

HAWAIIAN MORPHEMES: IDENTIFICATION, USAGE, AND APPLICATION IN
INFORMATION RETRIEVAL

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Table of Contents

Abstract	1
List of Tables	2
List of Figures	3
Chapter I	4
1.1 Background: General Description of the Hawaiian Language	4
1.1.1 Hawaiian Morphology	5
1.1.2 Hawaiian Information Retrieval	8
1.1.3 Importance of improving Hawaiian Information Retrieval Systems	9
1.4 Theory	13
1.4.1 Morpheme-Based Morphological Theory	13
1.4.2 Morpheme-Based Information Retrieval	14
1.3 Dictionary as Data	15
1.4 Significance of Problem	15
1.5 Research Questions	16
1.6 Contributions	16
Chapter II: Data Development	18
2.1 Relevant Literature Dictionary as data	18
2.2 Hawaiian Dictionaries	19
2.2.1 Review of Major Hawaiian Dictionaries	19
2.3 The Pukui and Elbert Hawaiian Dictionary	21
2.3.1 Comprehensiveness	21
2.3.2 Orthography	22
2.3.3 Accessible & Commonplace Amongst Present Day Hawaiian Speakers	23
2.4 Data Collection	24
2.4.1 Forms of the Pukui and Elbert Hawaiian Dictionary	24
2.5 Data Processing	25
2.5.1 Isolate Headwords	26
2.5.2 Non-modern orthography and Proper Nouns	28
2.5.3 Consolidation of orthographically similar terms	29
2.5.4 Removal of Bound Morphemes & Manual Inspection	30
2.6 Final processed dictionary data	30
Chapter III: Morpheme Identification	32
3.1 Relevant Literature	32

3.1.1 Methods to identify morphemes	32
3.1.3 Significance of Morphemes	33
3.2 Hawaiian Morpheme Annotation	34
3.2.1 Semi-automated greedy analysis system - First Pass	34
3.2.2 Semi-automated greedy analysis system - Second Pass	39
3.2.3 SAGMAS Resources, Limitations, and Improvements	42
3.2.3 SAGMAS Errors	44
3.2.3.1 Reduplication	44
3.2.3.2 Roots	45
3.2.3.2.1 Function words & Orthography	45
3.2.3.2.2 Potential prefixes	46
3.2.3.3 Loanwords	47
3.2.3.4 Prefixes	48
3.2.3.5 Suffixes	48
3.2.4 Conclusion	49
3.3 Comprehensive List of Morphemes	49
3.3.1 Length Distribution	49
3.3.2 Morpheme Certainty	51
3.3.3 Morpheme Length	53
3.3.4 Root Character Length Distribution	54
3.3.5 Affix Length Character Distribution	55
Conclusion	56
Chapter IV: Morphological Structure	57
4.1 Relevant Literature	57
4.1.1 Network Theory	57
4.1.2 Morpheme Typology	58
4.1.3 Diacritical Markings	58
4.2 Network Analysis for Word Morphology	59
4.2.1 Network Analysis of Hawaiian Morphological Structure	60
4.2.2 Highest Degree Morphemes	61
4.2.2.1 In-Degree Morphemes	63
4.2.2.2 Out-Degree Morphemes	64
4.2.3 Degree Distribution and Zipf's Law	65
4.3 Hawaiian Morpheme to Word Ratio	67

4.4 Morpheme Ambiguity due to Diacritic Markers	69
Chapter V: Morphemes and Information Retrieval	72
5.1 Relevant Literature	72
5.1.1 Hawaiian Information Retrieval	72
5.1.2 Information Retrieval	73
5.2 Query Expansion with Morphological Segmentation	75
5.2.1 Stemming and Query Parsing	75
5.2.2 Morphological Parsing of a Query Phrase	76
5.3 Morphological Parsing and Indexing of Documents	77
Conclusion	78
Chapter VI: Final Conclusions and Future Work	79
References	83
Appendix	95
Appendix A: Data Collection and Cleaning Script	96
Appendix B: Token Frequency Script	98
Appendix C: Dictionary Headwords	100
Appendix D: Morphemes - Roots & Affixes	380
Appendix E: Morpheme Edge List	461

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Abstract

The grammar of the endangered Polynesian language, Hawaiian, has been studied and documented in print starting as early as 1838. Previous studies on Hawaiian morphology analyzed only affixes. Although the significance of roots were repeatedly acknowledged by Hawaiian grammar scholars, there are no previous studies on Hawaiian roots. The lack of a generalizable, comprehensive morphologically annotated lexicon of Hawaiian words that includes a tagged set of roots and affixes impedes the development of morpheme-based information retrieval systems and word-level pedagogical approaches. Historical documents are key for endangered language revitalization. Preservation and revitalization efforts of endangered languages have focused on documenting, digitizing, and archiving historical documents with minimal research on digital information retrieval. A morphologically annotated lexicon has the potential to improve digital information retrieval systems.

In this dissertation, the first comprehensive list of Hawaiian roots is identified through the development and implementation of a semi-automated morphological analysis system for Hawaiian. Examination of the identified morphemes includes the first statistical analysis of Hawaiian roots, affixes, and their relationships, producing profiles of Hawaiian morphemes. Finally, a conceptual model for Hawaiian information retrieval optimization is outlined based on the morpheme analyses. This dissertation broadens the knowledge of Hawaiian morphology, adds to digital information retrieval techniques for endangered languages, and contributes a method for morphological annotation of low-resource languages.

List of Tables

Table 1. Hawaiian Prefixes & Suffixes modified from Elbert and Pukui (1979, pp. 65, 79).....	6
Table 2. Example of semi-automated greedy analysis system – word level, iteration by iteration. Starting with all affixes as described from the Pukui and Elbert (PE) dictionary.	38
Table 3. Summary list of morphemes categorized by morpheme length.	51
Table 4. Morpheme length distribution descriptive statistics	53
Table 5. Example edge list based on morpheme network in Table 8	60
Table 6. Top 12 highest degree, in-degree and out-degree morphemes	62
Table 7. Chi-Squared Test of Independence between Morpheme degree and Zipf’s Law.....	66
Table 8. Morphemes in the word <i>hīnewanewahīnewanewaū</i> and their associated definitions from Pukui and Elbert.....	68
Table 9. Frequency count of morpheme variants.....	69
Table 10. Morphemes with five variants due to diacritic markings.	70
Table 11. Ambiguity due diacritical and Morpheme Segmentation	71
Table 12. Stemming associated with morphological query parsing	75
Table 13. Morphological query parsing of a sentence.....	76

List of Figures

Figure 1. Theoretical Hawaiian Information Retrieval Flow of Transliteration Algorithms	12
Figure 2. Data processing to isolate dictionary headwords for morphological analysis	26
Figure 3. Semi-automated greedy analysis system (SAGMAS) flow chart	35
Figure 4. Greedy morphological analysis - Second Pass Flow Chart.....	41
Figure 5. Breakdown of error types of SAGMAS.	44
Figure 6. Certainty of identified morphemes.	52
Figure 7. Root length distribution.....	55
Figure 8. Affix length distribution	56
Figure 9. Example of Morpheme Network Analysis	60
Figure 10. Zipf's Law Distribution on Logarithmic Scale	66
Figure 11. Counts of words with different morpheme lengths	67

