to do.'

   (11d): 'The child asked me how tall you are.'

4. When questions are directly or indirectly quoted, their internal structure can be optionally modified by applying the relevant rules of preposing (see the discussion of sentences 15b and 15f). In addition, a very interesting rule allowing the subject of an indirectly quoted question to be restructured as the object of the main clause verb is illustrated in (14a–b) and has its parallel in (6a–b) of 19.3 (involving the indirect quotation of statements).

[19.6]

1. There is a lot of variation among speakers in the use of *el kmo* and *el ua se*, so that few generalizations can easily be drawn. Like *el kmo*, *el ua se* can be considered as a special conjunction-like element that introduces a type of specifying clause. Interestingly enough, *el ua se* seems to have a similar semantic structure—i.e., *el* + *ua* 'like, as' + *se* 'that'—so that its meaning 'to be like that' is appropriate to introduce a directly or indirectly quoted clause.

[19.7]

1. Just like verbs of communication, certain nouns of communication such as *chais* 'news', *tekoi* 'word, story', etc., can be followed by an indirectly quoted clause introduced by *el kmo* or *el ua se*. Such clauses describe the general content of the news, story, etc.

KEY TO STUDY QUESTIONS

[19.9: Direct & Indirect Quotation in Palauan: Study Questions]

[Question 1]

a. *direct quotation*: When referring to a statement made, a command given, or a question asked by himself or someone else, a speaker uses *direct quotation* when he wishes to repeat word-for-word the given utterance. Clauses indicating any kind of direct quotation are introduced by *el kmo* or *el ua se*.

   Example: Ak dilu er a redil el kmo, "Ke kmal klebokel." — 'I said to the woman, "You're very pretty."'

b. *indirect quotation*: When referring to a statement made, a command given, or a question asked by himself or someone else, a speaker uses *indirect quotation* when he chooses to summarize or rephrase, from his own viewpoint, the content of the given

utterance. Clauses indicating indirect quotation are introduced by *el kmo* or *el ua se* (for indirect statements and questions) or *me* (for indirect commands).

Example: Ak dilu er a redil el kmo ng kmal klebokel. 'I told the woman that she is/was very pretty.'

c. *conjunctions EL and ME* (also known as *connecting words*): words that join or connect a dependent clause to a preceding independent clause. The conjunction *el*, in combination with *kmo* (=*el kmo*) or *ua se* (=*el ua se*), is used to introduce direct or indirect quotations, which probably are special types of specifying clauses. The conjunction *me* 'and so', which focuses on the result, introduces a clause that expresses an indirectly quoted command.

Examples: a. Ak uleker er tir el kmo/el ua se te mekerang. 'I asked them what they were doing.'

The main clause contains the verb *uleker* 'asked' (the past tense of *oker*) and is followed by a specifying clause introduced by the conjunction *el kmo* or *el ua se*. This specifying clause provides further information about *uleker* by specifying the content of the question asked.

b. Ak dilu er tir me te mo remei. 'I told them to go home.'

The main clause contains the verb *dilu* 'told, ordered' (the past tense of *dmu*) and is followed by a result clause introduced by the conjunction *me*. This result clause indicates what action or event the speaker desired or expected as a result of his uttering the given command.

d. *verb of communication*: any verb that denotes the transmission or reception of information—e.g., *dmu* 'to say, tell', *mesubed* 'to notify, tell', *ouchais* 'to inform, tell (news about something)', etc., Verbs of communication typically occur in main clauses followed by clauses of direct or indirect quotation introduced by *el kmo*, *el ua se*, or *me*.

e. *verb of mental activity*: any verb that refers to the activities or states of the mind—e.g., thinking, believing, knowing, and so on. Common examples are *omdasu* 'to think', *oumera* 'to believe', and *medenge* 'to know'. Verbs of mental activity typically occur in main clauses followed by clauses of indirect quotation introduced by *el kmo* or *el ua se*.

f. *(direct and indirect) quotation of commands*: the way by which a speaker refers to an order or request either by repeating word-for-word the command uttered (direct quotation) or by summarizing the content or gist of that command (indirect quotation). In sentences involving the quotation of commands, the verb *dmu* (in the sense of 'to tell, order') occurs in the main clause, while the following clause is marked either by *el kmo* or *el ua se* for direct commands and *me* 'and so' for indirect commands. See 19.4 for examples.

g. *(direct and indirect) quotation of questions*: the way by which a speaker refers to a question either by repeating word-for-word the actual question asked (direct quotation) or by summarizing or rephrasing the content of the question (indirect quotation). In sentences expressing the (direct and indirect) quotation of questions, the verb *oker* 'to ask' occurs in the main clause, while the following clause is marked by *el kmo* or *el ua se*. See 19.5 for examples.

h. *noun of communication*: a noun that expresses the transmission or reception of information—e.g., *chais* 'news', *tekoi* 'word, story', *subed* 'announcement, notice', etc., Like verbs of communication, nouns of communication can be followed by a clause introduced by *el kmo* or *el ua se* that describes the content of the news, story, etc. This is a form of indirect quotation of a statement. See 19.7 for examples.

[Question 2]

For the difference between direct and indirect quotation, compare the definitions in (a–b) of Question 1 above. In addition to statements, both commands and questions can be expressed by direct or indirect quotation. In writing, we set off direct quotations by double quotation marks ("..."), but in most cases there is no difference in pronunciation between directly vs. indirectly quoted material.

[Question 3]

El kmo is a conjunction-like element that serves to introduce various directly or indirectly quoted clauses, which probably function as a type of specifying clause. *El kmo* probably contains the conjunction *el* and *kmo*, an intransitive verb meaning 'to be like (something)'. See 19.1.1. for more discussion.

[Question 4]

As noted in Question 2 above, direct quotations are set off in Palauan *writing* by double quotation marks, but in *spoken* Palauan there is usually no difference in pronunciation between the two. However, as indicated in *Note 4* of 19.5, directly quoted yes-no questions show a sentence-final rise in intonation, while indirectly quoted yes-no questions do not.

[Question 5]

Sample sentence: A sensei a uluchais er kemam el kmo ng mo er ngii a skeng er a klukuk. 'The teacher informed us (excl.) that there is going to be a test tomorrow.'

The main clause contains the verb of communication *ouchais* (in its past tense form *uluchais*), which takes the emphatic pronoun *kemam* 'we (excl.)' as its object. Following the main clause we have a clause introduced by *el kmo* that expresses the indirect quotation of a statement.

[Question 6]

Verbs of mental activity describe thinking, believing, knowing, forgetting, and similar concepts.

Sample sentence: Ak omdasu el kmo ng kmal mle meringel a skeng. 'I think the test was very hard.'

The main clause contains the verb of mental activity *omdasu* (in the present tense). Following the main clause we have a clause introduced by *el kmo* that expresses indirect quotation (describing the content of the speaker's thought or belief).

[Question 7]

As indicated in 19.4, direct commands use *el kmo*, while indirect commands are introduced by the conjunction *me* 'and so', focusing on the expected or desired result.

[Question 8]

The required examples are as follows:

a. Ak dilu er a rengalek me te mo er a chei. 'I told the children to go fishing.'

b. Ak dilu er a rengalek me ng diak lebo er a chei. 'I told the children not to go fishing.'

[Question 9]

Because *me* 'and so' focuses on a result, its use in indirectly quoted commands is appropriate, since such commands are made precisely in order to bring about a certain result in the form of a desired or expected action or event.

[Question 10]

The internal structure of a directly or indirectly quoted question (whether of the yes-no type or containing a question word) can range over all the possible structural variations that questions can have (e.g., preposing can apply as appropriate, etc.).

[Question 11]

Sample answers:

a. A Toki a uleker er ngak el kmo ng soak el mo er a party ng diak. 'Toki asked me whether or not I want(ed) to go to the party.'

b. A sensei a uleker er ngak el kmo a rubak ng mlad er oingarang. 'The teacher asked me when the old man (had) died.'

c. Aki uleker er tir el kmo te mekera er a chelsel a blai. 'We asked them what they were doing inside the house.'

[Question 12]

This difference is explained in *Note 4* of 19.5.

[Question 13]

The required sentence is given below:

Ng diak kudenge el kmo ngara (uchul) me ng dimlak lebo er a party a Droteo. 'I don't know why Droteo did not go to the party.'

The clause after *me* can also show preposing of the subject *Droteo*, resulting in the alternative sentence below (which is identical in meaning):

Ng diak kudenge el kmo ngara (uchul) me a Droteo a dimlak lebo er a party.

[Question 14]

The resulting sentences are as follows:

a. Ak uleker er ngii el kmo a rekil a ngelekel ng telang.

b. Ak uleker er ngii el kmo a ngelekel ng tela a rekil.

[Question 15]

Both seem to be special conjunction-like expressions consisting of the regular dependent clause conjunction *el* and one or more additional elements. In *el kmo*, *kmo* is probably an intransitive verb (note the infixed verb marker *-m-*) meaning 'to be like (something)'; and in *el ua se*, we have *ua* 'like, as' + *se* 'that'. Both *el kmo* and *el ua se* are therefore appropriate for (direct or indirect) quotations because they basically mean 'like the following' or 'as follows'. For some Palauan speakers, *el kmo* and *el ua se* are totally interchangeable and seem to mean the same thing; however, for others *el kmo* implies that the quoted material is true (an actual fact), while *el ua se* implies that the quoted material may be doubtful or untrue.

[Question 16]

Students may model their examples after (18a–c) of 19.7.

KEY TO EXERCISES

[19.10: Direct & Indirect Quotation in Palauan: Exercises]

[Exercise 1]

a. A Droteo a dilu el kmo ng sebechel el me er a blid/blimam.	'Droteo said that he can come to our (incl. or excl.) house.'
b. A sensei a silebedeterir el kmo ng mo er ngii a skeng er a klukuk.	'The teacher told them that there will be a test tomorrow.'
c. A demak a dilu er ngak el ua se ng mo meskak a beches el rrad.	'My father told me that he will/would give me a new bike.'
d. A ngalek a ulumulak er kid el ua se ng dimlak loleseb er a blid.	'The child lied to us (incl.) (saying) that he didn't set fire to our house.'
e. Ak dilu er a sechelik el kmo ak ousbech er a mlil el mo er a party.	'I told my friend that I need(ed) his car to go to the party.'

[Exercise 2]

a. Aki ulerrenges el ua se ng mla er ngii a desiu er a Guam.	'We (excl.) heard that there was an earthquake in Guam.'
b. A Toki a diak lodenge el kmo ng mla mo smecher a ngelekel.	'Toki doesn't know that her child has gotten sick.'
c. A bulis a dimlak loumera el kmo a chad er a Merikel a rirecherechii a mlai.	'The police didn't believe that the American stole the car.'
d. Te omdasu el ua se ng ngar er ngii a ius er a chelsel a blsibs.	'They think that there's a crocodile inside the hole.'
e. A Tony a omuachel el ua se ng ngar er ngii a beches el katungel.	'Tony is boasting that he has a new girlfriend.'

[Exercise 3]

a. A sensei a dilu er tir me ng diak lolamech a dekool.	'The teacher told them not to smoke cigarettes.'
b. Ak dilu er a ngalek me ng diak loilil er a sersek.	'I told the child not to play in my garden.'
c. A bechik a dilu er a Toki me ng mo er a bita me longir a oles.	'My wife told Toki to go next door and borrow a knife.'
d. A rubak a dilu er a rengalek me te mo remei.	'The old man told the children to go home.'

e. Ak dilu er kemiu me kede mo omengur.	'I told you (pl.) that we (incl.) should go eat.'

[Exercise 4]

a. Ng soak el mo medenge el kmo ng ngar er ngii a bechil a Droteo (ng diak).	'I'd like to know whether (or not) Droteo has a wife.'
b. Ak uleker er tir el ua se ngara uchul me te di milil e diak losuub.	'I asked them why they just fool around and don't study.'
c. Ng diak kudenge el kmo a Tony ng me er a klukuk ng diak.	'I don't know whether or not Tony is coming tomorrow.'
d. A mechas a uleker er ngak el ua se ak mekera er tiang/sei.	'The old woman asked me what I was doing here/there.'
e. Ak mo subedau el kmo a cheldecheduch ng mo omuchel er a tela el klok.	'I will let you know what time the meeting will start.'
f. Ng dimlak lsbedak el kmo ngara ng milecherar er a Hawaii.	'She didn't tell me what she bought in Hawaii.'

SUGGESTIONS FOR ADDITIONAL ACTIVITIES

1. While they are working on this lesson, have students simultaneously study the topic of direct vs. indirect quotation in English, noting the major similarities and differences between the two languages. You may wish to coordinate with the English grammar teacher so that this rather complex topic can be covered thoroughly in that class. In English, when changing from direct to indirect quotation, not only do the pronouns change (as in Palauan), but there are also various complicated rules affecting the tense of the verb (and other situationally oriented words such as time expressions, demonstratives, etc.), some of which have been reflected in our English translations.

2. Find a text of naturally written Palauan—especially, a story or legend—and have students find all the direct and indirect quotations used within it. For each construction identified, students should be able to find the relevant verb of communication, thinking, etc. (in the main clause), and specify the internal structure of the quoted clause. Students should be able to identify the conjunction (*el kmo*, *el ua se*, or *me*) and determine whether the quoted material is a direct or indirect statement, command, or question. Students should also be on the lookout for any unusual or unexpected structural characteristics not discussed in the current lesson.

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Teacher's Manual

REASON, RESULT, & TIME CLAUSES IN PALAUAN

GENERAL COMMENTS

1. Most of the material presented in this lesson corresponds to the content of Lesson 22 of the *PRG*. A somewhat expanded introduction is presented in 20.1 to review the various types of complex sentences studied so far. These include sentences in which the independent clause is followed by some type of *dependent clause* introduced by *el* (e.g., purpose. instrument, specifying, etc.) as well as sentences involving *clauses of (direct or indirect, quotation* introduced by *el kmo* and *el ua se*. The three types of clauses examined in the current lesson—*reason*, *result*, and *time clauses*—all occur in complex sentences as the second clause (although time clauses in particular can also be *preposed*—see 20.5).

2. Reason clauses introduced by *e le* 'because' and result clauses introduced by *me* 'and so, and as a result' (see 20.2) are interrelated because they reflect, respectively, the *cause* and *effect* elements of a particular situation. As illustrated by (6a–b), the Palauan speaker always has two alternative ways of expressing the cause-effect relationship between two events, states, etc. If the effect (i.e., resulting event) is named first in the independent clause, then the cause will be expressed second in the following *reason clause* (see 6a); by contrast, if the cause is given in the independent clause, then the effect will follow in the *result clause* (see 6b).

3. The conjunction *me*, which introduces *result clauses*, appears in a wide variety of grammatical constructions. Students should be made aware of the fact that all Palauan result clauses really share a unifying semantic feature—namely, they indicate (1) an event brought about by another event or state or (2) an event that someone wishes or expects to bring about by making a command, giving permission, trying to persuade, and so on. This unity of meaning should not be obscured by the fact that the best English translations for many of the relevant sentences do not necessarily contain the expression 'and so' or 'and as a result'—see (9), (11a–b), (12a–b), (13a–b), and all the examples in 20.3.2. Thus, in 20.3, 20.3.1, and 20.3.2, we see that result clauses regularly follow the verb *dmu* (to express an indirectly quoted command), the question words *ngara (uchul)*, *mekera*, and *klsakl*, and various verbs of permission, persuasion, and precaution. Although result

clauses are present in all these cases, it may not seem immediately apparent from the (idiomatic) English equivalents given.

4. Palauan time clauses fall into three major categories (see 20.4, 20.4.1–3):

   a. *er se er a* 'when (in the past)': used for an interrupting, simultaneous, or "background" event (or state) in the past.

   b. *se el* 'when (in the future), whenever': used for a future event or a habitually occurring event.

   c. *er a uche er a* 'before' and *er a uriul er a* 'after': used for events that precede or follow some other event.

   As indicated in 20.5, all Palauan time clauses can be preposed, with a few grammatical adjustments.