Chapter I

1.1 Background: General Description of the Hawaiian Language

The Hawaiian language is considered a critically endangered language (Moseley, 2010). Despite being critically endangered, the Hawaiian language has a rich history that includes a thriving language boasting the most literate nation in the 1800s to less than one thousand Native speakers in the 1950s and is now a leading language in revitalization efforts (Donaghy, 1997; Laimana, 2011). The Hawaiian language has an advantage in its revitalization because of documentation, digitization, and archival work on all forms of language artifacts including text documents, audio, and visual recordings starting as early as the 1838 (Berez, 2013; Nogelmeier, 2003). These language artifacts are necessary for revitalization efforts to teach the next generation of Hawaiian language speakers (Grenoble & Whaley, 2006). In order to ensure the language artifacts are useful for posterity, it is crucial to develop digital information retrieval tools in parallel with archiving language artifacts (Bird & Simons, 2002).

Due to the sociopolitical atmosphere of Hawai‘i during the late-1800s, which included the overthrow of the Hawaiian kingdom and illegal annexation of Hawai‘i to the United States of America, the Hawaiian language and culture was banned from being taught in both public and private schools (Liliuokalani, 2011; Lucas, 2000; Walk, 2007, p. 249). The ban led to generations of Hawaiians without connection to the language and culture (Rath, 2006). The 1970s is referred to as the “Hawaiian Renaissance”, a time period when the Hawaiian language and culture were revitalized (Wilson, 1998). The Hawaiian Renaissance was crucial because it re-established the opportunity for Hawaiian-medium education to occur in both public and private institutions (Lucas, 2000). The University of Hawai‘i has been an integral part of Hawaiian language revitalization because it has provided the venue for the development of the next generation of

language speakers (Pūnana Leo, n.d.). Research on the Hawaiian language is diverse ranging from linguistic analysis to language acquisition, to the application of the information from Hawaiian language documents in a modern context. There has been limited work on the development of Hawaiian digital technologies using Hawaiian language structures. To address the limited work in the area of Hawaiian digital technologies, I will focus my review of Hawaiian language research on the structures of Hawaiian language from the perspective of linguistic morphology and Hawaiian language infused in 21st-century digital technologies.

1.1.1 Hawaiian Morphology

There have been many studies examining the use of Hawaiian language in education and pedagogical approaches for language acquisition (Iokepa-Guerrero, 2004; Krug, 2014; Wilson, 1998; Wilson & Kamanā, 2017; Wilson, Kamanā, Wyman, McCarty, & Nicholas, 2014). Minimal work has been done in the area Hawaiian language linguistics of text, with the most extensive studies being: an analysis on the syntactic structure of the language at the sentence level (E. A. Hawkins, 1975), a syntactic, morphological, semantic and pragmatic analysis of the Hawaiian possessive system (Baker, 2012), and the use of relevant clauses within a specific Hawaiian story (Cabral, 2016). Linguistic studies specific to Hawaiian linguistic morphology have concentrated on affixes (Brittain 1993; Elbert, 1979; E. Hawkins, 1982; Parker Jones, 2010). The affixes, both prefixes and suffixes, as defined by Pukui and Elbert (1986) have been examined through case usage studies. The affixes that have been studied in detail are shown alphabetically in Table 1. The aforementioned affix studies are embedded within general studies of Hawaiian grammar, except for Brittain's (1993) master's thesis on *Hawaiian Causative-Simulative Prefixes*. The grammatical studies of the Hawaiian language are the foundations of current pedagogical practices and have been the basis of the revitalization of the language.

Prefixes			Suffixes	
aka	ku	pa	a	na
ala	kā	pu	hana	nia
ha	kī	pā	hi	‘i
hai	kū	pū	hia	
ha‘a	ma	u	ia	
ho	mo	‘a	kana	
ho‘	mā	‘u	ki	
ho‘o	mō	‘ā	kia	
hā	na	‘ō	lana	
hō	no	‘ū	lia	
hō‘	nā		mia	
ki	nō		na	

Table 1. Hawaiian Prefixes & Suffixes modified from Elbert and Pukui (1979, pp. 65, 79)

Hawaiian morphological studies from the perspective of roots are limited to mentions of their significance within grammatical descriptions of Hawaiian. Word roots have been referred to and defined by Hawaiian language grammarians as *roots* and *bases*. Alexander (1871) described word roots as "any word that cannot be reduced to any simpler word, and is one upon which other syllables may be added to modify the sense, is termed a *root*." In contrast Pukui and Elbert (1979, p. 64) described the same linguistic phenomena as a base which are "...words without affixes." Although these Hawaiian grammarians referred to the word roots with different definitions they all noted the presence and importance of sub-word components whose meaning are multi-functional and dependent on syntax (Chamisso & Chapin, 1974). In this study, I refer to these multi-functional sub-word components as word roots. I define a root as the simplest units of meaning found within a string of letters that are bounded by space which are not affixes, as determined by Pukui and Elbert (1979). With this definition, it is possible to have multiple roots within a single word.

The importance of Hawaiian roots were first recognized by Chamisso but repeatedly acknowledged by Hawaiian grammar scholars throughout the years, most recently in 2010 by Parker Jones (Chamisso & Chapin, 1974; Parker Jones, 2010; Pukui & Elbert, 1979). Chamisso summed it up nicely when he acknowledged his lack of understanding of the language to sufficiently analyze the roots and their relationship to other morphological structures of the language:

Because the roots have very comprehensive, wide-ranging meanings, very often, distinct from another, unrelated basic concept which is accidentally expressed by the same sound, and almost every sound, single vowel or syllable, ambiguous or unambiguous is a root, there is great difficulty understanding polysyllabic words; he who would know how to analyze them with certainty into the simple elements which they comprise must understand the language thoroughly. (Chamisso & Chapin, 1974, p. 105)

This dissertation aims “to analyze them [the roots] with certainty into the simple elements which they [the Hawaiian words] comprise.” Although the roots of the language are important no Hawaiian language scholar has successfully provided a comprehensive lexicon of word roots. Obstacles to identifying the word roots within written Hawaiian corpora include the lack of standard Hawaiian orthography and systematic approaches to the development and usage of loanwords. Knowledge of word roots are applicable in teaching of the language and information retrieval optimization. For example, the Orton Gillingham approach to English learning leverages knowledge of English morphemes to develop reading skills at the word level. Modern information

retrieval systems in natural language processing apply word roots and their associated use statistics in the text processing techniques of lemmatization and stemming (Jurafsky & Martin, 2018, p. 26).

1.1.2 Hawaiian Information Retrieval

Hawaiian language in the digital realm has been prevalent since the invention of Leokī, the first indigenous, Hawaiian, language bulletin board system in the world, developed in 1997 (Warschauer, 1997). The adoption and creation of digital technologies by Hawaiian language users for revitalization has provided language users normalization opportunities through the creation of a presence in the digital realm (Galla, 2018). Innovation in the realm of Hawaiian digital technologies also includes robust digital libraries. The two most common, referenced, searchable, Hawaiian databases are Ulukau and Papakilo, both of which are digital libraries. Ulukau is an online digital library that runs on Greenstone open-source software (Hale Kuamo‘o, n.d.; Witten, Boddie, Bainbridge, & McNab, 2000). Papakilo is a database that houses multiple Hawaiian databases, including Ulukau (Office of Hawaiian Affairs, 2018). Greenstone works with two search indexers: 1) MGPP, an indexer developed by the New Zealand digital library group, and 2) Lucene, an indexer developed by the Apache Software Foundation (“Apache Lucene - Apache Lucene Core,” n.d.; Don, n.d.). According to Greenstone, both the MGPP and Lucene indexers do not apply linguistic morphology information retrieval tools to search queries.

Another commonly used search engine that is capable of handling Hawaiian language search queries is Google. A full understanding of information techniques used by Google for Hawaiian language queries is unknown. Through usage of Google for Hawaiian language queries, it has been inferred that the search engine may use diacritic marking folding and n-gram models in order to optimize information retrieval (Schulze, 2000). Based on current understanding of Google’s Hawaiian language information retrieval algorithms, Hawaiian morphology is not used.

All current Hawaiian information retrieval systems analyzed do not use Hawaiian linguistic morphology as a component of their search engine index. In comparison, text normalizations techniques based on linguistics such as word tokenization, segmentation, lemmatization, and stemming, are commonly used to facilitate fast, accurate, information retrieval of English text documents (Jurafsky & Martin, 2018, pp. 22–26). This suggests the need to examine the effect of Hawaiian morphology parses on information retrieval from Hawaiian search queries. Identifying Hawaiian morphemes deepens the understanding of the language at the word level and improves language acquisition approaches and information retrieval techniques.

1.1.3 Importance of improving Hawaiian Information Retrieval Systems

Digital Hawaiian language repositories, hold digitized language artifacts which remain archived in digital space until it is accessed by a user. Now-a-days, information is easily accessible to English language users because of fine-tuned information retrieval systems like Google. The first English language information retrieval systems were developed in the 1960s and have been iterated upon in parallel with the rapidly growing field of computer science (Baeza-Yates & Ribeiro, 2011; Salton, 1968). Natural language processing (NLP) is the foundation for modern information retrieval systems. The main goal of NLP research is understanding linguistic structures in order to model a language by which we communicate (Manning, Raghavan, Schütze, & others, 2008, p. 7). Well-studied languages, like English, have many language models that are used for optimizing information retrieval systems. Multi-linguistic and cross-linguistic information retrieval systems leverage patterns and aligned corpora from different languages to access information from low resource languages (Dumais, Letsche, Littman, & Landauer, 1997). Low resource languages, like Hawaiian, lack language models because of minimal linguistic and computational studies specific to the language, which thereby impede the development of

sophisticated information retrieval systems. When morpheme language models are used for information retrieval systems, they have been shown to improve retrieval results in comparison to word level queries alone (Al-Kharashi & Evens, 1994). In other languages, affix removal improves information retrieval; for agglutinative languages, it is also beneficial to split roots within a word to further optimize information retrieval (Larkey, Ballesteros, & Connell, 2002).

The resurgence of Hawaiian language speakers and Hawaiian knowledge seekers has created a renewed interest in the information found in the Hawaiian language archives. There are now scientific studies that focus the attention of traditional Hawaiian knowledge and its application to informing current land management and sustainability practices (Businger, Nogelmeier, Chinn, & Schroeder, 2018; Kurashima, Fortini, & Tickin, 2019). The importance of accessibility to the historical Hawaiian language documents is relevant and necessary. One challenge of access to the historical Hawaiian language documents is the evolution of the orthography of the language. Currently, the majority of Hawaiian language education courses teach students there are 13 letters in the Hawaiian alphabet with the writing system including the macaron over the vowels. The current Hawaiian orthography does not match the orthography found in historical Hawaiian language documents which vary in the usage of diacritical markings, the segmentation of words, and the usage of roman characters other than the 13 designated standardized Hawaiian letters, such as the letters B, T, and R.

The differences in orthography are displayed in Figure 1, which is a conceptual framework that provides a potential method of developing and using different natural language processing algorithms to automate the transliteration of historical Hawaiian orthographies to the present standardized orthography. Figure 1 begins with an example text from a historical Hawaiian language document, then shows a step by step guide on how different automated systems,

developed using Hawaiian specific algorithms, can be used to address each orthographic problem. It should be noted that the proposed automation steps are not hierarchical, but are represented so, for the purpose of demonstrating the conceptual framework to improve Hawaiian information retrieval.

In the first step, optical character recognition (OCR) is the automation step to address the conversion of digital historical document images to a machine readable format. It is recognized there are limitations to current OCR systems. OCR systems optimized to a language improve accuracy of the OCR products as exemplified in the work by Hubert et al. (2018). The next step is the automatic insertion of diacritical markers. Shillingford and Jones Parker (2018) developed a method of automatically including diacritical markers in the Hawaiian language texts using neural networks. Morphological segmentation and differences in word boundaries is another issue for transliteration of historical document orthographies to standard Hawaiian orthography. A morphological segmentation algorithm is developed and addressed as part of this dissertation. Finally an algorithm converting roman characters into the standardized 13 characters taught in the majority of Hawaiian language classrooms is suggested in the conceptual framework, but still needs to be developed. The specific pattern of individual non-standard to standard Hawaiian orthography at the letter level needs to be addressed prior to the development of an automation tool. There are various ways to approach the problem of transliteration between orthographies, here in this dissertation I chose to approach issues of orthographies from the perspective of the present-day Hawaiian language speaker that uses the standard Hawaiian orthography taught in the majority of Hawaiian language education. This conceptual framework should be used as a reference guide for future studies to aid in improving information retrieval of Hawaiian language documents from the perspective of a post-Hawaiian renaissance Hawaiian language speaker.