SPECIFIC COMMENTS

[20.1]

1. Before introducing the new material of Lesson 20, this section first reviews the concept of *complex sentence* and presents familiar examples from earlier lessons. One type of complex sentence studied extensively in Lesson 14 consists of an independent clause followed by a dependent clause such as the purpose clause of (2a) or the instrument clause of (2b). The grammatical features of Palauan dependent clauses are briefly reviewed, although students should still recall them quite clearly. Another type of complex sentence covered in detail in Lesson 19 consists of an independent clause followed by a clause introduced by *el kmo* or *el ua se* that expresses various types of (direct and indirect) quotation.

[20.2, 20.2.1]

1. In addition to the complex sentences already studied in Lessons 14 and 19, Palauan can form complex sentences by using an independent clause followed by a clause that expresses the *reason* or the *result*. If any given situation consists of two elements or components (actions or states) that can be related as *cause* and *effect*, we have the option of expressing this relationship in two ways, as summarized in (6a–b). For example, if a situation consists of the two components [Ng dimlak kbo er a skuul] and [Ak mle smecher], where the first is obviously an effect (i.e., a resulting event) and the second is a likely cause, then the relationship can be stated as follows:

   a. By means of pattern (6a), which places emphasis on the effect—i.e., independent clause (effect) + **reason clause** (cause):

      Ng dimlak kbo er a skuul e le ak mle smecher. 'I didn't go to school because I was sick.'

b. By means of pattern (6b), which places emphasis on the cause— i.e., independent clause (cause) + **result clause** (effect):

Ak mle smecher me ng dimlak kbo er a skuul. 'I was sick, so I didn't go to school.'

The conjunctions *e le* 'because' and *me* 'and so, and as a result' are logical opposites.

2. Certain constructions observed in earlier lessons really involve result clauses, although this is often obscured by the English translations. Thus, sentence (9) of 20.2.1 shows an indirectly quoted command which involves nothing more than a result clause introduced by *me*. This becomes clear if we paraphrase this sentence type to mean "(someone) gave a command (to someone else) with the expected/desired *result* that..."

3. The purpose of *Note 1* is to mention briefly another major use of *me*—i.e., to join clauses of parallel status. Further discussion is postponed until Lesson 23.

[20.3, 20.3.2]

1. Once students have seen that the clause introduced by *me* in (9) is really a result clause, it should not be difficult to convince them that result clauses also occur in a rather wide variety of Palauan sentence types (again, despite the English translations, which often do not include a word like 'so' or 'result'). The major specialized types of result clauses are summarized below:

   a. A result clause naturally follows certain question words such as *ngara (uchul)* 'why, (for) what reason?', *mekera* 'do what?', and *klsakl* 'what's wrong?'

   b. After particular semantic classes of verbs, result clauses will often follow. Such verbs include the verb of permission *konge* 'to permit, allow', the verb of persuasion *orrimel* 'to force, urge, persuade', and the verbs of precaution *tsiui* 'to watch out' and *kerekikl* 'to be careful'. When the verb of permission *konge* is negated, as in (16a–c), the following result clause will contain a predicate in prefix pronoun form (possibly due to an understood negative verb *diak* in that clause).

   c. After the imperative perfective forms *bechikak* 'let me', *bechire* 'let him/her', and so on, we have a result clause (also, with a predicate in prefix pronoun form).

2. In sentence (17) the predicates can be explained as follows:

   a. In the independent clause: after the (past) negative form *dimlak* we have the third person prefix pronoun form *le* + *du* (from *dmu*).

   b. In the result clause: directly after *me* we have a complex verb phrase with both parts in 3rd pers. (sg.) prefix pronoun form—i.e., *le* + *bo* (from *mo*) and *lo* + *ilil* (from *milil*).

3. *Note* 2 at the end of 20.3.2 presents a very complex construction that seems to combine a result clause with a paired sequence of condition and consequent clauses. This note may be omitted if you wish.

[20.4, 20.4.1]

1. In addition to temporal phrases, Palauan uses a variety of *time clauses* to express ideas related to time. While temporal phrases have the basic structure *relational word ER + time word or expression* (noun or noun phrase)—e.g., *er a klukuk* 'tomorrow', *er tia el mlo merek el rak* 'last year'—time clauses have a more complex structure, since they consist of a conjunction-like element (*er se er a, se el, er a uche/uriul er a*) followed by a full clause containing its own subject and predicate.

2. Time clauses introduced by *er se er a* always refer to events or states in the past. The *er se er a* clause may introduce a single event (often, one that interrupted another ongoing event), as in (22a–c); an event or state that designates a broad framework or situational context for the occurrence of another event, as in (23a–c); or an event or state totally simultaneous with another, as in (24a–c).

3. The internal structure of time clauses introduced by *er se er a* is characterized by the following features: (1) the predicate is in prefix pronoun form (possibly because such clauses focus on an entire process or event), and (2) the predicate is always in the present (neutral) tense, even though a past situation is obviously involved.

4. There are some *temporal phrases* introduced by *er se er a* that specifically refer to past time (see *Note* 3 of 20.4.1).

[20.4.2]

1. Time clauses introduced by *se el* refer either to a future event or to a habitually occurring event. They also require a predicate in prefix pronoun form.

2. In the examples of (25), the prefix pronoun predicates within the *se el* clause are as follows:

   (25a): a complex verb phrase with first person singular prefix pronouns:

   k + bo and *k+ mechas* (from *mo mechas* 'become an old woman')

   (25b): a complex verb phrase with third person (sg.) prefix pronouns:

   le + bo and *le + chuodel* (from *mo chuodel* 'get old')

[20.4.3]

1. "Before" and "after" clauses introduced by *er a uche er a* and *er a uriul er a*, respectively, also require predicates in prefix pronoun form. The expressions *er a uche er a* and *er a*

uriul er a can also occur followed directly by a noun to form a type of temporal phrase (see *Note 4*).

[20.5]

1. A rule of preposing allows us to move any Palauan time clause to sentence-initial position, with some grammatical adjustments necessary. This type of preposing also applies to most temporal phrases as well (see *Note 5*).

KEY TO STUDY QUESTIONS

[20.7: Reason, Result, & Time Clauses in Palauan: Study Questions]

[Question 1]

a. *complex sentence*: any sentence that contains at least two separate clauses—an independent clause and some other type of clause. The second type of clause may be a dependent clause; a clause introduced by *el kmo* or *el ua se* (for direct and indirect quotation); or a reason, result, or time clause.

b. *independent clause*: (also called a main clause) that clause within a complex sentence that itself could stand alone as a full, independent sentence. Independent clauses always contain a fully specified subject and a predicate (in any tense), and they normally occur in the first position of a sentence. In some cases, however, they will occur in second position—e.g., when a time clause has been preposed.

Example:

Ak milsa a Droteo er se er a kbo er a Guam.	'I saw Droteo when I went to Guam.'

The independent clause is *ak milsa a Droteo*; it may occur in second position (introduced by *e*) if the time clause is preposed:

Se er a kbo er a Guam, e ak milsa a Droteo.	'When I went to Guam, I saw Droteo.'

c. *reason clause*: a clause introduced by *e le* 'because' that indicates the reason for the event or state mentioned in the preceding independent clause. Reason clauses describe the *cause* part of a cause-effect relationship. See (5a), (7), and (8a–b).

d. *result clause*: a clause introduced by *me* 'and so, and as a result' that indicates an event that results from the event or state of the preceding independent clause. Result clauses describe the *effect* part of a cause-effect relationship. See (5b), (9), (10a–g), and the special types of result clauses given in 20.3 and 20.3.1–2.

e. *cause and effect*: two elements of a given situation in which one particular event (or state)—the *cause*—brings about another event (or state)—the *effect*. To describe a

situation with a cause and effect, Palauan speakers have two options, as shown in (6a–b) of 20.2:

(1) present the effect (resulting event) first in an independent clause, and name the cause next in a *reason clause*

(2) present the cause first in an independent clause, and name the effect next in a *result clause*

f. *indirect quotation of a command*: a way of reporting a command that contains a verb of commanding (*dmu* 'to say, tell, command') in the first clause and the content of the command in the second clause. The second clause is a result clause introduced by *me* indicating the action brought about (hoped for, expected) as a result of giving the command. See (9) of 20.2.1 for an example.

g. *question words ngara (uchul)*, *mekera*, and *klsakl*: all are question words that require an immediately following result clause. All of these question words basically ask for the reason (cause) behind the event expressed in the result clause. See (11a–b), (12a–b), and (14a–b) for examples.

h. *verb of permission*: a verb like *konge(i)* 'to permit, allow' that is followed by a result clause indicating what event or action occurs (or is expected to occur) as a result of the permission being given. See (15a–b) for examples.

i. *verb of persuasion*: a verb like *orrimel* 'to force, persuade, urge' that is followed by a result clause indicating what event or action occurs (or is expected to occur) as a result of the act of persuasion. See (18a–b) for examples.

j. *verb of precaution*: a verb like *tsiui* 'to watch out' that is followed by a result clause containing a negative verb. The result clause indicates what event or action should not occur (should be avoided) as a result of someone taking the suggested precautions. See (18c–d) for examples.

k. *temporal phrase*: a relational phrase of the form *relational word er + noun phrase* (time word or expression) that refers to time points in the past, present, or future (e.g., *er a elechang* 'now, today', *er a elii* 'yesterday', *er a klukuk* 'tomorrow') as well as to other categories of time such as hours of the day (*er a teruich el klok* 'at ten o'clock'), and so on. Temporal phrases share some features of meaning and function with Palauan *time clauses*—see (l) below.

l. *time clause*: a type of clause containing its own (fully expressed) subject and verb that refers to the time of a particular event, action, or state. Time clauses are introduced by various complex (conjunction-like) expressions such as *er se er a* 'when (in the past)', *se el* 'when (in the future), whenever', etc. They can also be preposed—see (n) below. For examples see (22a–c), (25a–b), (26a–b), etc.

m. *"before" and "after"*: spatial concepts ("in front of", "in back of") applied to time. These concepts are used in Palauan time clauses to indicate an event occurring *before* another event (introduced by *er a uche er a*) or an event occurring *after* another event (introduced by *er a uriul er a*). See (27a–e) and (28a–d) for examples. Some temporal phrases—see (k) above—also incorporate the concepts of "before" and "after", as shown in *Note 4* at the end of 20.4.3.

n. *preposing*: a process by which a time clause can be moved to sentence-initial position, preceding the independent clause. When time clauses are preposed, the initial *er* of the conjunctions *er se er a*, *er a uche er a*, and *er a uriul er a* is deleted, and the independent clause (in second position) must be introduced by the conjunction *e* 'and then'. See (29a–f) for examples. Many Palauan temporal phrases can also be preposed, as shown in *Note 5* at the end of 20.5.

[Question 2]

As defined earlier, a complex sentence is one that has at least two separate clauses—an independent clause and some other type of clause marked in a particular way. Because reason, result, and time clauses always accompany an independent clause, the sentences in which they occur will necessarily be complex sentences.

[Question 3]

If the independent clause names the effect, then the cause will be expressed by an accompanying reason clause introduced by *e le* 'because'. If, however, the independent clause names the cause, then the effect will be expressed by an accompanying result clause introduced by *me* 'and so, and as a result'. See the discussion of (6a–b) in 20.2 for further information.

[Question 4]

The conjunction *me* has the following additional functions: (a) it joins two or more nouns into a compound noun phrase (e.g., *Droteo me a Toki me a Satsko* 'Droteo and Toki and Satsko'), and (b) it joins two clauses that are parallel in structure and that provide parallel types of information (see *Note 1*).

[Question 5]

A result clause is appropriate with indirectly quoted commands because when someone gives a command, he or she wants some event or action to occur as a *result* of the command's being given.

[Question 6]

These question words are all followed by result clauses introduced by *me*. For appropriate examples, see (11–13).

[Question 7]

For (a) see (15a–b), for (b) see (16a–c), for (c) see (18a–b), and for (d) see (18c–d).

[Question 8]

Since a temporal phrase is a kind of relational phrase, it has the basic structure *relational word er + noun phrase* (in which the noun phrase is a time word, possibly preceded by one or more modifiers, as in *er tia el mlo merek el rak* 'last year'). By contrast, a time clause will have a more complex internal structure, since it consists of a conjunction such as *se el*, *er se er a*, etc., followed by a full sentence (clause) structure that contains a subject and a predicate.

[Question 9]

All time clauses referring to a past event or state are introduced by the complex expression (conjunction) *er se er a* 'when (in the past)'. The internal structure of such time clauses has two unusual features: (a) the predicate must always be in prefix pronoun form, and (b) the predicate must always be in the present (neutral) tense. Examples should be modeled after (22a–c), (23a–c), or (24a–c) of 20.4.1.

[Question 10]

The example given should be similar to (23a–c) of 20.4.1.

[Question 11]

Time clauses referring to future time or to habitual occurrence are introduced by *se el*. The time clause following *se el* must contain a predicate in prefix pronoun form (and, if applicable, a double subject). For examples, see (25a–b) and (26a–b) of 20.4.2.

[Question 12]

Both types of clauses are introduced by a similar type of (complex) conjunction: *er a uche er a* and *er a uriul er a*. The structure of these conjunctions is the same except for *uche* 'in front of, before' vs. *uriul* 'in back of, after' as the main content word. Except for the obvious difference in meaning, "before" and "after" clauses have an identical internal structure—i.e., they require a predicate in prefix pronoun form, and any verb will always be in the present (neutral) tense.

[Question 13]

The preposing of time clauses does not seem to have any effect on the meaning. When a time clause is preposed, the *er* of *er se er a*, *er a uche er a*, and *er a uriul er a* is deleted, and the independent clause (now in second position) must be introduced by the conjunction *e* 'and then'. Similar structural changes occur when temporal phrases are preposed (see *Note 5* of 20.5), and for many Palauan speakers a preposed temporal phrase is somewhat emphatic.

KEY TO EXERCISES

[20.8: Reason, Result, & Time Clauses in Palauan: Exercises]

[Exercise 1]

Sample answer:

Ng kirek el mesuub er a elechang e le ng mo er ngii a skeng er a klukuk. 'I have to study now because there's a test tomorrow.'

[Exercise 2]

Sample answer:

Ng mla mo diak a ududel a Satsko me ng diak lsebechel el mo er a Siabal. 'Satsko has run out of money, so (as a result) she cannot go to Japan.'

[Exercise 3]

All examples should follow the model given.

[Exercise 4]

Sample answer:

Ak kilenge me a rengelekek a mo er a che el obengkel a rubak.

Or: Ak kilenge er a rengelekek me te mo er a che el obengkel a rubak. 'I allowed my children to go fishing with the old man.'

[Exercise 5]

Sample answer:

Ak milenga a betok el sasimi er se er a kngar er a Siabal. 'I ate lots of sashimi when I was in Japan.'

[Exercise 6]

Sample answers:

(29a): Ak kilie er a hoter er se er a kbo er a Guam.

(29d): A Droteo a melim a kohi se el losuub.

[Exercise 7]

Sample answers:

(a): Ak mo merael er a klukuk.

(d): Te ileko er a blim er a teruich el klok.

SUGGESTIONS FOR ADDITIONAL ACTIVITIES

1. Choose any text of naturally written Palauan and have students examine it to find all the reason, result, and time clauses. For each clause discovered, students should be able to identify the conjunction (*e le, me, er se er a, se el*, etc.) and analyze the internal structure of the clause (predicate with or without prefix pronoun, double subject in basic position vs. preposed subject, and so on). Students will most likely find a few small details not covered explicitly in this lesson.

2. Coordinate with the English teacher so that students may simultaneously study the features of corresponding clauses in English (i.e., various types of English subordinate clauses). You may wish to have students make lists of similar vs. contrasting features between the clauses of the two languages.

3. Play a game by writing a large number (30–40) of different statements on separate index cards. The statements should express actions or events ("Tony went fishing", "There was an earthquake yesterday") as well as states ("The child was sick", "The ocean is rough"). Be sure to use both affirmative and negative statements covering a wide range of topics or situations.