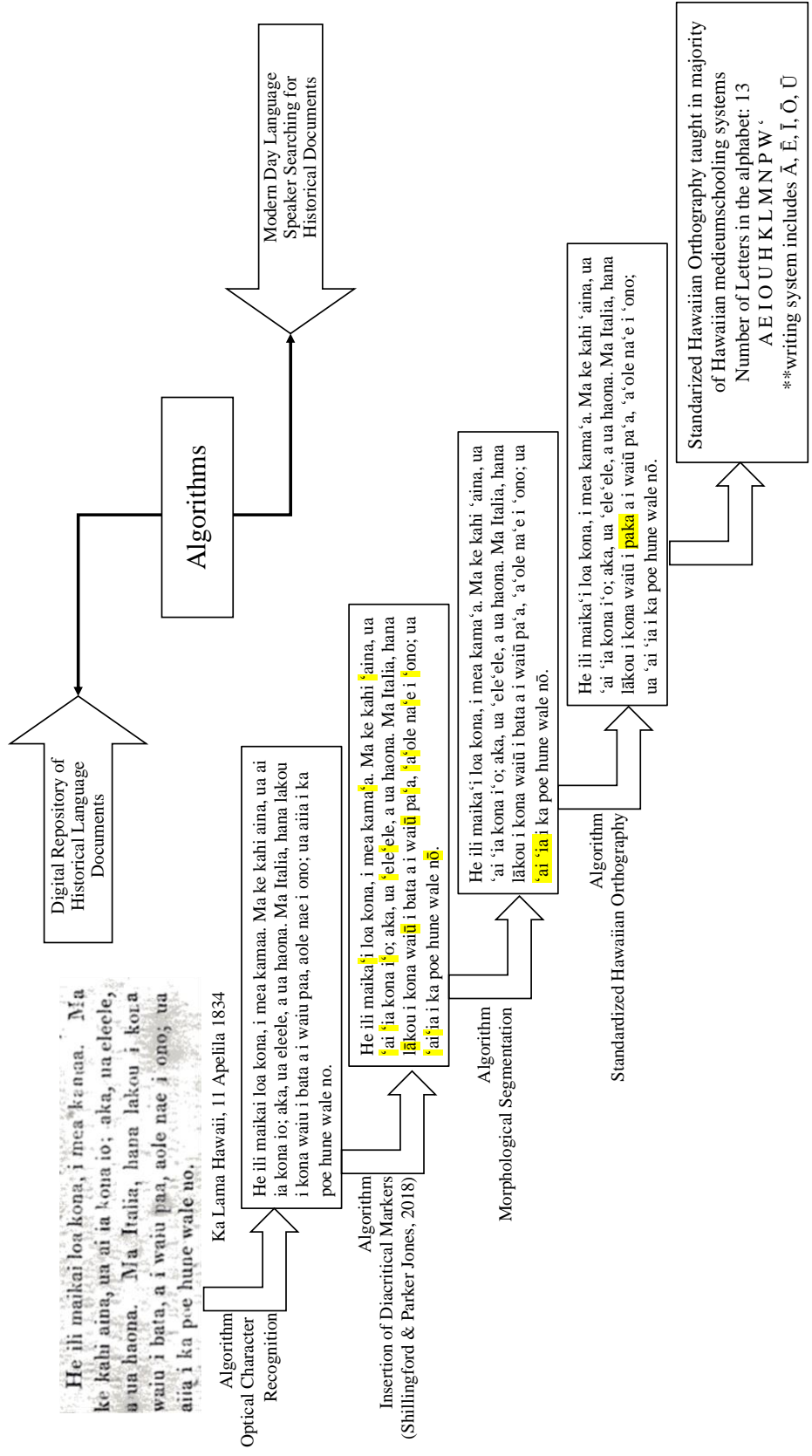


Figure 1. Theoretical Hawaiian Information Retrieval Flow of Transliteration Algorithms

1.4 Theory

This dissertation is grounded with two theories. The first theory is the morpheme-based morphological theory. The second theory is morpheme-based information retrieval theory that is used to explain the structure of morphemes within the Hawaiian language. Together these two theories provide the theoretical framework for this dissertation.

1.4.1 Morpheme-Based Morphological Theory

Morphemes are the units of analysis for morpheme-based morphological theory. The arrangement of morphemes are used to analyze and construct word forms in this theory. This approach is based on the “item-and-arrangement” model of grammatical description, in contrast to the “item-and-process” model (Hockett, 1954). Following the theories of morphemes from Hockett, it is assumed that all morphemes have meaning and are concatenated to make various word forms. According to Beard (1995), there are three axioms associated with this theory: 1) roots and affixes are both morphemes that are equivalent, 2) morphemes have both phonological form and meaning, and 3) morphemes are stored in the vocabulary. This general theory has been iterated upon by theorists examining the grammar of morphemes (Halle and Marantz, 1993). Hockett’s theory of morpheme-based morphology supports the idea that morphemes have meaning. In contrast, Bloomfield’s theory of morpheme-based morphology supposes morphemes are the smallest units of meaning, but the morphemes themselves do not have meaning (Bloomfield, 1933). The Hockett morpheme-based morphological theory is used as the theoretical framework for morphological analysis in this dissertation based on the premise that morphemes have meaning and can be combined to make various word forms with new meanings.

1.4.2 Morpheme-Based Information Retrieval

Theories of information retrieval stem from the work by Gerald Salton. Salton's original theory of indexing assigns values to key terms to identify and optimize retrieval of documents within a collection. The original theory is based on key terms at the word level (Salton, 1975). Natural language processing techniques have improved information retrieval methods. Stemming and lemmatization are word processing techniques commonly used to normalize words prior to information retrieval. Stemming removes the affixes of a word leaving the word stem for information retrieval. Lemmatization removes affixes and also includes word-level semantic analysis to identify the lemma. Text normalization using stemming and lemmatization have shown to improve information retrieval in various languages (Balakrishnan & Lloyd-Yemoh, 2014; Can et al., 2008; Carlberger, Dalianis, Hassel, Knutsson, & others, 2001).

An agglutinative language is a type of synthetic language that is defined by having a morpheme per word ratio greater than one (i.e. Japanese, Finnish, German), unlike isolating languages that have a low morpheme per word ratio (i.e. Chinese). It is difficult to identify the discrete morphological units within agglutinative words. In information retrieval, the text normalization processes of stemming and lemmatization also have difficulty identifying the morphological units. Morpheme-based information retrieval theory uses morphological parsing to identify potential meanings of a keyword to retrieve relevant documents. Schulz and Hahn (2000) use morpheme-based information retrieval to index medical documents due to a large number of medical terms whose morphemes derive from the synthetic languages of German, Greek and Latin. Morpheme-based information retrieval removes affixes and splits word roots which are used as the key search terms.

1.3 Dictionary as Data

This dissertation examines Hawaiian as a natural language. In natural language processing words are data. Written words are the discrete artifacts of the Hawaiian language that are analyzed. The next chapter, describes and explains the reason I selected the data for this study. Natural languages can be studied from different perspectives. I chose to examine written natural language at the word and morpheme level for this dissertation. Words as data can be collected from within documents or as word lists. Dictionary headwords, the individual word entries found in a dictionary prior to the word definition and associated part-of-speech, were chosen as the list of words to identify and analyze the roots and affixes within the context of words. An in-depth description of the process used to collect the dictionary headword data is described in Chapter 2.

1.4 Significance of Problem

Hawaiian is an endangered, low resource, language (Moseley, 2010). It has been studied from the perspectives of linguistics and language revitalization. However, there are no comprehensive studies on Hawaiian morphology that leverage computational technologies and apply them toward the development of new digital technologies for Hawaiian. Identifying and understanding Hawaiian morphemes, specifically roots and their relationship to affixes, is important because morphemes are the “intellectual building blocks” of the language. It is critical to develop an understanding of Hawaiian morphemes because computational language models of morphemes are a foundation for modern information retrieval and natural language processing techniques.

1.5 Research Questions

- What are the roots, as defined as the simplest units of meaning found within a string of letters that are bounded by space which are not affixes as listed by Pukui and Elbert (1979), of the Hawaiian language?
 - How can a comprehensive list of Hawaiian roots be constructed?
- What is the relationship between Hawaiian morphemes, roots and affixes?
- How can knowledge of Hawaiian morphemes inform information retrieval of Hawaiian language documents?

1.6 Contributions

In the next chapters, the contributions of this dissertation are discussed as they relate to the research questions in the previous section. Here I outline the contributions of this work to the broader fields of Hawaiian language, linguistics, and natural language processing.

In this dissertation, the first comprehensive list of Hawaiian morphemes, inclusive of roots and affixes, is identified and examined (Chapter 2). In this process of identifying Hawaiian morphemes, I produce the first known isolated lexicon of Hawaiian headwords from the Pukui and Elbert *Hawaiian Dictionary* (1986) (Chapter 2). This dissertation develops a unique method termed a “semi-automated greedy morphological analysis system” (SAGMAS) for identifying Hawaiian morphemes that includes human input and leverages computational power. The SAGMAS method is generalizable to benefit other low resource indigenous languages identify the roots of their language based on the knowledges of language informants (Chapter 2).

I analyze the morphemes including the identified roots and affixes to understand the relationship between morphemes and the overall morphological structure of Hawaiian words

(Chapter 3). The relationship between most frequently used morphemes identified in this dissertation provides evidence for potential new prefixes, and the need for future work on morpheme senses and semantics to further disambiguate morphemes and words (Chapter 3). The first known statistical analysis of morpheme ambiguity due to diacritical markings is created in this dissertation which provides the data and methods to address the various orthographies within Hawaiian cyberinfrastructure (Chapter 3).

In my dissertation a profile of Hawaiian morphemes including frequency distributions and morphological typology is established. I compare the frequency distribution profiles to Zipf's law showing the relationship of morpheme usage as a language utterance. These morpheme profiles illustrated in this dissertation are useful for comparing the morphological structure of Hawaiian morphology and evaluation of Hawaiian language learning (Chapter 4).

Lastly, I conceptualize a Hawaiian morpheme-based information retrieval system and demonstrate its potential to inform precision and recall information retrieval statistics by building on the identified morphemes and their relationships (Chapter 5). Information retrieval is one application of knowledge of Hawaiian morphemes, which I chose to focus on in this dissertation. However, there are numerous other applications of these morphemes as they are the foundational building-blocks of meaning and knowledge of the Hawaiian language. Future studies that include morphemes should examine the language at the semantic level, including ontology and language acquisition studies. The morphemes, especially knowledge of roots, are a key component for future development of Hawaiian in the field of natural language processing.

Chapter II: Data Development

2.1 Relevant Literature Dictionary as data

In lexicography, a dictionary is a lexicon, or list, of words that includes an associated definition, grammatical parts of speech, pronunciation annotations, and examples of usage. Theoretical lexicography includes the study of vocabulary, sub-word components, and their relationships. In contrast, corpus linguistics examines word usage within context at the sentence level or higher. Lexicographers work to improve dictionaries for the benefit of the user of the dictionary (Nielsen, 2011). This study aims to identify and understand morphemes of the Hawaiian language. Therefore lexicographic studies on lemma and etymology of words are relevant to this work.

A lemma is the form of a word chosen to represent a lexeme. In a dictionary, the lemma is termed the headword, which is the individual word entries that are then followed by associated definitions or word senses. For example, in English, the headword *cross* is chosen to represent the lexeme which includes the forms *crosses*, *crossing*, and *crossed*. Dictionaries composed for minority languages are often composed with the mindset of collecting and documenting as many words as possible without acknowledging various lexeme forms (Mosel, 2014). A comprehensive dictionary is ideal to use as data for extraction morphemes, roots and affixes, from a list of words. The inclusion of morphological annotation and associated etymological information in endangered language dictionary construction is ideal but not a priority (Kroskrity, 2015; Mosel, 2014). Ilson (1983) found that etymological information provides pedagogical relevance for language learners. The precursor for etymological elucidation in a dictionary is morphological analysis because such analysis includes annotation of affixes and roots, where roots are the foundation for etymology.

This study uses the endangered Hawaiian language dictionary as a source of data for lexicographic work. The dictionary was chosen for this study as the source of the Hawaiian lexicon, over a corpus of Hawaiian language, because the sub-word components, morphemes, are the units of analysis under study. I base this study on the premise that the roots are identifiable at word-level language patterns, thereby focusing my analysis on individual words.

2.2 Hawaiian Dictionaries

2.2.1 Review of Major Hawaiian Dictionaries

To date, there are four major published Hawaiian dictionaries Andrews (1865), Andrews-Parker (1922), Pukui and Elbert (1986), Māmaka Kaiao (*Māmaka kaiao*, 1996). Here I provide a brief description of each of the dictionaries. The first Hawaiian dictionary was developed by Lorin Andrews in 1834 when he was commissioned by the “Mission”, missionaries present in Hawai‘i, to compile a vocabulary of the Hawaiian language. The Andrews dictionary has approximately 6,000 words (1865, p. 2). The second dictionary of Hawaiian was developed with funding from the Legislature of the Territory of Hawai‘i disbursed to the Board of Commissioners of Public Archives. The Andrews-Parker dictionary (1922) is a revision of the Andrews (1865) dictionary. A major revision of this dictionary is the inclusion of “syllabic” parts which are roughly equivalent to the diacritic markings. The Pukui and Elbert (1986) dictionary is a compilation and revision of the preceding Hawaiian dictionaries. The Pukui and Elbert dictionary was a project commissioned by the territorial legislature of Hawai‘i in 1961 and was iterated upon in 1986. It was the first Hawaiian dictionary not produced by the church, providing the opportunity for the inclusion of more native originating words (Pukui & Elbert, 1986, p. ix). A key improvement to this Hawaiian dictionary is the inclusion of diacritical markers, leading to separate dictionary entries for words varying only in diacritical marking. According to Schütz (1994), the Pukui and Elbert Hawaiian

dictionary has approximately 29,000 entries. The *Māmaka Kaiao* (*Māmaka kaiao*, 1996) dictionary is a compilation of modern Hawaiian terms developed by the Hawaiian Lexicon Committee that is composed of modern Hawaiian language speakers, majority whom have learned Hawaiian as their second language. The entries in *Māmaka Kaiao* are geared for present day Hawaiian language speakers, providing modern vocabulary for current items like computer, *lolouila* or *kamepiula*. There are no specific guidelines associated with the creation of new Hawaiian vocabulary published by the Hawaiian Lexicon Committee. Many of the published vocabulary in *Māmaka Kaiao* are phonologically adapted loanwords such as the terms for *carbon dioxide*. Below are two Hawaiian terms for *carbon dioxide* are shown to exemplify the different approaches to translating terms into Hawaiian:

karabona diokesaside carbon dioxide (transliteration)

kalapona 'okikene lua carbon oxygen two (semantic translation or calque)

For this study, I am interested in native originating morphemes therefore the *Māmaka Kaio* dictionary was not included in the study. Future comparison of morphemes found in the *Māmaka Kaio* dictionary in relation to the Pukui and Elbert dictionary would be of interest to examine the evolution of the Hawaiian language especially as it applies to the reconstruction of a heritage language.