   To play the game, each student randomly chooses two different statement cards from the deck. The student must then connect the two statements in some logical way by using any type of complex sentence studied—independent clause + dependent clause (specifying, purpose, etc.); independent clause + clause introduced by *el kmo* or *el ua se*; independent clause + reason, result, or time clause. Some pairs of cards will lend themselves to a quick solution (where the two events, states, etc., can be easily associated with each other in a particular imagined situation), while other pairs will be more difficult or even impossible. In the last two cases, there could be some very humorous results! This game will be more fun to the extent that the original statements written describe somewhat unusual or humorous situations.

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PALAUAN RELATIVE CLAUSES

GENERAL COMMENTS

1. This lesson covers the material in *PRG* Chapter 23 ("Relative Clauses"), but with some omissions and simplifications. The technical discussion of relative clause derivation (*PRG* 23.2) has been eliminated, and we have not continued the use of certain misleading (or erroneous) terminology such as "passive sentence" (*PRG* 23.3).

2. In the first two sections of this lesson we discuss the function and structure of Palauan relative clauses. We emphasize that a relative clause always modifies a preceding *noun* by specifying or narrowing down the identity of that noun. Relative clauses are always introduced by *el* (the same conjunction used to introduce dependent clauses), and they never have an overtly expressed subject. We attempt to clarify the function and structure of relative clauses by comparing them with the dependent clauses studied extensively in Lesson 14. In addition, some comparison is made (see *Notes 1–2*) with English relative clauses, which are actually much more complex than their Palauan counterparts.

3. The unifying feature of all Palauan relative clauses is that their subject is missing (which means that the conjunction *el* is always immediately followed by the relative clause predicate). The missing subject is always the same as the very noun modified by the relative clause as a whole. In addition—and perhaps most interestingly—the missing subject of the relative clause may in fact be its original subject, as in (1b), (2b), (3b), and (5a–g); a "derived" subject resulting from *preposing* the original clause object, as in (7) and (8a–h); or even an element preposed from within a relational phrase, as in (10) and (11a–d). When the relative clause subject has been derived by preposing, then the predicate (verb) of the clause must be in *prefix pronoun* form, and a *pronoun trace* must appear where appropriate.

4. So-called *appositional phrases* such as those presented in (13) and (14) (and much earlier in 3.9) are nothing more than nouns followed by relative clauses that are originally of a simple (equational) structure.

SPECIFIC COMMENTS

[21.1]

1. In addition to explaining the function of relative clauses—namely, to specify or narrow down the identity of the modified noun—it may be helpful to students if you also describe relative clauses as one of the structural options available in Palauan (and many other languages) for expressing multiple pieces of information in condensed form. Thus, two separate, isolated sentences about the same subject—e.g., *A ngalek a mlo er a kelebus* and *A ngalek a silsebii a blai*—can be consolidated into a more closely-knit structure with a relative clause—namely, *A ngalek el silsebii a blai a mlo er a kelebus* or *A ngalek el mlo er a kelebus a silsebii a blai*.

[21.2]

1. The major structural features of Palauan relative clauses are as follows: (a) they are introduced by the conjunction *el*, and (b) their subject (either original or "derived" by preposing) is always missing (though readily interpreted as being identical to the modified noun itself).

2. Relative clauses share the features described in (1) above with dependent clauses, though the following differences between the two types of clauses should also be kept in mind: (a) while the missing subject of a relative clause always corresponds to the very noun modified by the relative clause itself, the missing subject of a dependent clause always corresponds to the subject of the preceding independent clause; and (b) while dependent clauses exhibit considerable restrictions on the tense of the verb, no such restrictions apply to relative clauses.

3. *Note 1* introduces English relative clauses in which the relative pronoun (*who*, *which*, *that*) functions as the subject of the relative clause. Broadly speaking, the Palauan sequence *el + missing subject* (followed by a normal predicate—i.e., one that is *not* in prefix pronoun form) corresponds to any of the English relative pronouns *who*, *which*, or *that* functioning as relative clause subject.

4. In the examples of (5a–g), the relative clauses are not hard to identify—for example:

   (5a): the relative clause *el mle er a blik er a elii* modifies *buik*

   (5c): the relative clause *el menguiu er a simbung* modifies *ngalek*

[21.3]

1. In this section we see evidence for the generalization that the missing element of a Palauan relative clause must always be its subject, whether original or derived by preposing. The relative clauses in this section are used in situations where the modified noun functions conceptually as the object within the relative clause itself. In other words, if we wish to combine two sentences like *Ng soak a hong* 'I want the book' and *A Droteo a menguiu er a*

hong 'Droteo is reading the book', we must first modify the second sentence by preposing the object to yield *A hong a longuiu er ngii a Droteo* (note the prefix pronoun verb *longuiu* and the pronoun trace *ngii*). Then, we can use this structure as a relative clause to modify the noun *hong* of the first sentence, resulting in *Ng soak a hong el longuiu er ngii a Droteo* 'I want the book that Droteo is reading.' This is a good place to make students aware of how important preposing is in Palauan: if it were not for the process of preposing, we would not be able to derive a large number of Palauan relative clauses.

2. *Note 2* introduces English relative clauses in which the relative pronoun (*whom*, *which*, or *that*) functions as the object of the relative clause. Broadly speaking, the Palauan sequence *el* + (missing "derived" subject) + *prefix pronoun predicate* corresponds to English relative clauses in which the relative pronouns *who*, *which*, and *that* function as the relative clause object (although in this function the English relative pronouns can also be deleted).

[21.4]

1. The types of relative clauses shown here parallel those of 21.3, except that within the relative clause the "derived" subject (ultimately deleted) results from preposing an element originally found within a *relational phrase*. In (11a–c) we find preposing from an original *locational phrase*, while in (11d) the preposing has come from an original *source phrase*—i.e., *A beab a tilobed er a blsibs* 'The mouse came out of the hole.'

2. *Note 3* at the end of 21.4 illustrates a few relative clauses in which preposing to subject position occurs within more complex grammatical structures. Though very interesting because they almost "stretch" the limits of when grammatical rules can be applied, these examples may be omitted if you see fit.

[21.5]

1. Although certain appositional phrases were studied earlier in connection with Palauan possessor pronouns (see 3.9), the concept of appositional phrase is also included in this lesson because appositional phrases involve relative clause structures. Whether an appositional phrase of the form *chermek el bilis* (see 12–13) or *Toki el sensei* (see 14), we have a structure in which the first (modified) noun (*chermek*, *Toki*) is followed by a relative clause consisting of the simple structure *el* + *noun (functioning as predicate)*.

2. In appositional phrases of the form *Noun 1* + *el* + *Noun 2*, we observe semantic relationships such as the following:

   a. Noun 1 is a general category noun, while Noun 2 is a specific member of that category, as in (12–13).

   b. Both Noun 1 and Noun 2 refer to one and the same person, thing, etc., in the real world but use different terms to describe that referent. Typical examples are (14a–e): (14a–b) are explained in the text, and (14c–e) can be analyzed as follows:

(14c): Noun 1 refers to a particular business by its actual name (*Toyota*), while Noun 2 describes that same business in broader terms (*kombalii er a Siabal* 'Japanese company').

(14d): Noun 1 refers to a particular building (*blik* 'my house') as a structure or finished product, while Noun 2 indicates the material or substance (*smengt* 'cement') from which it is built.

(14e): Noun 1 categorizes a particular human being (my daughter) by kinship (*ngelekek* 'my child'), while Noun 2 categorizes that same person by gender (*redil* 'female'). The phrase *ngelekek el redil* 'my daughter' literally means 'my child who is female'.

3. Expressions of the form *ngii di el chad* 'anybody at all, any human being' (see 15–16) are also appositional phrases in which Noun 1 is the emphatic pronoun *ngii*.

[21.6]

1. In this section we introduce the contrasting structures *el* + *state verb* (relative clause) vs. *state verb* + *el* (modifier), each of which are associated with nouns—e.g., *blai el beches* vs. *beches el blai*. While some speakers consider these two structures to be equivalent in meaning, for others there is a distinction similar to the English contrast between nonrestrictive vs. restrictive relative clauses. Thus, in *blai el beches*, the relative clause supplies non-essential information mentioned by the speaker as a kind of afterthought, as in the English nonrestrictive relative clause found in 'I saw Droteo's house, which (incidentally) is new'. By contrast, in *beches el blai* the modifier provides specific information that the speaker feels is necessary for identifying the item in question and separating it from any possible related items, as in the English restrictive relative clause found in 'I saw the house of Droteo which/that is new (as opposed to his old one).' This sentence, of course, is more idiomatically expressed in English with an adjective rather than a relative clause—i.e., 'I saw Droteo's *new* house (not his old one).'

[21.7]

1. As the equivalent of English structures containing the indefinite pronouns *anyone*, *anything*, etc., followed by a relative clause (e.g., 'anyone who speaks English'), Palauan uses the general nouns *chad* 'person, human being' and *klalo* 'thing' followed by a relative clause, as shown in (20a–e).

KEY TO STUDY QUESTIONS

[21.9: Palauan Relative Clauses: Study Questions]

[Question 1]

1. *relative clause*: a clause structure of the form *conjunction EL* (+ missing subject) + *predicate* that modifies a preceding noun. The missing subject of the relative clause is always identical to the noun (phrase) modified by the entire clause. The term *relative clause* is appropriate because the conjunction *el relates* the material of the clause's predicate to the modified noun.

2. *conjunction el*: a word used to introduce and link various clause structures to other parts of the sentence. The conjunction *el* not only introduces all Palauan *dependent clauses* but also is used to introduce *relative clauses*.

3. *preposing of the object*: a process by which the object of the sentence (or clause) is preposed to sentence-initial (or clause-initial) position, resulting in a prefix pronoun predicate and, if appropriate, a pronoun trace. Preposing of the object occurs in Palauan relative clauses when the noun modified by the relative clause itself is identical to the original object of the clause. For example, if we apply preposing to the object of (a) below, we derive (b):

   a. Ng menguiu er a hong a ngalek. 'The child is reading the book.'

   b. A hong a longuiu er ngii a ngalek. 'The book [**topic**]—the child is reading it.'

   We can now use (b) (with preposed *hong* deleted) as a modifier of *hong*, as in (c):

   c. A hong el longuiu er ngii a ngalek a kmal ungil. 'The book that the child is reading is very good.'

4. *prefix pronoun*: a type of pronoun (*ku-*, *mo-*, *chomo-*, *lo-*, etc.) prefixed to a predicate in a wide variety of Palauan grammatical constructions. These constructions include cases in which the object or a noun within a relational phrase has been preposed. For this reason, certain clauses with prefix pronouns attached to the predicate occur as relative clauses. See (c) in Definition 3 above and examples like (10) of 21.4.

5. *appositional phrase*: a structure of the form *Noun 1* + *el* + *Noun 2* in which *el* + *Noun 2* represents a type of relative clause. In an appositional phrase, two nouns (or noun phrases) are positioned next to each other (and linked by the conjunction *el*). Typical appositional phrases associate a general category noun (Noun 1) and a specific member of that category (Noun 2), as in *chermek el katuu* 'my pet cat'.

[Question 2]

The primary function of relative clauses in Palauan is to modify (give more specific information about) a directly preceding noun (phrase). Relative clauses in English function in much the same way.

[Question 3]

As explained in 21.2, Palauan relative clauses follow the noun (phrase) that they modify. They are introduced by the conjunction *el*, which is followed directly by a predicate. In all Palauan relative clauses, there is no overtly expressed subject; this missing subject, however, is always identical to the preceding noun (phrase) that the entire relative clause modifies.

[Question 4]

Both relative clauses and dependent clauses are introduced by the conjunction *el*; in addition, they show no overtly expressed subject. While the missing subject of a relative clause is identical to the very noun modified by the relative clause, the missing subject of a dependent clause is identical to the subject of the preceding independent clause. This is because, in essence, relative clauses modify a noun (phrase), whereas dependent clauses modify the entire preceding clause. One further difference is fairly significant: while dependent clauses usually show a present tense (neutral) verb even in sentences that refer to past events, relative clauses are not restricted in this way, with verbs of any tense occurring freely.

[Question 5]

The details of these differences are described in *Note 1* of 21.2 and *Note* 2 of 21.3. In addition, while the relative pronouns that introduce English relative clauses can refer to the subject, object, or object of a preposition within that clause, in Palauan the missing element must always refer to the relative clause *subject* (whether original or derived by preposing).

[Question 6]

In relative clauses that focus on the clause object, preposing of that very object must always have occurred. As a result of this preposing, the verb of the relative clause will be in prefix pronoun form, and a pronoun trace will occur under certain circumstances (e.g., to replace the specific singular object of an imperfective verb).

[Question 7]

In relative clauses that focus on an element within a relational phrase, preposing of that element (a noun phrase) must always have occurred. As in the case of object preposing described in Question 6 above, the verb of the relative clause will be in prefix pronoun

form, and a pronoun trace will occur following the relational word *er* in the position originally occupied by the preposed element.

[Question 8]

As indicated at the beginning of 21.5, an appositional phrase of the form *chermek el bilis* has the structure *Noun 1 + el + Noun 2*, in which *el + Noun 2* is itself a relative clause. In the particular phrase *chermek el bilis*, Noun 1 is the possessed form of a general category noun (*charm* 'animal'), while Noun 2 is a specific member of that category (*bilis* 'dog').

[Question 9]

See the Specific Comment on 21.6 above.

[Question 10]

Such ideas are expressed by using the general nouns *chad* 'person, human being' and *klalo* 'thing' followed by a relative clause. See 21.7 for examples.

KEY TO EXERCISES

[21.10: Palauan Relative Clauses: Exercises]

[Exercise 1]

Sample answers:

a. A sechal el rirecherechii a udoud a mlo er a kelebus. 'The man who stole the money went to jail.'

b. Ak milsa a babii el killii a beras. 'I saw the pig that ate up the rice.'

[Exercise 2]

a. Ak mla chuieuii a babier el lulluches er ngii a Droteo. 'I have read the letter that Droteo was writing.'

b. Ng ngar er ker a chad el soal el oureor er tiang? 'Where's the person who wants to work here?'

c. A rengalek el mla mesuub a tekoi er a Siabal a mo er a Siabal. 'The children who have studied Japanese will go to Japan.'

d. Ng mla er ngii a cheldecheduch el kmal mle klou a ultutelel. 'There was a meeting that was very important.'

e. A rubak el mle smecher er a motsio a mlo er a osbitar. 'The old man who was ill with appendicitis went to the hospital.'

[Exercise 3]

Sample answers:

a. *chermem el katuu*:
Ng mla chemiis a chermem el katuu? 'Has your pet cat run away?'

e. *ngii di el sechal*:
Ngii di el sechal a kirel el omekerreu er a bechil. 'Any man must protect his wife.'

[Exercise 4]

a. Ng soak el omechar a sidosia er a Siabal el diak lsal meringel a cheral.

b. Ng techa a redil el millatech er a delmerab er kau?

c. Ak rirengesii a chad el millecholb er a omoachel.

d. Ng soam el omes er a mlai el kimullasech er ngii er a elii?

e. Kede osiik er a kedera el luilil er ngii a rengalek.

f. A chad el cholebedii a ngalek a kirel el mo er a kelebus.

g. Kiyosi el sensei er a tekoi er a Siabal a osiik a chad el sebechel el mo mengesbreber er a blil.

SUGGESTIONS FOR ADDITIONAL ACTIVITIES

1. Choose any text of naturally written Palauan and have students examine it to find all the relative clauses. For each relative clause discovered, students should be able to identify the missing subject and analyze the internal structure of the clause (e.g., if derived by preposing, what is the prefix pronoun predicate, is there a pronoun trace, etc.?). Students may find some relative clauses of rather complex origin such as those illustrated in *Note* 3 of 21.4.

2. Coordinate with the English teacher so that students may simultaneously study the features of relative clauses in English. Starting with the information given in *Notes 1–2*, you should emphasize the similarities and differences between relative clauses in the two languages.