It is beyond the scope of this dissertation to fully analyze each Hawaiian dictionary. Larger studies and information regarding Hawaiian lexicography can be found in works by Ashford (1987), Schütz (1994), and Trussel (n.d.). The four Hawaiian dictionaries described provides the majority of the content found in compiled online Hawaiian language look-up resources such as wehewehe.org (“Nā Puke Wehewehe ‘Ōlelo Hawai‘i,” n.d.), the Combined Hawaiian Dictionary (Trussel, n.d.), and manomano.io (“Manomano | Hawaiian Dictionary,” n.d.). It is recognized the

Pukui and Elbert Hawaiian dictionary is not an exhaustive list of all Hawaiian words, but it is a well-developed subset of Hawaiian words and was chosen for this study due to the progressiveness as it pertains to Hawaiian lexicography and the inclusion of native originating words.

2.3 The Pukui and Elbert Hawaiian Dictionary

Of the Hawaiian dictionaries available, the Pukui and Elbert (1986) dictionary was selected because of its: 1) comprehensiveness, 2) orthography, 3) accessibility, and 4) commonplace amongst present-day Hawaiian speakers. There are six different editions of the Pukui and Elbert Hawaiian Dictionary published in the years 1957, 1961, 1964, 1965, 1971, and 1986. The major changes to the dictionary are the inclusion of new words and meanings identified from published Hawaiian books sources, as well as pronunciation annotation. This study uses the most recent 1986 edition.

2.3.1 Comprehensiveness

The Pukui and Elbert Hawaiian dictionary is considered “...by far the most comprehensive of the Polynesian dictionaries available” (Albert J. Schütz author, 1994, p. 235). The Pukui and Elbert *Hawaiian Dictionary* has approximately 29,000 entries. This dictionary is comprehensive because it is a compilation and revision of preceding Hawaiian dictionaries with the key improvements of the inclusion of native originating words and diacritical markings (Pukui & Elbert, 1986). A noted pitfall of the Pukui and Elbert Hawaiian dictionary is the inconsistent treatment of the prefix *ho‘o*, in which the instructions found in the Hawaiian dictionary state: “...forms beginning with *ho*, *ho-*, *ho‘*, [all variant forms of the prefix *ho‘o*] delete the prefix and look for the stem”, however there are numerous entries that include *ho‘o-*, or its variant forms, as dictionary entries (Schütz, 1994, p. 232). The inclusion of prefixes in the headwords may be seen

as a pitfall however, it could signify a characteristic of the language that traditional lexicography overlooks. By analyzing the relationships between morphemes, the inclusion of *ho 'o* in dictionary headwords will be addressed. Although there are pitfalls associated with the Pukui and Elbert dictionary, the comprehensiveness of the entries, specifically the breadth of coverage of the words, makes the Pukui and Elbert dictionary the best Hawaiian word list for this study because findings from the study are generalizable to various other Hawaiian language texts.

2.3.2 Orthography

Generalizability of words from the Pukui and Elbert dictionary is due to the key improvement of the inclusion of diacritical markers to word entries. In Hawaiian, the two diacritical markers used are the glottal stop, 'okina (‘), and the macron, kahakō, over vowels (e.g. Ā, Ē, Ī, Ō, Ū) which lengthens and emphasizes the vowel. Diacritical markers are often imperative for disambiguation of words. An example of diacritical markers and their role in disambiguation is as follows: The word *mānoa* means vast, deep, or thick, whereas the word *manoa* means numerous. The lack of diacritical markers increases the ambiguity of words. Diacritical markers and Hawaiian orthography is an obstacle for any word list of the language. Orthography as an obstacle is rooted in the history of the language. The Hawaiian language was traditionally perpetuated orally. In the 1820s the *ali'i*, chiefs, in collaboration with the missionaries in Hawai'i set out to teach the people of Hawai'i how to read and write (Laimana, 2011). The first formal spelling books, *pī'āpā*, were printed in 1822 (Laimana, 2011, p. 47) during the time span of 1820-1832 it has been suggested that 24 million pages of Hawaiian language texts were printed with the block printing press (Laimana, 2011, p. 5). In 1834 the very first Hawaiian newspaper article was published and stated the importance of documenting the language for future generations (Solomona, 1834). From the first Hawaiian newspaper, there were over 70 different Hawaiian

language newspapers printed and dispersed (Laimana, 2011; Nogelmeier, 2003, p. 5). Within 13 years, the goal of literacy amongst the people of Hawai‘i was achieved at the unprecedented 91% success rate (Laimana, 2011, p. 4)

The exponential growth of the written Hawaiian language amongst the entire population of Hawaii in the 1800s was a blessing because now there is a variety of Hawaiian language texts available from multiple perspectives. However, this variety of language texts written by a large number of authors prior to a standard orthography is now an obstacle because there are multiple orthography variants of the same word. In the 1990s, a standard Hawaiian orthography emerged (Romaine, 2002). The modern Hawaiian orthography taught currently in Hawaiian language education includes 13 letters, 12 of which are roman characters A, E, I, O, U, H, K, L, M, N, P, W, and the ‘okina. The alphabet system also includes the diacritical macron, kahakō, over vowels (eg. Ā, Ē, Ī, Ō, Ū) which lengthens and emphasizes the letter. Even with the standardized orthography, diacritical markers continue to have the most variation in their presence and is an issue of controversy in the Hawaiian language community (BOEM, 2017; Schütz, 1994, pp. 140–152). The inclusion of diacritics in Pukui and Elbert dictionary is a key reason it was selected for the study. Computationally it is easier to remove diacritics than insert them. Using the words from the Pukui and Elbert dictionary allows for findings from the study to be readily applied to words variants, with and without diacritics, making the study more generalizable.

2.3.3 Accessible & Commonplace Amongst Present Day Hawaiian Speakers

The Pukui and Elbert Hawaiian dictionary is ideal for a computational study of Hawaiian words because it is accessible in a machine-readable format. The Pukui and Elbert dictionary was converted to the machine-readable format and is publicly accessible via the Ulukau website. The machine-readable, publicly available format allows for the data to be easily accessible. The Ulukau

website has the dictionary formatted as a text page and also a searchable graphical user interface that uses an unstructured data search program to locate word queries within the dictionary. The publicly available dictionary in its two formats makes it readily accessible for anyone that is interested in the Hawaiian language. Not only is the electronic version of the Pukui and Elbert Hawaiian dictionary easily accessible, but the physical copy is commonplace amongst the Hawaiian language community. The Pukui and Elbert is the standard and within the Hawaiian language community is referred to as the “Hawaiian dictionary”, ease of access and commonplaceness amongst the Hawaiian language community supports its use for this study.