22

Teacher's Manual

MODIFIERS IN PALAUAN

GENERAL COMMENTS

1. The content of this lesson corresponds very closely to what is presented in *PRG* Chp. 24 ("Modifiers"). As an introduction to the topic of modifiers, 22.1 and 22.2 review various modifier constructions already described in earlier lessons of the textbook. In all of these constructions, a particular word (or phrase) precedes the modified noun and is linked to it by the conjunction (connecting word) *el*. Modifier constructions already familiar to students include those with state verbs (*beches el blai*), idiomatic expressions with *reng* (*klou a rengul el chad*), demonstratives combined with intransitive action verbs (*tia el me el rak*), transitive action verbs (*mengitakl el chad*), question words (*ngara el tekoi*), and certain nouns (*di telkib el kall*).

2. The majority of new information presented in this lesson involves the details of Palauan *demonstrative words* and *number words*, which frequently occur in modifier constructions. Demonstrative words exhibit a distinction among four categories of distance, explained in (9) of 22.3.1, as well as a distinction between singular vs. plural. Furthermore, there are different sets of demonstrative words depending on whether the modified noun refers to a nonliving thing (10), a human being (13), or an animal (16). Except for certain unanalyzable forms such as *se* 'that (nonliving thing) (over there)', demonstrative words have a consistent internal structure—namely, a bound prefix-like morpheme identifying the type of referent followed by a bound suffix-like element indicating the category of distance (see 22.3.3).

3. Number words fall into several commonly used *major* sets that are used for counting units of time (21), human beings (24), and animals and nonliving things (26). Like demonstratives, they have a consistent internal structure in which a bound prefix-like morpheme identifies the category of the counted item, while the following stem indicates the number itself. In addition to the three major sets, there are certain *minor* number sets used by some speakers in a limited way—e.g., to count long objects (31) or bunches of bananas (32). The formation of numbers between 11 and 19, as well as those above 20, involves common patterns and shared forms in all the number sets. The ordinal numbers (see 22.7) are a fairly important set, especially because *kot* 'first' is often followed by an entire specifying clause, as seen in the examples of (39).

4. As expressions like *tia el me el rak, tirke el tede el ungil el sensei*, etc. indicate, Palauan modifiers can occur multiply before a given modified noun.

5. Though not technically participating in a modifier construction (because the conjunction *el* is not used), the *qualifying words kmal* 'very', *di* 'only, just', etc. examined in 22.9 nevertheless have the function of modifying the directly following word, which usually is a *verb* (and sometimes a noun).

SPECIFIC COMMENTS

[22.1]

1. In this section we review the use of state verbs as modifiers (*beches el blai*) and note a contrast with relative clauses (*blai el beches*), which for some speakers are different in meaning (see 21.6). This lesson will concentrate on *modifier* constructions, in which the modifying word (or phrase) is linked by the conjunction *el* to the following modified word (usually a noun).

2. Any type of state verb can be used as a modifier, including resulting and expected state verbs, as seen in the examples of (2). Idiomatic expressions with *reng* and a state verb can also function as modifiers, as shown in (3).

[22.2]

1. In addition to state verbs, the following classes of words have already been observed functioning as modifiers:

   a. *demonstrative word + intransitive action verb*, in time expressions such as *tia el me el rak* 'next year' and *tia el mlo merek el buil* 'last month'

   b. *transitive action verb*, as in *mengitakl el chad*

   c. *question word*, as in *tela el udoud, ngara el tekoi*, etc.

   d. *noun* (rather rare), as in *di telkib el kall*

2. In certain modifier constructions, the conjunction *el* is phonetically reduced under expected conditions—e.g., *tia el klalo* sounds like "tial klalo", *se el me el rak* sounds like "sel merrak", etc.

[22.3–22.4]

1. One of the major classes of Palauan words participating in modifier constructions is the class of *demonstratives* (demonstrative words), which are used to point out or draw attention to a particular person, animal, thing, etc. The important features of Palauan demonstratives are summarized below:

   a. Different sets of demonstrative words are used depending on whether the modified noun is a nonliving thing (10), a human being (13), or an animal (16), although the

set of demonstratives used for animals actually combines forms from the other two sets. In addition, demonstratives referring to singular nonliving things can also be used within locational phrases to refer to places—e.g., *er tia* 'here', *er se* 'there', and so on.

b. Palauan demonstratives make a distinction among four *categories of distance*, as indicated in (9): near both speaker and hearer, near speaker but far from hearer, near hearer but far from speaker, and far from both speaker and hearer. In addition, different forms are used depending on whether the modified noun is *singular* vs. *plural*.

c. The demonstrative words of Palauan follow a very consistent pattern of internal structure in which a morpheme specifying the class of referent (*nonliving thing* vs. *human* vs. *animal*, *singular* vs. *plural*) is followed by a morpheme specifying the category of distance. These morphemes are isolated in (14) and (15) of 22.3.3, and students can easily see the possible combinations: *ai* + *ka*, *ai* + *le*, *ngi* + *ka*, *ngi* + *le*, etc. Exceptional forms such as *se*, as well as certain phonetic variants, are explained in points (a–d) after (15).

2. For a wide variety of examples (including sentences) in which demonstratives are used as modifiers, see (17–20) of 22.4.

[22.5–22.8]

1. A second major class of Palauan words participating in modifier constructions is the class of *numbers* (number words), which are used for counting or giving the rank (with ordinal numbers). The important features of Palauan numbers are summarized below:

   a. Like demonstratives, number words fall into various sets depending on the category of the counted noun. Thus, different *major* (i.e., frequently used) number sets are found for counting *units of time* (Set I), *human beings* (Set II), and *animals and nonliving things* (Set III). In addition, certain other *minor* (i.e., less frequently used) number sets are found occasionally or in limited fashion for straight *counting* (i.e., "one—two—three—four," etc.) (Set IV), for counting *long objects* (Set V), or for counting *bunches of bananas* (Set VI). Finally, to indicate the *rank* or *order* of something, we use the *ordinal numbers* of Set VII.

   b. Although there are some single-morpheme forms such as *ta* 'one' and *teruich* 'ten', most Palauan number words from 2 to 9 show a consistent internal structure in which a prefix identifying the category of the counted item (e.g., *e-* for Set I, *te-* for Set II, *kl-* for Set III, etc.) combines with any of the basic number morphemes listed in (22) (e.g., *-ru* 'two', *-de* 'three', *-ua* 'four', etc.).

2. As seen in *Notes 1 and 2*, various phonetic changes occur within particular numbers (e.g., *teruich me a ta* sounds like "teruich mata(ng)") as well as within certain modifier expressions containing numbers (e.g., *ta el sikang* sounds like "tal sikang").
3. A good variety of examples (including sentences) in which numbers are used as modifiers

can be found in (23), (25), (27), (29), and (33).

4. *Note 3* in 22.5.1 describes some variation among speakers in the use of certain number words.

5. Phonetic details and other features of the number words in Set I (units of time) and Set II (human beings) are described in points (a–c) following (24) of 22.5.2. See the examples of (25) for the optional use of the plural prefix *re-* with number words of Set II.

6. Phonetic details and other features of the number words in Set III (animals and nonliving things) are covered in points (a–c) following (25) of 22.5.3.

[22.5.4]

1. The Palauan numbers above 20 constitute a simple derivational set in which the prefix *ok-*, indicating multiples of ten, is followed by the various number morphemes given in (22) of 22.5.1. Usually, a buffer vowel E or O occurs between the two parts. The formation of numbers above *dart* 'one hundred' is also very straightforward.

[22.5.5]

1. In this section we list several minor number sets whose use is infrequent or somewhat limited. Set IV is used for counting off numbers in sequence, Set V (with only five items) is used for counting long objects, and Set VI specifically counts bunches of bananas.

[22.7–22.7.1]

1. Palauan ordinal numbers, which are used to indicate the order or rank of something ('first', 'second', 'third', etc.), also show a consistent internal structure. Except for *kot* 'first', which is a single morpheme, the remaining ordinal numbers can be analyzed as a *prefix ong-* (with a buffer vowel E) followed by the *number morphemes* given in (22) of 22.5.1.

2. Ordinal numbers occur in several interesting constructions. As modifiers, they are used to indicate days of the week (*kot el ureor* 'Monday', *ongeru el ureor* 'Tuesday', etc.) and months of the year (*kot el buil* 'January', *ongeru el buil* 'February', etc.). In addition, they can be used followed by *specifying clauses*, as illustrated in the sentences of (39), (41), and (42). In particular, *kot* 'first' followed by a specifying clause that contains a state verb is used to indicate the idea of *superlative*—e.g., *kot el ungil* 'best', *kot el mekeald* 'hottest', and so on.

[22.8]

1. As shown in the sentences of (43), noun phrases with up to three different modifiers preceding the noun are not uncommon in Palauan.

[22.9]

1. Although not participating in the modifier constructions that make up the focus of this lesson, *qualifying words* such as *kmal* 'very', *di* 'just, only', etc. are briefly considered here because, semantically at least, they do carry out a kind of modifying function. As indicated in the sentences of (44–7), qualifying words directly precede the word modified (i.e., there is no conjunction *el*), and the word modified is usually a verb (predicate).

2. Certain other types of qualifying words exist in Palauan, but they are not introduced in this section. Some of them seem to have rather unique grammatical properties. For example, a qualifying word like *kilo* 'almost, nearly, what if...?' (which might be the past tense form of the special verb *ko* 'just') is used in sentences such as the following:

   a. A ngelekek a kilo ng remos. 'My child almost drowned.'
   b. Ak kilo ak mad. 'I almost died.'
   c. Kilo ng mo er a Droteo? 'What if Droteo went?'

   As the examples above indicate, *kilo* seems to introduce (and qualify) an entire clause structure that has its own subject and verb. In (b), for example, the subject of the clause following *kilo* is *ak* 'I', which is phonetically reduced and results in a pronunciation of "akkilokmad" for the entire sentence.

KEY TO STUDY QUESTIONS

[22.12: Modifiers in Palauan: Study Questions]

[Question 1]

1. *state verb*: a verb that indicates a state, condition, or quality rather than an action. State verbs are commonly used as modifiers in Palauan. *Examples*: *mekelekolt el ralm*, *ungil el eanged*.

2. *modifier*: any of several major classes of words—state verbs, demonstratives, numbers, etc.—that modify or describe a following noun and are linked to it by the conjunction *el*. *Examples*: *mekngit el chad*, *tia el blai*, *chimo el kluk*.

3. *conjunction* ***el*** (also known as the *connecting word* ***el***): a word that joins or links a modifier to the noun modified. *Examples*: as in (1–2) above. *Note*: the conjunction *el* also serves other linking functions—e.g., it introduces *dependent clauses* and links them to the preceding independent clause, as in *Ak kilisii a kliokl el oba a sebel* 'I dug the hole using/with a shovel.'

4. *(intransitive or transitive) action verb*: a verb that describes an action, activity, or event rather than a state. Transitive action verbs involve an object, while intransitive action verbs do not. The forms of both types of verbs can be used as modifiers. *Examples*: *mengitakl el chad*, *mildul el kerrekar*.

5. *question word*: a word whose specific purpose is to ask for particular types of information (who?, what?, etc.). Palauan question words such as *ngara* 'what (kind of)?' and *tela* 'how much/many?' can function as modifiers. *Examples*: *ngara el tekoi?*, *tela el klok?*

6. *demonstrative* (or *demonstrative word*): any word used to point out or draw attention to a particular person, animal, or thing. Palauan demonstratives distinguish among four categories of distance as well as between singular vs. plural; in addition, different sets of demonstrative words are used for human beings vs. animals vs. nonliving things. Demonstrative words are frequently used as modifiers. *Examples*: *ng(i)ka el chad/tirka el chad*, *tia el klalo/aika el klalo*, etc.

7. *(four) categories of distance*: a four-way distinction made within the sets of Palauan demonstrative words to indicate how far the referent is from both speaker and hearer. The four categories of distance are listed in detail in (9) of 22.3.1.

8. *number* (sometimes referred to as *number word*): any word used to count or to specify the number of persons, things, etc. under discussion. Palauan number words fall into different sets (major vs. minor) depending on what is being counted. They are frequently used as modifiers. *Examples*: *eru el sils*, *teru el chad*, *teblo el tebel*.

9. *number morpheme*: the second component of most number words. Almost all Palauan number words have an internal structure consisting of a prefix that specifically identifies the category of the counted item followed by a number morpheme indicating the exact number of units. As shown in (22) of 22.5.1, the number morphemes are *-ru* 'two', *-de* 'three', *-ua* 'four', etc. When combined with prefixes, they derive full number words such as *eru/ede/eua*, *teru/tede/teua*, and so on.

10. *major (vs. minor) number set*: major number sets are used frequently and consistently by Palauan speakers for counting items in the following categories: units of time (Set I), human beings (Set II), and animals and nonliving things (Set III). The ordinal numbers (Set VII) are also of considerable importance. By contrast, minor number sets are used less frequently and less consistently by Palauan speakers. They are used for counting items in sequence (Set IV), long items (Set V), and bunches of bananas (Set VI).

11. *ordinal number*: a number used to indicate the order or rank of something ('first', 'second', 'third', etc.). Palauan ordinal numbers include *kot* 'first' and a set of numbers in which the prefix *ong(e)-* is attached to the various number morphemes (see 9 above): *ongeru* 'second', *ongede* 'third', etc. Ordinal numbers are used as modifiers both before nouns (*kot el ureor*, *kot el buil*) and state verbs (*kot el ungil*, *kot el bekerurt*). In addition, they can be followed by a specifying clause (*Ke kot el mo omengur* 'You go ahead and eat first.').

12. *specifying clause*: a clause introduced by the conjunction *el* that specifies (gives further information about) the action or state described in the preceding independent clause. The Palauan ordinal number *kot* 'first' is often followed by a specifying clause (see the example in 11 above).

13. *multiple modifiers*: two or more modifiers (each followed by the conjunction *el*) occurring in sequence directly before the modified noun. *Examples*: *tia el mlo merek el rak*, *tirke el tede el ungil el sensei*.

14. *qualifying word*: a word like *kmal* 'very', *di* 'just, only', etc. that appears directly before a verb (or noun) without the conjunction *el* and qualifies or limits the meaning of that verb (or noun). *Examples*: *kmal ungil*, *di mililil*, *di ngak*, *dirk ngar*.

[Question 2]

Palauan modifier constructions precede the modified noun and have the general form *modifier* + *el*. The modifier can be a state verb (or expression), a demonstrative, a number, and so on. The conjunction *el* performs a linking or connecting function. By contrast, relative clauses follow the modified noun and have the general form *el* + *clause*; here, too, the conjunction *el* has a linking function. For many speakers of Palauan, corresponding modifier constructions and relative clauses have the same meaning (e.g., *beches el blai* and *blai el beches* 'new house'), while for others the interpretation is different (see 21.6 for details).

[Question 3]

In Palauan grammar, the conjunction *el* has additional functions: it introduces *relative clauses* (e.g., *rubak el mlo er a chei* 'the old man who went fishing') and various types of *dependent clauses* (e.g., *milluches el oba a oluches* 'was writing using/with a pencil').

[Question 4]

The entire idiomatic expression (i.e., *state verb* + possessed form of *reng*) is simply placed before the modified noun and linked to it with *el* (e.g., *meringel a tekingel el sensei* 'strict teacher').

[Question 5]

Various intransitve and transitive action verbs can be used in modifier constructions. See 22.2 for details.

[Question 6]

As shown in the examples of (6) in 22.2, the question words *ngara* 'what (kind of)?' and *tela* 'how much/many?' are sometimes used as modifiers.

[Question 7]

In order to use Palauan demonstratives correctly, speakers must take the following factors into account: (1) the category of distance—i.e., how far away the referent is from speaker and hearer (see 9 of 22.3.1); (2) whether the referent is singular or plural; and (3) whether the referent is a human being, an animal, or a nonliving thing.

[Question 8]

The four categories of distance are presented in the chart of (9) in 22.3.1. The phonetic forms of each distance category are presented in (14) of 22.3.3.

[Question 9]

The similarities and differences between demonstratives referring to human beings vs. those referring to nonliving things are presented in detail in 22.3.3. Setting aside exceptional forms like *se* 'that (nonliving thing) over there', the two sets of demonstratives under discussion basically share the morphemes indicating the four categories of distance (see 14 of 22.3.3) but are differentiated by the prefix-like morphemes identifying human beings (*ngi-* for sg., *tir-* for pl.) vs. nonliving things (*ti-* for sg., *ai-* for pl.).

[Question 10]

The demonstrative word *se* 'that (nonliving thing) over there' is an unanalyzable form. In addition, the singular forms *tia* 'this (nonliving thing) (near both of us)' and *tie* 'this (nonliving thing) (near me but not you)' seem to have been derived using reduced forms of the suffixes *-ka* (with K lost) and *-le* (with L lost). See points (a–d) at the end of 22.3.3 for all details.

[Question 11]

As indicated in 22.3.4, Palauan demonstratives referring to animals show the following unusual mixture of forms: singular animals are referred to by the same demonstratives used for singular *human beings*, while plural animals are referred to by the same demonstratives used for plural *nonliving things*.

[Question 12]

Any demonstrative word can function as a modifier when linked by the conjunction *el* to a following noun. The demonstrative linked in this way must of course "agree" with the modified noun in terms of the distinctions (1) human being vs. nonliving thing vs. animal and (2) sg. vs. pl. Section 22.4 contains numerous examples.

[Question 13]

The number words designating units of time (Set I) and those indicating human beings (Set II) are contrasted in detail in points (a–c) of 22.5.2. While both number sets use the number morphemes of (22), they are differentiated from each other by the prefix used (*e-* for units of time vs. *te-* for human beings). Both number sets share the single-morpheme number words *ta* 'one' *teruich* 'ten', *lluich* 'twenty', etc.

[Question 14]

There are three major number sets in Palauan. They are used to count units of time (Set I), human beings (Set II), and animals and nonliving things (Set III).

[Question 15]

To count from 11 to 19 in the major number sets, we use an expression consisting of the number for 'ten' (*teruich* in Sets I and II, *tacher* in Set III) joined by the connnecting word *me* to the appropriate single number. *Examples*: *teruich me a teru* 'twelve (human beings)', *tacher me a teblo* 'twelve (animals, nonliving things)'.

[Question 16]

Any number word can function as a modifier when linked by the conjunction *el* to a following noun. The number word must of course "agree" with the modified noun in terms of the category of the referent. *Examples*: *elolem el buil* 'six months', *telolem el buik* 'six boys'.

[Question 17]

As indicated in points (a–c) of 22.5.3, number words referring to animals and nonliving things (Set III) basically have the following internal structure: prefix *kl-* (or *kle-*) followed by one of the number morphemes listed in (22). *Examples*: *klde*, *kleai*.

[Question 18]

As explained in 22.5.4, numbers above 20 are easy to produce. Multiples of ten from 30 to 90 use the prefix *ok-* (*okede* 'thirty', *okoua* 'forty', etc.). Numbers like 21, 32, etc. are simply compounds such as *lluich me a ta(ng)*, *okede me a eru(ng)*, etc. For 100 and above, speakers use *dart*, *eru el dart*, *ede el dart*, etc.

[Question 19]

All the details of the minor number sets (Sets IV, V, and VI) can be found in 22.5.5.

[Question 20]

As shown in 22.7 and 22.7.1, ordinal numbers (except for *kot* 'first') use the prefix *ong(e)-* attached to any of the number morphemes of (22). Ordinal numbers are used to indicate the order or rank of something ('first', 'second', 'third', etc.). They have two main syntactic uses, as described below:

(1) All the lower ordinal numbers can be used as modifiers of nouns in certain groups of expressions—e.g., *kot el buil*, *ongeru el buil*, etc. for months of the year and *kot el ureor*, *ongeru el ureor*, etc. for (five) days of the week.

(2) As a special verb meaning 'to do first', *kot* can be followed by a specifying clause introduced by *el*. See (39a–c) for examples. Occasionally, other ordinal numbers are used in this way, as in (41). In addition, *kot* is used with specifying clauses containing a state verb to indicate superlative meaning, as in (42a–c).

[Question 21]

We would write a sentence with multiple modifiers when we wish to combine several pieces of modifying information into a single extended phrase. Demonstratives, number words, and (state) verbs often occur in sequence as multiple modifiers. See (43a–c) in 22.8 for examples.

[Question 22]

Unlike true modifiers, Palauan qualifying words do not need to be linked by the conjunction *el* to the following word. The word qualified is often a verb rather than a noun (e.g., *kmal ungil*, *di mililil*).

KEY TO EXERCISES

[22.13: Modifiers in Palauan: Exercises]

[Exercise 1]

Since the exercise calls for the state verbs to be used as modifiers, make sure that each state verb is linked to the following (modified) noun by *el*. The state verbs listed represent a wide range of types, including resulting and expected state verbs.

[Exercise 2]

1. Use demonstratives referring to human beings: *tolechoi*, *sechal*, *kangkodang*
2. Use demonstratives referring to nonliving things: *kahol*, *kerrekar*, *sidosia*, *oluches*, *mesil*
3. Use demonstratives referring to animals: *babii*, *ius*

[Exercise 3]

1. Use Set I (units of time): *buil*, *sandei*
2. Use Set II (human beings): *ngalek*, *rubak*
3. Use Set III (animals, nonliving things): *oles*, *belochel*, *chemang*, *charm*, *dellomel*, *buk*

[Exercise 4]

okede me a kleai el delmerab
lluich me a kleim el kahol
teruich me a telolem el tolechoi
dart el kerrekar
eim el dart el kluk
okeuid el blai
okoua me a teru el chad er a Siabal
eua el telael el ngikel

teruich me a ta el sikang
tacher me a kleai el kerruk

[Exercise 5]

Make sure the qualifying words used are appropriately translated into English.

SUGGESTIONS FOR ADDITIONAL ACTIVITIES

1. Select one or more texts of naturally written Palauan (from a newspaper article, story, legend, personal letter, etc.) and have students look for all the modifier constructions and qualifying words used therein. For each modifier found, students should identify the type (demonstrative word, number word, state verb, and so on) and mention any important grammatical details (e.g., for numbers, what number set is involved and why, etc.). For each qualifying word found, students should indicate what class the *modified* word falls into (verb vs. noun). In an open exercise like this, it is likely that students will discover more qualifying words than those introduced in 22.9. They may also discover some new or unusual features of particular modifier constructions.

2. Play a game in which one student chooses a particular noun, and the next student is required (a) to use the proper demonstrative words with that noun and then (b) count that noun correctly from 1 to 10. Instruct students to pick unusual nouns (which may make this exercise more humorous!). The nouns should be *concrete*, however, as abstract nouns are usually not countable nor used with the full range of demonstrative words.

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Teacher's Manual

CONNECTING WORDS IN PALAUAN

GENERAL COMMENTS

1. This lesson, which covers material from *PRG* Chp. 25, presents additional uses of the connecting words (conjunctions) *me* and *e* and introduces other conjunction-like expressions such as *me a lechub* 'or' and *e ng di* 'but'. All of the grammatical processes needed to explain the structure of the sentences given in this lesson have already been studied earlier in this textbook. Therefore, although quite a lot of new data is introduced here, students should not have any conceptual difficulties with the materials.

2. After a review in 2.3.1 and 2.3.1.1–3 of previously studied uses of the connecting words *me*, *e*, and *e le*, subsequent sections provide further uses of *me* (23.2) and *e* (23.4, 23.4.1–2). In addition, sentences using *me a lechub* 'or' (23.3, 23.5.3) and *e ng di* 'but' (23.4.3) are described for the first time. Considerable space is also devoted to the internal structure and distributional features of *coordinate noun phrases* formed with the connecting word *me* (23.5, 23.5.1–2).

SPECIFIC COMMENTS

[23.1, 23.1.1–3]

1. These sections review previously studied uses of the connecting words *me*, *e*, and *e le*. In general, these connecting words (conjunctions) serve to join two (independent) clauses to form a complex sentence (see 20.1). Choose some of the specific examples given to review the use of *e le* 'because' for *reason clauses*, *me* 'and (so)' for *result clauses*, and *e* 'and (then)' for *consequent clauses*. Note, in addition, that *e* must introduce any clause that accompanies a *preposed time clause* or *time word*, as in (5–8).

[23.2]

1. In addition to being used to introduce result clauses, the connecting word *me* has a more general (neutral) function as a connector between two clauses that are structurally parallel and semantically similar (i.e., clauses that provide similar types of information of more-or-less equal importance). This general use of *me*—equivalent simply to English 'and'—is illustrated in the examples of (9).

2. Note that in addition to joining clauses, *me* can be used to join nouns (or noun phrases) into *coordinate noun phrases* (see 23.5). A somewhat specialized use of *me* in imperative sentences is illustrated in (10a–c) of 23.2.

[23.3]

1. As indicated here, the expression *me a lechub* 'or' may have its origin in a now "fossilized" condition clause containing the prefix pronoun predicate *lechub*. From the viewpoint of its usage in modern Palauan, however, it behaves just like a connecting word and joins either clauses (see 11a–c) or nouns (noun phrases), as illustrated in (29a–b) of 23.5.3.

[23.4–23.4.1]

1. In these sections, we examine new uses of the connecting word *e*:
   a. *sequential time*: the clause introduced by *e* 'and then, and afterwards', designates an event or state that follows the event or state of the preceding clause, as in (12a–c).
   b. *simultaneous time*: the clause introduced by *e* 'and, while' designates an event or state that occurs at the same time as that of the preceding clause, as in (16a–g).
2. Additional important points to be made about sequential or simultaneous time clauses introduced by *e* are as follows:
   a. If the subject of the clause introduced by *e* is identical to that of the preceding clause, it is usually not expressed (i.e., it is deleted).
   b. In sentences containing the connecting word *e*, the sequence of tenses can be *past—past*, as in (14a–d), or *past—present*, as in (15a–d). For many Palauan speakers, the two different tense sequences do not involve any contrast in meaning. When the sequence *past—present* is used, there is no difficulty of interpretation because the past tense meaning of the first verb is "read onto" the (neutral, tenseless) present tense form of the second verb. Remind students that a very similar situation occurs with *dependent clauses* introduced by *el*—e.g., *Ak milluches a babier el oba a oluches*—where the verb in the dependent clause (*oba* in this example) is normally in the present tense form even though the entire event being described is in the past tense. This issue can be reviewed in 14.1.
   c. As indicated in *Note 1*, some speakers do make a semantic distinction between the tense sequences *past—past* and *past—present*.

[23.4.2]

1. In this section, yet another major use of the connecting word *e* is introduced—namely, to express a strong *contrast* between the ideas of the joined clauses. Thus, as examples (17a–c) indicate, *e* in this usage usually corresponds to English 'but'.

[23.4.3]

1. In addition to *e*, the expression *e ng di* 'but' is used to express contrast between the ideas of the two joined clauses.

[23.5, 23.5.1–3]

1. In these sections, we review and expand on the major features of Palauan coordinate noun phrases. Students should know the following points about this topic:

   a. A coordinate noun phrase consists of two or more nouns or pronouns (noun phrases) joined by the connecting word *me* 'and'. Question words such as *ngara* and *techa* can also occur in coordinate noun phrases.

   b. The distribution of coordinate noun phrases is identical to that of simple (non-coordinate) noun phrases—i.e., they occur in subject position (both post-predicate and preposed), object position, and after the relational word *er*.

   c. As illustrated in (26–28), a coordinate noun phrase originally in post-predicate subject position can either be preposed in its entirety, or the first member of the coordinate noun phrase alone can be preposed (in which case a pronoun trace appears in the position originally occupied by the preposed element).

   d. In a manner similar to *me* 'and', the expression *me a lechub* 'or' can also join two (or more) nouns into a coordinate structure, as illustrated in (29a–b).

2. In (25a–d) the types of relational phrase involved are as follows: (25a) possessor phrase, (25b) locational phrase, (25c) directional phrase, and (25d) temporal phrase.

KEY TO STUDY QUESTIONS

[23.7: Connecting Words in Palauan: Study Questions]

[Question 1]

Note: Full sentence examples or illustrations have been omitted from most of the definitions below because they can be found readily in the text.

1. *complex sentence*: any sentence formed by joining two simpler sentences (clauses) together with such connecting words (conjunctions) as *me* 'and (so)', *e* 'and (then)', *e le* 'because', *el* (used to introduce dependent clauses), etc.

2. *connecting word* (or *conjunction*): any word that connects two simpler sentences (clauses) into one larger (complex) sentence and thereby expresses a particular relationship between the ideas represented in each original sentence. *Examples*: *me*, *e*, *e le*, *el*, etc.

3. *reason clause*: any clause introduced by the connecting word *e le* 'because' that expresses the reason for the event or state of the preceding clause.

4. *result clause*: any clause introduced by the connecting word *me* 'and (so)' that expresses a result (or consequence) of the event or state of the preceding clause.

5. *consequent clause*: the second clause of a conditional sentence. Always introduced by the connecting word *e*, the consequent clause indicates an event or state that could take place *only if* the event or state of the preceding condition clause were true.

6. *preposing of time clauses (or time words)*: the movement of an entire time clause or time word to sentence-initial position, with the connecting word *e* inserted before the original independent clause. *Examples*:

   Time clause: Ak milsa a Toki er se er a kbo er a Guam. →
   Se er a kbo er a Guam, e ak milsa a Toki. 'When I went to Guam, I saw Toki.'

   Time word: Ak milsa a Toki er a elii. →
   Elii, e ak milsa a Toki. 'Yesterday I saw Toki.'

   Note the loss of *er* when a time clause or time word is preposed.

7. *sequential time*: a relationship between two events (states, etc.) such that the first event mentioned occurs earlier in time and the second event mentioned occurs later in time. To express sequential time, we use the connecting word *e* 'and (then)' between clauses. *Example*:

   Te riruul a kall e merael. 'They prepared the food and then left.'

8. *simultaneous time*: a relationship between two events (states, etc.) such that both events occur at the same time. To express simultaneous time, we use the connecting word *e* 'and, while' between clauses. *Example*:

   Ak blechoel el menguiu er a simbung e omengur. 'I always read the newspaper while eating.'

9. *contrast*: opposition or strong difference between the ideas of two clauses. To express various degrees of contrast between clauses, Palauans use the connecting word *e* or the expression *e ng di* 'but'.

10. *coordinate noun phrase*: any noun phrase containing at least two nouns or pronouns joined by the connecting word *me* 'and'. Coordinate noun phrases show the same distributional features as simple nouns—i.e., they occur as sentence subject, sentence object, or after the relational word *er*.

11. *preposing of coordinate noun phrases*: a process by which an entire post-predicate coordinate noun phrase functioning as sentence subject can be preposed to (sentence-initial) pre-predicate position, where it replaces the original non-emphatic pronoun *te*. *Example*:

    Te mle kautoketok a Droteo me a Toki. →
    A Droteo me a Toki a mle kautoketok. 'Droteo and Toki [**topic**]—they were arguing.'

[Question 2]

The various Palauan connecting words and expressions, together with their English meanings, are as follows: *me* 'and, and so', *e* 'and then, and afterwards, and as a result, but', *e le* 'because', *me a lechub* 'or,' *e ng di* 'but', *el* 'who, which, that' (also used to introduce *dependent clauses*).

[Question 3]

Reason clauses are introduced by the two-part connecting word *e le*, while result clauses are introduced by *me*. See 23.1.1 for examples.

[Question 4]

See (5) of Question 1 above for the definition of a consequent clause. Consequent clauses are introduced by the connecting word *e*. See 23.1.2 for examples.

[Question 5]

When a time clause or time word is preposed, the connecting word *e* is inserted before the original independent clause. See (6) of Question 1 above and 23.1.3 for examples.

[Question 6]

For (a), see (9a–e) of 23.2; for (b), see (10a–c) of 23.2.