2.4 Data Collection

The purpose of this dissertation is to identify the morphological patterns of native originating Hawaiian words. The subset of Hawaiian words that are selected for this study, which are derived from the Pukui and Elbert (1986) Hawaiian dictionary, was discussed in detail in the previous section. In this section, the extraction of the dictionary's headwords, the individual word entries that are followed by associated definitions or word senses, is detailed. Following the recommendations of the Open Science movement and the best practices for digital data curation, the method of collection of this subset of words is detailed to frame the context of this Hawaiian word data set for this study and any future re-use of the produced Hawaiian word dataset.

2.4.1 Forms of the Pukui and Elbert Hawaiian Dictionary

The 1986 edition of the Pukui and Elbert Hawaiian dictionary has been formatted in three different versions including the hard copy, portable document format (PDF), and a searchable text file. The searchable text version was developed using optical character recognition software applied to the portable document format version. The electronic formatted versions of the Pukui

and Elbert dictionary are readily available from Ulukau (Hale Kuamo‘o, n.d.). The dictionary data in its raw form is unstructured. The data is not formatted in an extensible markup language (XML), it is beyond the scope of this dissertation to create a structured formatted version of the dictionary, however, future studies would greatly benefit from such work. Here the unstructured dictionary data is processed in order to extract headwords of the dictionary entries, the process of data filtering is described in the next section.

2.5 Data Processing

This section discusses the process of extracting the dictionary headwords from the original Pukui and Elbert unstructured text file and preparing the data for morphological analysis. Based on dictionary headword counts by Pukui and Elbert as well as Schütz (1994, p. 235) the theoretical data processing would produce 29,000 dictionary headword entries. The dictionary headwords were isolated and processed for morphological analysis in four steps: 1) isolate headwords, 2) remove proper nouns and non-modern orthographic words, 3) consolidation of terms, and 4) manual removal of non-conforming words. A flow of the data is shown in Figure 2. which includes how the data was processed and the number of headwords remaining after each step. In the next sections, the steps are discussed in length.

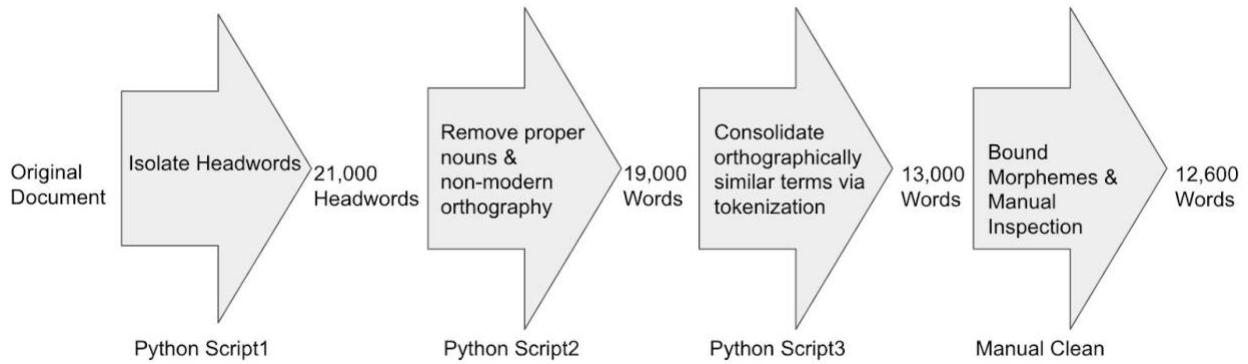


Figure 2. Data processing to isolate dictionary headwords for morphological analysis

2.5.1 Isolate Headwords

The original Pukui and Elbert text file that was collected from the Ulukau website included publication metadata and full dictionary data entries. The dictionary headwords were also annotated for pronunciation. The headwords were isolated and the pronunciation annotations were removed using a Python script and regular expression substitutions.

The Python script developed to isolate the headwords, removed the definitions associated with the headwords by identifying the unnecessary data by part-of-speech and numerical digits, see Python script 1 in Appendix A. The example below shows a full dictionary entry, followed by information that is striked through exemplifying the information that was removed by the Python script.

Example

Python script 1: Removal of dictionary word senses

‘a‘a

~~1. vt. To brave, dare, challenge, defy (1 Sam. 17.10), check, venture; to accept a challenge; to volunteer, involving a difficulty; to act wickedly or presumptuously (Kanl. 1.43); bold, venturesome, valiant, intrepid. See ex., mea 1. He po‘e ‘a‘a hewa, a people acting wickedly. He ‘a‘a ka mana‘o, he wiwo ‘ole, thoughts are full of courage, fearless.~~

~~2. nvt. Belt, girdle, waist; to gird, tie on. Kāki‘i maila ‘o Ka haka loa i kāna la‘au pālau, a loa‘a ihola ka ‘a‘a o Ka welo (FS 89), Ka haka loa brandished his war club so as to reach Ka welo's waist.~~

~~3. n. Bag, pocket, caul, envelope for a foetus, scrip (1 Sam. 17.40); fiber from coconut husk; clothlike sheath at base of coconut frond; cloth; chaff, hull (Jer. 23.28); skin covering eyeballs. See ‘a‘a moni. ‘A‘a haole, foreign cloth. ‘A‘a maluna o ke ake, caul above the liver. Ka ‘a‘a o ke au ma ke akepa‘a (Oihk. 3.4), the caul of the bile and the liver. ‘A‘ole kanaka ‘a‘a ‘ole, no man without his scrip. (PPN kaka.)~~

~~4. (Cap.) Same as Ma‘a‘a, a wind.~~

~~5. Same as ‘ā 4, booby bird.~~

Using this method to extract dictionary headwords resulted in approximately 21,000 headwords. The resulting number is less than the 29,000 entries noted by Schütz (1994). This difference could be due to the duplication of headwords that differ only in orthography such as *kaua*, *kauwa* which are listed as a single entry. However, since Schütz did not describe his process in counting the

number of dictionary entries, it is not possible to tell for certain how he concluded there were approximately 29,000 dictionary entries in the *Hawaiian Dictionary* (Pukui and Elbert, 1986).

2.5.2 Non-modern orthography and Proper Nouns

The collected set of words were selected for the main purpose of understanding their potential in improving Hawaiian language digital information retrieval through the development of natural language processing techniques from the perspective of a modern day Hawaiian language speaker as the system user. The digitized, machine-readable, Hawaiian language documents (e.g. historical Hawaiian language newspapers) located in Hawaiian language repositories include documents with a variety of Hawaiian orthography. The exact amount of orthographical variation is unknown because of how the Hawaiian language transitioned from an oral to a written language, see section 2.3.2 for an explanation of the evolution of the Hawaiian language. For this research, it was chosen to approach orthography from the perspective of the standard Hawaiian orthography defined in the 1990s (Romaine, 2002). This approach was chosen because the intention of this research is to develop the foundation for Hawaiian language digital information retrieval systems that focus on the user. The user of the information retrieval systems is contextualized as a post-Hawaiian renaissance language speaker taught the language using the standard Hawaiian orthography. This study is only one piece of the foundational items that are used to create a digital Hawaiian language information retrieval system. A Hawaiian transliteration algorithm that would interpret the information retrieval system user's query to identify documents inclusive of varying cases of historical Hawaiian language orthography has been developed (Shillingford & Parker Jones, 2018). The transliteration algorithm would work to address orthography variations on the back-end of the envisioned information retrieval system, see Figure 1 for a diagram of the envisioned Hawaiian information retrieval system. The existence of a

Hawaiian transliteration algorithm allows this study to focus on morpheme identification within standardized Hawaiian orthographical words.