[Question 7]

The expression *me a lechub* 'or' can join two clauses or two noun phrases. It always indicates a choice or alternative—i.e., A or B. See 23.3 and 23.5.3 for examples.

[Question 8]

For (a), see (12a–b) of 23.4; for (b), see (14a–d) of 23.4.

[Question 9]

Clauses introduced by *e* can be subjectless because an omitted subject can always be identified as referring to the same person or thing as the subject of the preceding clause.

[Question 10]

Clauses introduced by *e* can have a verb in the (neutral) present tense form in such circumstances because the tense of the entire sentence (and therefore of the *e*-clause as well) can be identified from the *past tense* verb form of the preceding clause.

[Question 11]

For (a), see (16d–g) of 23.4.1; for (b), see (16a–c) of 23.4.1.

[Question 12]

Examples of *e* for contrast can be found in (17a–c) of 23.4.2; examples of *e ng di* can be found in (18a–c) of 23.4.3.

[Question 13]

See (10) of Question 1 above for a definition. Examples of coordinate noun phrases used as sentence subject, sentence object, and after the relational word *er* are given in (19) through (25a–d) of 23.5 and 23.5.1.

[Question 14]

For examples of *ker me ker* and *oingara me a oingara(ng)*, see (25c–d) of 23.5.1. It is also possible to have the coordinate noun phrases *ngara me ngara(ng)* and *techa me techa(ng)*.

[Question 15]

As shown in 23.5.2, preposing can apply either to the entire post-predicate coordinate noun phrase or simply to the first member of such a phrase. See (26–8) for a typical set of examples.

[Question 16]

Typical examples are found in (29a–b) of 23.5.3.

KEY TO EXERCISES

[23.8: Connecting Words in Palauan: Exercises]

[Exercise 1]

The connecting words used should be as follows: (a) *e le*, (b) *me*, (c) *e*, (d) *e*, and (e) *e*. Watch for the correct sequence of tenses in (c–d).

[Exercise 2]

a. Se er a kbo er a Merikel, e ak kilie er a blil a Toki.

b. A Tony me a sechelil a mlo er a mubi.

c. A Droteo a blechoel el kautoketok ngii me a Satsko.

d. A lengar er ngii a ududir, e te mo mesuub er a Hawaii.

e. A eai el klok er a tutau, e aki mo er a chei.

[Exercises 3–7]

Make sure students follow the sentence types specified and translate their sentences accurately into English.

[Exercise 8]

Sample answers are given below:

a. Tia a sidosia er a *Droteo me a Toki*.

b. A *ngelekek me a ngelekel a Satsko* a sorir el mesuub a ochur.

c. A rechad er a Siabal a menga a *ngikel me a chemang*.

d. Te blechoel el kaucheraro a *rua Droteo me a rua Tony*.

e. Ngara uchul me ng dimlak leme a *resensei me a rengalek er a skuul*?

SUGGESTIONS FOR ADDITIONAL ACTIVITIES

1. Using any text of naturally written Palauan, have students find all the complex sentences in which clauses are joined by the various connecting words and expressions studied in this lesson. The semantic function of each connecting word should be identified or explained. You may or may not wish to include the various types of clauses introduced by *el* (dependent clauses and relative clauses).

2. Have students write a story about some past experience they have had. The story should contain a good variety of complex sentences with connecting words. Students should try to express the relationships between their ideas with accurate use of reason and result clauses, consequent clauses, clauses in contrast, clauses designating sequential vs. simultaneous time, and so on.

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Teacher's Manual

THE IMPACT OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES ON PALAUAN

GENERAL COMMENTS

1. Most of the materials in this lesson are taken from an article by the author entitled "The Impact of Borrowing on Palauan". The article appeared in 1984 as part of the anthology *Studies in Micronesian Linguistics* (*Pacific Linguistics C–80*, pgs. 81–123). The editor of the anthology, Professor Byron Bender of the Department of Linguistics, University of Hawaii, has kindly given permission for the reuse of these materials.

2. The main purpose of this lesson is to show students how the Palauan language has been affected by the various languages that have come in contact with it during the course of recent Palauan history. Although Palau has had significant contact with the outside world only within the last one hundred years, the impact of foreign cultures has been relatively strong. The Palauan language in particular has absorbed many words and expressions from the languages of Palau's previous administrators: a small number of words borrowed from Spanish and German are still currently used, while the more recent influence of Japanese and English is quite great. With rapid improvements in transportation and inevitable changes on social, economic, and political fronts, contemporary Palau is welcoming visitors and residents from various Asian neighbors. Some day soon—if not already—we will observe the first borrowings into Palauan from Chinese, Korean, and various languages of the Philippines!

3. A brief historical background is presented in 24.0. You may wish to coordinate with the history or social studies teacher to have students simultaneously read more about the various periods of recent Palauan history.

4. Beginning with 24.1 and continuing through 24.3.5, we discuss all the details of Palauan loanword phonology—i.e., the issue of how sounds from foreign languages have been borrowed into Palauan. In some cases, the effects are rather minimal—e.g., (labial) consonants like "b" and "m" are taken into Palauan either without change or as the proper phonetic variant of an already established sound like B (pronounced "b" or "p" depending on the phonetic environment), as shown in 24.2.1. In other cases, certain

foreign consonants like "ch" (as in Jp. *chooshi* or Eng. *church*) or "j" (as in Jp. *aji* or Eng. *judge*) have no original Palauan counterparts and are adopted into the Palauan sound system as entirely new sounds or sound combinations such as TS or Z.

In yet other cases, the influence of a large number of borrowed words containing a particular sound has changed the distributional features of certain native Palauan phonetic variants. Most obvious is the case of Palauan NG, originally pronounced "n" only before (dental) consonants like T, D, and S in native words like *iungs*, *ngduul*, etc. (see 24.2.5 and 24.2.5.1–2). With the influx of many foreign words like Jp. *nasu* or *nori* and Eng. *nurse*, etc., the "n" pronunciation spread in Palauan to the position before vowels (now simply spelled as N in Pal. *nas*, *nori*, *nurs*, etc.), a position where it had never occurred in the native vocabulary.

Although a general review of Palauan consonants (24.2) and vowels (24.3) is presented in this lesson, students may need to return to Les. 1 to review the many small phonetic details that contribute to an overall understanding of how the Palauan sound system has been affected by foreign borrowings.

5. In 24.4–24.7.3 and 24.8–24.8.3, we observe how words borrowed from foreign languages have been absorbed into the Palauan morphological (word structure) and syntactic (grammar) systems. From 24.4.1 to 24.4.3 we discuss how words from various part-of-speech categories in the contributing languages are fit into the already established parts of speech of Palauan such as state verbs, transitive action verbs, and intransitive action verbs. In 24.5 we illustrate how borrowed nouns, just like native nouns, can serve as the basic stem for an entire set of interrelated verb forms: thus, just as the native noun *chelebed* 'whip, club, bat' serves as the stem for the transitive action verb *mechelebed* and all of its related forms (*mengelebed*, *cholebedii*, *chellebed*, *chelebedall*, etc.), so does the borrowed noun *chasuart* 'asphalt' provide the stem for the transitive action verb *mechesuart* and its related forms (*mengesuart*, *chosuertii*, *chelsuart*, *chesuertall*, etc.).

   Further, as indicated in 24.6., quite a few foreign nouns have been totally assimilated into Palauan as optionally possessed nouns, taking the full range of possessor pronoun suffixes (e.g., *taem*: *temek*, *temem*, *temel*, etc.) and undergoing the relevant processes of vowel (or vowel cluster) weakening. Finally, in 24.7–24.7.3 we see how loanwords can be used just like native stems within certain common derivational patterns—e.g., transitive or intransitive verbs derived with the prefix *ou-*, state verbs derived with the prefix *beke-*, plural nouns derived with the prefix *re-*, abstract nouns derived with the prefix *kl(e)-*, and so on.

   In 24.8.1 we look further into the question of how borrowed nouns are possessed, observing that the great majority of them actually behave as unpossessible nouns. Finally, in 24.8.2 we show how most borrowed action verbs are taken into Palauan—namely, as stems that do not participate in any derivational patterns but simply utilize the auxiliary word *mle* (rather than the infixed marker *-il-*) to form the past tense.

6. The final section of this lesson (24.9) covers the issue of semantic change and emphasizes those cases in which the original meaning of a loan source is modified when the item is borrowed into Palauan. Three main types of meaning change—narrowing, widening, and extension (shift)—are explained and illustrated.

SPECIFIC COMMENTS

[24.1–24.2]

1. While certain sounds from foreign languages are taken into Palauan without any phonetic change or effect on the Palauan sound system itself (e.g., "m", "s", etc.), others may undergo phonetic modification (e.g., Jp. "z" becomes Pal. "s" or "j") or change the overall system (e.g., adoption of "h" adds an extra sound to the native inventory of consonants).

[24.2.1]

1. Here we discuss how labial consonants like "m", "b", "p", "f", and "v" are borrowed into Palauan. While "m" always becomes Palauan M, the remaining sounds "b", "p", "f", and "v" are adopted according to the rules indicated in (3a–d)—i.e., they become the proper variant of Palauan B and are pronounced either as "b" or "p" depending on the environment.

2. *Note 5* indicates that it is sometimes difficult to determine whether a particular loanword in Palauan has its ultimate source in Japanese or English. This is because Japanese itself has borrowed heavily from English, as illustrated in the various examples given in this note.

[24.2.2]

1. In a manner similar to the labial consonants discussed in 24.2.2, the dental consonants "t" and "d" are adopted into Palauan to fit into the native pronunciation rules for T and D. Thus, as indicated in (8a–b), while "t" becomes Palauan T, "d" will be pronounced as the proper variant of Palauan D (i.e., it will sound like "d", "th" of Eng. *the*, or "th" of Eng. *thin*).

2. As is to be expected in the area of loanword vocabulary, there are some exceptions to the general patterns, as shown in *Note 8* at the end of 24.2.2.

[24.2.3]

1. When the dental (fricative) sound "s" occurs in a loanword, it is borrowed as Palauan S (see 13). In addition, the "z" sound in foreign words (mostly Japanese) is taken into Palauan as S (see 14). Finally, the (palatal fricative) "sh" sound of Eng. *she*, which does not occur in Palauan, also gets reinterpreted as Palauan S (see 15).

2. In *Note 9* we first mention the issue of Japanese silent vowels. This topic is discussed further in 24.3.4.

[24.2.3.1]

1. The borrowing of particular sounds from foreign languages results in some overt changes to the Palauan sound system—i.e., the appearance of a new consonant cluster TS ("ts") and an entirely new consonant Z ("dz").

2. The Japanese sounds "ch" and "ts" both result in the new Palauan consonant cluster TS (see 16 and 18), while the Japanese sound "j" has given rise to the new Palauan consonant Z.

3. The issue of Japanese silent vowels reappears in *Notes 10–12*.

4. Various exceptions and irregularities are mentioned in the final paragraph of 24.2.3.1.

[24.2.4]

1. Borrowing of the velar consonants "k" and "g" follows an expected pattern—i.e., they are taken into Palauan as the proper phonetic variants of Palauan K, which is pronounced as "k" or "g" depending on the environment, as indicated in (19a–c).

[24.2.5–24.2.5.4]

1. Although the "n" sound is quite marginal and restricted within the native sound system (since it occurs as a variant of NG only before dental consonants such as T, D, S, and R), it has become rather common in loanword vocabulary, particularly before vowels in syllable-initial position. Thus, the borrowing of foreign words like *nas*, *neibi*, etc., of (22) has resulted in an overall change in the distribution of the phonetic variants of NG, since "n" (spelled N in Palauan) now occurs in a wider range of environments than previously. In fact, "n" before a vowel now contrasts with the original "ng", and we even have pairs of contrasting words such as *nas* vs. *ngas*.

2. The phonetic variants of Palauan NG—i.e., "ng" and "n"—are reviewed in (23a–d). In (24) and (25) we see cases in which the foreign sounds "n" and "ng" are borrowed into Palauan and pronounced simply as the proper variants of NG (although the current spelling conventions within Palauan are somewhat inconsistent).

3. As illustrated in (26–7) of 24.2.5.3, there are numerous cases in which a word-final "n" sound of Japanese or English is borrowed into Palauan as "ng" (spelled NG). In addition, the examples of (28) show that Palauan often adds a word-final "ng" (spelled NG) when the Spanish or English loan source ends in a vowel (or *r*-sound in English). This word-final "ng" is not usually added, however, with Japanese words.

4. Finally, in 24.2.5.4 we note that an original "g" sound is usually pronounced like "ng" between vowels in the Tokyo dialect of Japanese, which has apparently contributed quite a few loanwords to Palauan. In such cases (see 29), Palauan also shows a word-internal "ng" pronunciation. Examples of Palauan word-internal "ngng" (from Japanese "n" + "g") are also provided (see 30).

[24.2.6]

1. Although a consonant like Palauan CH (glottal stop) does not occur as part of the regular sound system of the four contributing languages, vowel-initial words from Japanese and English are often borrowed into Palauan with word-initial CH, as indicated in the examples of (31).

[24.2.7]

1. As mentioned in the introductory paragraphs of this section, although Palauan has both the consonants "l" and "r", the two of them are sometimes interchanged in certain variant forms such as *merredel* vs. *merreder*. The "instability" of these two sounds is also illustrated by the fact that they are often confused and substituted for each other in loanwords. Thus, for example, an "l" sound in the contributing language is often reinterpreted in Palauan as "r", as shown in (32). Furthermore, "r" sounds in the contributing languages are sometimes even lost altogether in the Palauan counterparts (see 33).

[24.2.8]

1. Under the influence of the "h" sound (or very similar sounds) in the contributing languages, the Palauan phonetic system has been expanded by the introduction of H, a sound that was previously non-existent (or at best, very marginal) in Palauan. In addition to Spanish sources (34), words from Japanese (35) and English (36) have contributed to the current use of H in Palauan.

[24.3–24.3.1]

1. The native vowel system of Palauan is relatively simple (see 37), except for the rules that determine whether an E will be pronounced as full E or weak E. After reviewing the principles determining the distribution of Palauan full E vs. weak E, we note that a full vowel in the contributing language is usually taken into Palauan as the phonetically closest Palauan full vowel A, E, I, O, or U, except when that vowel happens to fall in an *unstressed* syllable of the Palauan word, in which case it normally undergoes reduction to *weak E*.

2. The Spanish and Japanese vowel systems are rather compatible with the basic Palauan five-vowel system, and neither of them has the complications of (unstressed) weak E. Therefore, vowels that occur in loanwords from Spanish and Japanese are normally taken

into Palauan with no phonetic change (see the many examples in 4, 6, 9, 11, etc.), although there are a few rare exceptions (see 38).

[24.3.2]

1. Because the vowel systems of German and English are much more complex than that of Palauan (or those of Spanish and Japanese), a large number of phonetically different single vowels and several diphthongs must be "forced" into the simpler Palauan vowel system. Because there are only a very few German borrowings still used in Palauan, this section concentrates on how English vowels and diphthongs are adopted into the Palauan vowel system. In (39) and (40) we see how the English vowels "open A" of *cat* and "uh" (a mid-central vowel) of *but* are reflected in Palauan.

2. We note next that English has several pairs of phonetically contrasting *tense* vs. *lax* vowels in certain positions of articulation. As illustrated in (42), the following phonetic equivalencies occur when such English vowels are borrowed into Palauan:

   a. Both English (high front) tense I (as in *beat*) and lax I (as in *bit*) become Palauan (tense) I, the only Palauan vowel in that general position of articulation.

   b. Both English (mid front) tense E (as in *bait*) and lax E (as in *bet*) become Palauan (lax) E, the only Palauan vowel in that general position of articulation.

   c. Both English (high back) tense U (as in *pool*) and lax U (as in *pull*) become Palauan (tense) U, the only Palauan vowel in that general position of articulation.

   d. In addition, English "closed O" (as in *bowl*) and "open O" (as in *ball*) exhibit the distinction between tense (for "closed O") vs. lax (for "open O"). Both English (mid back) tense O and lax O become (tense) O in Palauan, the only vowel in that general position of articulation. An example of the change from English tense O to Palauan O would be Eng. *boat* → Pal. *bos*, while cases of English lax O changing to Palauan O are found in (41).

3. In addition to the correspondences noted in (2a–d) above, some English tense vowels become Palauan long vowels or diphthongs—e.g., Eng. *keys* (with tense I) → Pal. *kiis* (with long vowel), Eng. *tape* (with tense E) → Pal. *teib* (with diphthong), and so on. Further, the English diphthongs "aw" and "ay" are borrowed into Palauan rather unpredictably, and "spelling pronunciations" can sometimes distort the expected patterns.

[24.3.3–24.3.5]

1. In certain interesting cases (24.3.3), Palauan inserts a weak E as a buffer vowel between the members of certain consonant clusters (KR, SR, etc.) that are found in the contributing languages but are not phonetically possible in Palauan.

2. In other interesting cases (24.3.4), Palauan entirely omits certain vowels in the loan source—in particular, the "silent" (devoiced) high vowels I and U of Japanese are usually completely lost during the process of borrowing (see 43–46).

3. Finally, although four out of the five native Palauan vowels can occur long ("double"), long vowels in the original Japanese loan source are surprisingly not borrowed as long vowels at all, but instead are shortened to the corresponding single full vowel (see 47).

[24.4–24.4.2]

1. When words (or expressions) are borrowed into Palauan from other languages, they are assimilated into one of the already existing Palauan part-of-speech categories. Often the process is very straightforward structurally (and semantically)—for example, most foreign nouns are simply taken into Palauan as nouns, and as such can be used in the characteristic sentence positions of nouns (sentence subject, sentence object, after the relational word *er*), as illustrated in (48a–c).

2. In other cases, foreign nouns (especially from Japanese) are reinterpreted as state verbs in Palauan (see 49–50). Furthermore, several varieties of modifying words or expressions in Japanese (all of which have distinguishing grammatical characteristics within Japanese) are "leveled" in Palauan to the category of state verb (see 51–53). Finally, as indicated in *Note 16*, a few Japanese intransitive action verbs of a particular subtype (i.e., noun stem + general action verb *suru* 'do') are also reinterpreted in Palauan as state verbs.

[24.4.3]

1. Most transitive and intransitive action verbs from Japanese and English are adopted into Palauan without any change in the part of speech (see 54–55). As noted later in 24.8.2, all of the verbs discussed in this section use the auxiliary *mle* to indicate past tense (rather than the infixed past tense marker *-il-/-l-*).

[24.5–24.6]

1. This section is particularly interesting because it shows how Palauan has totally assimilated certain foreign words and used them as the stems for forming entire networks (linguistic term: paradigms) of interrelated forms. The behavior of a native stem like *chelebed* (see 56) is paralleled exactly by certain borrowed stems such as *kiis*, *chasuart*, and so on (see 57–61). This is a good opportunity for students to review some of the fundamentals of Palauan verb formation—in particular, the structural and semantic relationships among such forms as the basic form, imperfective form, perfective forms, resulting state form, and expected state form.

2. Furthermore, quite a few nouns from contributing languages are assimilated fully into Palauan to the extent that they have become optionally possessed nouns—i.e., stems like *taor*, *dangs*, *taem*, etc., of (63) can take the full range of possessor pronoun suffixes (e.g., for *taem*: *temek*, *temem*, *temel*, etc.), and the expected rules of vowel and vowel cluster reduction apply regularly. See (64) for a list of foreign stems that become optionally possessed nouns in Palauan with the addition of a "buffer" syllable *-leng-* or *-(e)ng-* (e.g., *tama*: *tamalengel*).

[24.7–24.7.3]

1. In these sections we illustrate how nouns borrowed from the four contributing languages can function as stems in a wide variety of Palauan derivational patterns. The major derivational patterns covered are (transitive or intransitive) action verbs derived with the prefix *ou-*, state verbs derived with the prefix *beke-*, human nouns pluralized with the prefix *re-* (or *rechi-* for nationalities), abstract nouns formed with the prefix *kle-*, and reciprocal verbs derived with the prefix *kau-*.

[24.8–24.8.2]

1. The interaction of loanwords and various patterns of Palauan grammar can be seen in two interesting areas—noun possession and the past tense forms of borrowed action verbs.

2. Although some foreign nouns have been assimilated into Palauan as optionally possessed nouns, as seen in the examples of (63–64) in 24.6, most borrowed nouns in fact still retain a certain "impermeability" and remain unpossessible in Palauan. Thus, to show possession with such nouns, we must use a noun phrase of possession containing a possessor phrase introduced by the relational word *er*, as in *stoa er a Droteo* 'Droteo's store' and the other examples of (69).

3. Even though a few action verbs derived from foreign stems (see 57–61 of 24.5) participate in a full set of interrelated verb forms and infix *-il-* to indicate the past tense (e.g., *mengesuart*: *milengesuart*), the great majority of transitive and intransitive action verbs of foreign origin "reject" past tense formation with *-il-* and instead use the native pattern for *state verbs*—namely, the auxiliary *mle*. Thus, we have forms like *harau*: *mle harau*, *siraber*: *mle siraber*, and so on.

[24.9]

1. Although most foreign words are borrowed into Palauan with no change of meaning, quite a few others undergo some type of semantic change. The three main types of semantic change—narrowing, widening, and extension (or shift)—are explained in detail and illustrated with numerous examples.

KEY TO STUDY QUESTIONS

[24.11: The Impact of Foreign Languages on Palauan: Study Questions]

[Question 1]

1. ***Loan Source***: a word (or expression) in a foreign language that has been borrowed into Palauan. In some cases, the pronunciation, grammatical function, or meaning of a loan source item is changed when it is adopted into Palauan. Loan source items contributing to Palauan come from four major languages—Spanish, German, Japanese, and English. Examples are found everywhere in this lesson.

2. ***Loanword***: any word in Palauan that has been borrowed from a foreign language. Loanwords often show unusual features of pronunciation, indicating a lack of phonetic compatibility between Palauan and the contributing language. In addition, many loanwords have been "Palauanized" in the sense that they have been forced into native derivational and grammatical patterns. Examples are found everywhere in this lesson.

3. ***Palauanization***: the process by which a word (or expression) borrowed into Palauan from a foreign language is made to conform to Palauan phonetic, derivational (word-structure), and grammatical patterns. Here is an example in each category:

   a. ***phonetic***: a word like Ger. *Grammophon* 'phonograph' is changed radically to fit Palauan phonetic patterns, resulting in *karmobol*.

   b. ***derivational***: a word like Eng. *time* becomes Palauan *taem* and functions as an optionally possessed noun (*taem*: *temek*, *temem*, *temel*, etc.) that takes possessor pronoun suffixes just like all other optionally possessed nouns.

   c. ***grammatical***: a word like Japanese *shiraberu* 'to investigate' is adopted into Palauan as a transitive action verb *siraber* and as such occurs commonly with a sentence object—e.g., *A bulis a mle siraber er tia el tekoi*. 'The police investigated this matter.' Note also that *siraber* uses the auxiliary word *mle* to indicate the past tense.

4. ***Full E vs. Weak E, Stressed Syllable vs. Unstressed Syllable***: two different pronunciations of the vowel E that occur in native Palauan words as well as loanwords. *Weak E* (as in English "the") appears only in *unstressed* syllables—i.e., syllables that do not share the prominence or force of the word's *stressed* syllable (e.g., in *re-KAS* 'mosquito' the E is weak). By contrast, *full E* (as in English "red") usually occurs in the *stressed* syllable of a word—i.e., the loudest, strongest, most prominent syllable (e.g., in *me-CHED* 'shallow', the second E is full). A full vowel A, E, I, O, or U is often weakened (or reduced) to a weak E when unstressed (e.g., the full E of the independent noun *ker* 'question' becomes weak E when unstressed in the possessed form *ker-IK* 'my question') as part of the general processes of vowel (and vowel cluster) weakening

(see 12 below). The distribution of full E vs. weak E described here also applies to loanwords, as indicated by these examples:

a. The original full vowel A of Ger. *Maschine* 'machine' becomes weak E when unstressed in Pal. *me-SIL*.

b. The original full vowel E of Jp. *shiken* 'test' remains full E because it is stressed (as the only vowel) in Pal. *skeng*.

5. ***Tense vs. Lax Articulation*** (for English vowels): two different pronunciations of a given vowel within a particular area of articulation. For example, the *tense* I of "beat" is stronger (held tighter and somewhat longer) than the *lax* I of "bit", which is weaker (not as long or tightly held). The other pairs of English vowels showing the tense vs. lax contrast are as follows:

   a. tense E as in "bait" vs. lax E as in "bet"

   b. tense U as in "pool" vs. lax E as in "pull"

   c. tense (closed) O as in "low" vs. lax (open) O as in "law" (see Specific Comment 2–d for sec. 24.3.2 above)

   Because Palauan has no phonetic contrast between tense vs. lax vowels, but only one major vowel in any given position, the English tense vs. lax distinction is "neutralized" in loanwords. Thus, for example, both tense I and lax I of English become I in Palauan (which happens to be phonetically tense)—e.g., Eng. *sheep* (with tense I) → Pal. *sib*, and Eng. *bid* (with lax I) → Pal. *bid*.

6. ***Part-of-Speech Category***: the grammatical category (group, class) into which a particular word fits according to such criteria as its internal structure, derivational properties, and distributional features. The major parts of speech in Palauan are nouns, verbs (action vs. state), the relational word *er*, and so on. Because the part-of-speech categories of Palauan do not correspond precisely with those of the four contributing languages, changes in the part-of-speech affiliation often occur during the borrowing process. Thus, several categories of modifying words in Japanese (see 8 below) are all "neutralized" into the category of Palauan *state verb*. In addition, the part-of-speech category is often switched when borrowing occurs—for example, although most foreign nouns are also taken into Palauan as nouns, quite a few nevertheless get adopted into the Palauan state verb category (e.g., *kama* 'sickle, hook' is a noun in Japanese, but it is now used in Palauan as the state verb *kamang* '(arm) crippled, twisted', with an obvious shift in meaning as well).

7. ***Action Verb vs. State Verb***: two different types of Palauan verbs that can be distinguished from each other both in terms of meaning and grammatical characteristics. Action verbs, most of which form the past tense with the infix *-il-* (or *-l-*), indicate actions,

activities, or events. They can be transitive (involving a sentence object) or intransitive (involving a subject only). By contrast, state verbs, which use the auxiliary *mle* to form the past tense, describe states, conditions (characteristics, features, etc.). The correspondence between various part-of-speech categories in the four contributing languages and the categories of action verb vs. state verb in Palauan is rather complicated. As will be seen in (8) below, words or expressions from several categories of modifying words in Japanese are all borrowed into Palauan as state verbs, but even some Japanese nouns (see the examples of 49 in 24.4.1) and intransitive verbs (see *Note 16* in 24.4.2) are reinterpreted in Palauan as state verbs. Further, most transitive and intransitive action verbs from Japanese and English are taken into Palauan without any change in grammatical category (see 54–55 in 24.4.3), although there are some exceptions (see the final paragraph of 24.4.3).

8. ***Modifying Word*** (in Japanese): any of several major groups of Japanese words that precede and modify (describe) nouns. The important types of modifying words (see 24.4.2 for details) are as follows:

   a. *adjectives*: e.g., *usui* 'weak', as in *usui koohii* 'weak coffee'

   b. *nominal adjectives (NA-type)*: e.g., *kantan* 'simple', as in *kantan na koto* 'simple matter'

   c. *nominal adjectives (NO-type)*: e.g., *futsuu* 'usual', as in *futsuu no koto* 'usual matter'

   d. *grammatically complex expressions in -TE IRU*—e.g., *tsukarete iru* 'tired', as in *tsukarete iru sensei* 'tired teacher'

   The four categories of Japanese modifying words listed above are all borrowed into Palauan as state verbs.

9. ***Palauan Verb Forms***: interrelated forms of Palauan verbs built upon a single stem by means of a well-developed system of prefixes, infixes, and suffixes. Not only native Palauan words but also words borrowed from foreign languages can serve as the stems for various interrelated verb forms, as indicated in the chart below:

	Native Stem: *chelebed* 'whip, club, etc.'	Borrowed Stem: *chasuart* 'asphalt'
a. Basic	mechelebed	mechesuart
b. Imperfective	mengelebed	mengesuart
c. Perfective	cholebedii	chosuertii
d. Resulting state	chellebed	chelsuart
e. Expected state	chelebedall	chesuertall

See (56) and (58) in 24.5 for translations of the above forms (in addition to past tense forms), and consult earlier lessons for definitions of the various forms (basic, imperfective, etc.).

10. ***(Optionally) Possessed Noun vs. Unpossessible Noun***: two classes of Palauan nouns that show possession differently. Optionally possessed nouns like *kar*: *keruk*, *kerum*, *kerul*, etc., constitute independent stems to which the various possessor suffixes (*-uk* 'my', *-um* 'your (sg.)', *-ul* 'his, her, its', and so on) are added. By contrast, unpossessible nouns like *delmerab* 'room' do not take possessor suffixes and must indicate possession by means of a special type of relational phrase called a possessor phrase (as in *delmerab er ngak* 'my room', *delmerab er kau* 'your (sg.) room', *delmerab er ngii* 'his/her room', and so on). A fairly large number of Palauan loanword nouns (mostly from English) have been so assimilated into Palauan that they have become optionally possessed nouns (see the examples of 63). In addition, quite a few loanword nouns from Japanese and English are transformed into optionally possessed nouns in Palauan but show a "buffer" syllable *-leng-* or *-(e)ng-* between the stem and the possessor suffixes (see the examples of 64). Except for these two groups, the great majority of nouns borrowed into Palauan from the four contributing languages in fact function as unpossessible nouns—e.g., *sensei*: *sensei er ngak*, *sensei er kau*, *sensei er ngii*, and so on.

11. ***Noun Phrase of Possession, Possessor Phrase***: any phrase that indicates possession and consists of the item possessed followed by the possessor is a noun phrase of possession (e.g., *blil a Droteo* 'Droteo's house'). If the item possessed happens to be represented by an unpossessible noun, as most borrowed nouns are, then we must used a possessor phrase (relational word *er* + noun/pronoun) to indicate the possessor, as in *sensei er kid* 'our (incl.) teacher', *stoa er a Droteo* 'Droteo's store', and so on.

12. ***Processes of Vowel Weakening***: phonetic processes in which full vowels, double vowels, and vowel clusters (diphthongs) are reduced (weakened) in unstressed syllables. Normally, full vowels are reduced to weak E when unstressed, double vowels are shortened to the corresponding single vowel, and vowel clusters are simplified by the loss of one of the original vowels. The various processes of vowel weakening apply to quite a few borrowed words, as shown below:

    a. *reduction of single full vowel to weak E (when unstressed)*:
    baks→*beksel* (bek-SEL), *bos*→*besengel* (be-se-NGEL)

    b. *shortening of double vowel to corresponding single vowel (when unstressed)*:
    kiis→*kisel* (ki-SEL), *skuul*→*skulek* (sku-LEK)

    c. *simplification of vowel cluster to one of the original vowels (when unstressed)*:
    taem→*temek* (te-MEK), *baeb*→*bebel* (be-BEL)

13. ***Prefix*** (used to derive nouns and verbs): a morpheme (meaning-bearing unit) added before a stem in word-initial position to derive a new class of words. Loanword stems regularly take native Palauan prefixes to derive new words, as illustrated below:

    a. *ou-* to derive a verb from a noun: *dengua* 'telephone'—*oudengua* 'to have a telephone, make a telephone call'

    b. *beke-* to derive a state verb from a noun: *kosui* 'perfume'— *bekekosui* 'smelling of perfume'

    c. *re-* to derive a plural noun: *sensei* 'teacher'—*resensei* 'teachers'

    d. *kl(e)-* to derive an abstract noun from another noun: *sensei* 'teacher'—*klsensei* 'the experience of being a teacher'

    e. *kau-* to derive a reciprocal verb from a noun: *mondai* 'problem'—*kaumondai* 'to dispute, argue over'

14. ***Narrowing***: a process of meaning change in which a loanword having a rather general meaning in the contributing language is used in the borrowing language to indicate a more specific member, subtype, or subclass of the original group or category described.

    Example: Jp. *bangoo* is a general word for 'number', but Palauan *bangngo* specifically indicates an identification number (e.g., a door number, a number in some sequence such as the batting order in baseball, etc.).

15. ***Widening***: a process of meaning change in which a loanword having a rather specific (or specialized) meaning in the contributing language is used in the borrowing language with a wider, more general meaning, sometimes referring to the entire class of which the original item is a part or member.

    Example: Eng. *rum*, a specific type of liquor, is generalized in Palauan *rrom* to refer to liquor in general (i.e., any type of liquor at all).

16. ***Extension***: a process of meaning change (also called *shift*) in which a term originally representing one member of a given group or category is extended or shifted to refer to another co-member of that group or category. Extension can sometimes involve a rather imprecise meaning shift from the original item to a referent with similar or related features.

    Examples: Jp. *budoo* 'grape' refers in Pal. *budo* to another type of fruit—i.e., 'Panama cherry'; Eng. *flour* has been adopted into Palauan as *blauang* 'bread', with the meaning shifted to a related idea (i.e., *bread* is a product whose main ingredient is *flour*).

[Question 2]

The countries and languages are Spain (Spanish), Germany (German), Japan (Japanese), and the United States (English). See 24.0 for details of the historical periods.

[Question 3]

Students' opinions may vary between Japanese and English. Both of these languages have contributed large numbers of vocabulary words to Palauan. Many Japanese words have been assimilated into Palauan derivationally and grammatically. Now, of course, the Japanese period is over, and the Japanese component within Palauan may begin to diminish gradually as the English component continues to increase.

[Question 4]

Under the influence of foreign borrowings, Palauan has introduced or developed the individual consonants H, F, and Z, as well as the consonant cluster TS. Foreign borrowings have also caused the expanded use of the consonants P and N, sounds already in Palauan as variants of other sounds.

[Question 5]

All the phonetic details are described and illustrated in 24.2.1. See in particular (3a–d).

[Question 6]

As indicated in *Note 5* of 24.2.1, Japanese itself has borrowed a lot of words from English. Therefore, it is sometimes difficult to determine the ultimate source. See (a–g) of *Note 5*.

[Question 7]

All the phonetic details are described and illustrated in 24.2.2. See in particular (8a–b).

[Question 8]

Foreign sounds like "s", "sh", and "z" usually are taken into Palauan as S ("s"). See 24.2.3 for details and examples.

[Question 9]

The nonnative Palauan sound TS ("ts") comes from "ch" or "ts" in Japanese or English. See the examples in (16), (18), and *Note 10* of 24.2.3.1. Furthermore, the nonnative Palauan sound Z ("z") comes from "j" in Japanese (where it occurs in the syllables JA, JI, JU and JO). See the examples of (17) in 24.2.3.1.

[Question 10]

All the phonetic details are described and illustrated in 24.2.4. See in particular (19a–c).

[Question 11]

In the native sound system, the sound "n" is just a variant of NG that occurs before the small group of consonants T, D, S, and R (as in *ngduul* 'mangrove clam', *iungs* 'island', etc., where the spelling NG is used in spite of the "n" pronunciation). In borrowed words, however, the distribution of the sound "n" is much wider, since it occurs in syllable-initial position (as in *nas*, *neibi*, etc.). More details can be found in 24.2.5 and 24.2.5.1–2. See in particular (23a–d) of 24.2.5.2.

[Question 12]

In some cases, an "ng" sound in the Palauan word corresponds to an "ng" sound in the loan source, as indicated in the examples of (25) in 24.2.5.2. In other cases, however, we do not have such a direct correspondence. Thus, in the examples of (26) and (27) in 24.2.5.3, Palauan has substituted a word-final NG ("ng") for a word-final "n" sound in the original Japanese or English word, while in the examples of (28) Palauan has introduced a word-final NG where none was present in the original Spanish or English loan source.

[Question 13]

As described in 24.2.5.4, Palauan word-internal NG ("ng") and NGNG (long "ng") have both developed from similar pronunciations in the standard Tokyo dialect of Japanese.

[Question 14]

As indicated in 24.2.6, the major source of (word-initial) CH in loanwords is vowel-initial words in Japanese and English. Typical examples are given in (31).

[Question 15]

Because the "l" and "r" sounds are somewhat "unstable" in the native sound system of Palauan (even substituting for each other in certain variant forms), it is hard to predict how they will turn out when borrowed from foreign languages. In fact, these two sounds are often switched during the borrowing process, as indicated in the examples of (32) in 24.2.7. In addition, original English "r" is sometimes lost in various positions in the corresponding Palauan word, as shown in (33) of 24.2.7.

[Question 16]

The nonnative Palauan sound "h" (spelled H) comes from various "h"-like sounds in Spanish, Japanese, and English. In addition, the Japanese syllable FU is usually pronounced "hu" in Palauan. See 24.2.8 for details and examples.

[Question 17]

The Palauan vowel system is quite simple in that it contains only five major vowel sounds (A, E, I, O, and U) and one other vowel sound (weak E). In this regard, it is rather compatible with the simple vowel systems of Spanish and Japanese (which, however, do not have a weak E sound). By contrast, the sound systems of German and English are much more complex than Palauan and contain up to twelve different vowel sounds in some dialects, as well as several diphthongs. English (as well as German) has contrasts between tense and lax vowels (e.g., the tense I of "beat" vs. the lax I of "bit") which do not occur at all in the Palauan vowel system.

[Question 18]

In the native Palauan sound system, weak E can occur only in unstressed syllables, while full E usually occurs in stressed syllables (although there are certain cases where it can occur in unstressed syllables as well). See the discussion in 24.3.

[Question 19]

English tense vowels are stronger, tighter, and somewhat longer than the corresponding lax vowels. English a has contrast between tense vs. lax vowels in various positions of articulation—e.g., (high front) tense I as in "beat" vs. lax I as in "bit", (high back) tense U as in "pool" vs. lax U as in "pull", and so on. Since Palauan has no distinction between tense vs. lax vowels, but only one vowel in any given position of articulation, the English tense vs. lax distinction simply gets neutralized in Palauan loanwords from English. Numerous examples can be found in (42a–c) of 24.3.2.

[Question 20]

As explained in 24.3.3, Palauan shows an extra weak E in certain loanwords in order to break up word-initial consonant clusters like KR, SR, and DR, which are not acceptable in Palauan. Numerous examples are given within the text of 24.3.3.

[Question 21]

The Japanese vowels I and U are usually omitted in the Palauan counterpart. In general, we can predict that this will happen when I and U occur between such Japanese consonant sounds as "k", "s", "sh", "h", "ch", "ts" (in linguistic terms: all voiceless sounds), or in word-final position following one of these consonants. Examples are found in (43–45) of 24.3.4. In (46) we find that U can also be deleted after R in word-final position.

[Question 22]

Even though Palauan itself has long ("double") vowels, surprisingly enough Palauan adopts all long Japanese vowels as the corresponding short vowel. See (47) of 24.3.5 for examples.

[Question 23]

Many foreign nouns are, of course, simply borrowed as nouns in Palauan as well (e.g., Jp. *sensei*—Pal. *sensei*, Eng. *store*—Pal. *stoang*, etc.). However, as indicated in 24.4.1, quite a few foreign nouns are adopted into Palauan as state verbs (see the examples of 49 and 50).

[Question 24]

As indicated in 24.4.2, at least four types of Japanese modifying words or expressions become state verbs in Palauan—i.e., Japanese adjectives, nominal adjectives with *na*, nominal adjectives with *no*, and various descriptive (stative) expressions in *-te iru*. Further details and examples are provided in 24.4.2.

[Question 25]

Normally, transitive and intransitive action verbs from Japanese and English are borrowed into Palauan with no change in grammatical category (see 54 and 55 of 24.4). There are, however, a few exceptional cases where a Japanese intransitive verb or expression is reinterpreted as transitive in Palauan (e.g., Jp. (intransitive) *ki ga tsuku* 'to be aware of' vs. Pal. (transitive) *kingatsku* 'to notice').

[Question 26]

The systematic use of certain loanwords as Palauan verb stems is illustrated thoroughly in 24.5, examples (57–61). A loanword stem like *kiis* (from Eng. *keys*) or *sebel* (from Eng. *shovel*) can be used to derive an interrelated set of verb forms (basic, imperfective, perfective, resulting state, and expected state).

[Question 27]

The Palauanization of certain nouns of foreign origin is shown in 24.6, where we see how such nouns function as the stems of Palauan optionally possessed nouns. Nouns such as those listed in (63) and (64) take possessor pronoun suffixes, and the stems themselves are affected by the usual processes of vowel weakening (e.g., reduction of full vowels to weak E, shortening of long vowels, etc.).

[Question 28]

Various loanword stems can enter the derivational patterns indicated. All of these are illustrated in 24.7 and 24.7.1–3.

[Question 29]

With foreign noun stems that have not been Palauanized (i.e., that cannot take possessor pronoun suffixes), we express possession by means of a noun phrase of possession containing a possessor phrase introduced by *er* (e.g., *sensei er ngak* 'my teacher'). See 24.8.1 for discussion and examples.

[Question 30]

While a few action verbs derived from foreign stems use the past tense infix *-il-* (as in *mengesuart*: *milengesuart*), most action verbs of foreign origin cannot be changed in form at all and therefore use the auxiliary word *mle* to form the past tense. See 24.8.2 for discussion and examples.

[Question 31]

The three major types of meaning change that can occur during the process of borrowing are narrowing, widening, and extension (or shift). These are all explained and illustrated in 24.9 and in Definitions 14–16 of Question 1 above.

KEY TO EXERCISES

[24.12: The Impact of Foreign Languages on Palauan: Exercises]

[Exercise 1]

Sample answers:

adios: Sp. *adiós*. Very little phonetic change has occurred. The "d" of Spanish (pronounced like "th" of Eng. *the*) becomes D in Palauan (pronounced either "d" or like "th" of Eng. *the*).

dolmers: Ger. *Dolmetscher*. The ending of the German word has been considerably distorted in Palauan, with two German syllables becoming one Palauan syllable MERS. Note that the "ch" sound represented by the Ger. *tsch* spelling simply becomes Pal. S ("s"). In addition, the relative positions of R and S in the Palauan word show a switch from the original German item.

Siabal: Eng. *Japan*. The Eng. "j" sound has become S ("s") in Palauan, and the "n" has been reinterpreted as (confused with) Palauan L (see 24.2.7). Note that the first syllable "ja" becomes Pal. SIA (with a diphthong).

bengngos: Jp. *bengoshi*. The Palauan double NG (pronounced like a long "ng") comes from a similar sound in the original Japanese word, where the syllabic structure is *ben-go-shi* and the "g" becomes "ng" in Tokyo dialect (see 24.2.5.4). In addition, the final I of the original Japanese word is almost silent (see 24.3.4) and is therefore omitted in the Palauan pronunciation.

Biskor: Eng. *Peace Corps*. Word-initial "p" of Eng. *peace* is pronounced "b" in Palauan, the expected word-initial variant of Pal. B. Although the "i" sound of Eng. *peace* is tense, its Palauan counterpart I is lax, etc. The two English words seem to have been reinterpreted as a single word in Palauan.

[Exercise 2]

Sample answers:

chikes: Jp. *ikesu* 'fish preserve'. The meanings of Pal. *chikes*—i.e., 'place for storing live bait or fish in boat' or 'net for holding caught fish (kept outside boat)'—indicate that extension has taken place. It is possible to see an element of narrowing in both of these meanings as well.

kombalii: Eng. *company*. While Pal. *kombalii* preserves the meaning of Eng. *company*, it also has some other meanings that involve extension—i.e., 'group of people who cooperate in preparing food' and 'food (prepared for special occasion) by cooperative effort'. The first meaning could also be interpreted as narrowing (since it designates a very specific type of group), while the second meaning is a very clear example of extension (i.e., the focus changes from the "preparers" to the "item prepared").

chazinomoto: Jp. *ajinomoto* (brand name of flavor-enhancing product). This is a clear example of widening because a very specific Japanese product has come to be used generally in Palauan to refer to monosodium glutamate, a flavor enhancer added to food.

chanzeng: Jp. *anzen* 'safety'. The meaning change seems to involve both narrowing and extension, since the general idea of "safety" in Jp. *anzen* is applied to a very specific item in Pal. *chanzeng*, which refers to a razor blade (safety razor).

kurob: Eng. *glove*. Narrowing has occurred because Pal. *kurob* usually means 'baseball glove'.

[Exercise 3]

Sample answers:

bento:	optionally possessed: *bentelengel* (note buffer syllable *-leng-*)
kahol:	optionally possessed: *kaselengel* (note unusual change of original Sp. "h" sound to Pal. S)
kai:	unpossessible: *kai er ngii*
singio:	unpossessible: *singio er ngii*
tsios:	optionally possessed: *tsioselengel* (note buffer syllable *-leng-*)

[Exercise 4]

Sample answers:

kitsingai: A ngelekem a mla mo kitsingai er a omelim el rrom.
'Your child has gotten obsessed with drinking.'

skarister: A merredelam a kmal skarister el chad, me ng diak lolim a rrom.
'Our (excl.) leader is a very serious/conservative person, so he doesn't drink any liquor.'

chauanai: Te diak lsal chauanai a Droteo me a bechil.
'Droteo and his wife aren't very well suited for each other.'

kangkeister: A ngelekem a locha mle kangkeister er se el tekoi.
'Perhaps your child had something to do with that incident.'

chirochiro: Te mle chirochiro a rengelekel a Toki.
'Toki's children were born of different fathers.'

[Exercise 5]

Sample answers:

mengesuart: Te mla chosuertii a rael el mo er a did.
'They have paved (with asphalt) the road to the bridge.'

seiko: Ke mle seiko er a urerem?
'Did you succeed in your work?'

kotouar: Ng mle soak el mo er a Hawaii, e ng di a demak a mle kotouar.
'I wanted to go to Hawaii, but my father refused.'

tsiui: Ke mo tsiui er a blekerdelem!
'Watch your behavior!'

mengelebus: A bulis a mo kulebsengii a buik el silsebii a blai.
'The police are going to put in jail the boy who burned down the house.'

[Exercise 6]

Sample answers:

bokket er a mlai: 'glove compartment of car' (*bokket*, from Eng. *pocket*, is narrowed in meaning in this expression)

blil a babier: 'bookcase' (Pal. *blai* 'house' is extended in this expression to mean something like 'container' or 'holder'; and *babier*, from Ger. *Papier* 'paper', is shifted to mean 'book')

soal a mondai (el chad):	'(person who is) prone to complaining' (this expression means, literally, 'likes problems', but is extended to the idea of complaining about problems)
bekemilk:	'smell(ing) of milk' (the prefix *beke-*, used to refer to smells, is associated with the English stem *milk*)
songngai er a mekemad:	'war damages' (this is a noun phrase of possession with a straightforward interpretation derived from the meaning of Jp. *songai* '(financial) loss' and Pal. *mekemad* 'war')

SUGGESTIONS FOR ADDITIONAL ACTIVITIES

1. Find any text of naturally written Palauan (a letter, story, newspaper article, official document, etc.) and locate all the foreign borrowings in it. For each borrowing that you discover, pronounce carefully and correct the spelling if necessary; then, give a clear description of the word's meaning. Use the *NPED* or some other source and try to identify the original word in the contributing language. Indicate anything interesting or unusual about the word's derivational structure and/or grammatical usage.

2. The purpose of this activity is similar to that of the activity above, except that the source should be spoken Palauan. Listen for a period of time to two or more people having an everyday conversation. As you observe the conversation, write down as many words of foreign origin that you can identify. Then, for each word in your list, determine the correct spelling and the meaning, and indicate any interesting features of internal structure or grammatical usage. Use a variety of sources to find the original word in the contributing language.