Proper nouns and words that do not conform to the 13 characters of modern Hawaiian orthography were not included in this study because it is posited their etymological origins and morphological structures are different due to the reasoning for their creation. These aforementioned items were identified and removed based on capitalization and the use of letters other than the modern Hawaiian use of the 13 letters A, E, I, O, U, H, K, L, M, N, P, W, ‘, see Appendix A. An example of a word that was removed by Python script 2, is the Hawaiian loanword for Hebrew “*hepela*”. After proper nouns annotated by capital letter and words that did not use modern orthography were removed, there were 19,000 headwords remaining.

2.5.3 Consolidation of orthographically similar terms

Pukui and Elbert included numerous terms for related items. For instance, the terms *hale kuke* (kitchen), *hale kula* (school), and *hale holoholona* (barn) all use the word *hale* (house). It was chosen to consolidate orthographically similar words, *hale* in the previous example because the phrases are compound terms. The phrases listed as dictionary headwords were compiled using a compilation Python script that identifies all unique strings of characters based on whitespace. Duplicate strings, words, were combined and a frequency of count of the duplicates were provided using the created token-frequency Python script 3 in Appendix B. After consolidating terms based on orthography, there were 13,000 remaining words for analysis.

Python Script 3 Example: Token Frequency to combine and count words and phrases

Input: ‘ike ‘ike hānau hānau	Output: ‘ike, 2 hānau, 2
---------------------------------------	--------------------------------

2.5.4 Removal of Bound Morphemes & Manual Inspection

Bound morphemes, affixes, by themselves were not considered as a word in this study because they cannot stand-alone. An example is the prefix *ho‘o* whose dictionary definition is “causation and transitivity”. When *ho‘o* is bound to the free morpheme *malu* meaning “shelter or protection”, it forms the word *ho‘omalū* meaning “to shade”. Prefixes were identified and removed if the string of characters ended with a hyphen, for example, *ho‘o-* is a prefix. Suffixes were identified and removed if the string of characters started with a hyphen, for example *-hia* is a suffix. The affixes were identified using regular expressions to identify strings with a hyphen at the beginning or end of the string.

After running the preprocessing scripts and regular expression cleaning, the data was re-examined manually for phrases and words that did not follow the rules for established for the developed Python scripts. The resulting lexicon included 12,684 words.

2.6 Final processed dictionary data

There were 12,684 unique words isolated in this process, which were used as the lexicon for this study, listed in Appendix C. A limitation of the data extracted from the original text file is the resulting number of headwords differs by 8,000 words from Schütz’s (1994) count of the Pukui and Elbert dictionary entries of 29,000. The specific number of isolated headwords does not

directly impact the study because the analyses in the next section are ratios related to the number of words extracted. The Hawaiian language community in the digital realm would greatly benefit from the development of an extensible markup language (XML) formatted version of the Hawaiian dictionary.

The resulting processed words are the first time an orthographically distinct list of Hawaiian words has been extracted. This list of words has can be applied to future studies on lemma, etymology, and word types of the Hawaiian language. The words can also be used in collocation studies and development of n-gram language models for natural language processing.

Chapter III: Morpheme Identification

This chapter attempts “to analyze them [the “roots”] with certainty into the simple elements which they [the Hawaiian words] comprise” (Chamisso & Chapin, 1974). The roots, as defined as the simplest unit of meaning that is not an affix, of the language are important however, no Hawaiian language scholar has successfully identified a comprehensive list of the roots. This chapter addresses the questions:

- *What are the roots of the Hawaiian language?*
- *How can a comprehensive list of Hawaiian roots be constructed?*

3.1 Relevant Literature

3.1.1 Methods to identify morphemes

The morphemes of a word can be identified through stemming and parsing. Stemming is defined as the natural language processing technique of removing suffixes to identify the stem of a word (Jurafsky & Martin, 2018, p. 11). A commonly used stemming algorithm is the Porter stemmer, which removes suffixes using a cascade algorithm (Porter, 1980). Over-stemming is a key pitfall of all computational stemmers, because affixes are matched and stripped from words on a character for character basis. For instance in English, the word *this* when stemmed using the Porter stemmer produces *thi* since the plural suffix *-s* is stripped. In Hawaiian, the problem of over-stemming is compounded by the numerous single vowel affixes. For example the Hawaiian word *huli* would be stemmed to *hul* because *-i* is a suffix. One who understands the Hawaiian language, knows that *hul* is extremely ambiguous because that string of letters could be completed orthographically as *hula*, *hule*, *huli*, *hulo*, *hulu*, *hulā*, *hulē*, *hulī*, *hulō*, *hulū* with five of the ten being semantically relevant. Stemming is a simplistic method of removing affixes but often the stem does not directly match the semantic root of a word. In computational linguistics, the well-

developed method of morphological analysis and parsing is the finite state transducer (FST) (Koskenniemi, 1984). FSTs have been used to model morphology of agglutinative languages (Aduriz et al., 2000; Bögel, Butt, Hautli, & Sulger, 2007; Kumar, Singh, & Shukla, 2012). To use the FST method for morphological analysis and parsing, a lexicon with tagged grammatical features including number, person, and tense is needed. Morfessor is a statistical method for morphological segmentation that takes morphologically annotated data as the input training data and applies it to a larger corpus (Smit, Virpioja, Grönroos, & Kurimo, 2014).

The limitations of these computational methods of identifying morphemes is the need for an annotated set of words. For Hawaiian and most other low resource languages, such linguistic descriptions are scarce or do not exist altogether. Manual identification and annotation of morphemes is done by developing rules that include knowledge of the form and meaning of each word (Hana & Zeman, 2005; O'Grady, 1989). I chose to bootstrap, incrementally develop an early programming environment with the vision of creating a more complex user-friendly environment in the future, a system to address the lack of statistical infrastructure for Hawaiian natural language processing tools. I developed a semi-automated greedy morphological analysis system (SAGMAS) that includes a set of morphological annotation rules and leverages computational power to morphologically annotate a lexicon of Hawaiian words. SAGMAS is described in detail in the following section.

3.1.3 Significance of Morphemes

The lack of a morphologically annotated lexicon impedes the development of computational linguistic tools which is associated with a gap in the accessibility of the language in the digital realm (Bird, 2011). The chapter focuses on identifying Hawaiian morphemes, especially roots, through the development of a semi-automated greedy morphological analysis

system (SAGMAS). For the case of Hawaiian linguistics, there has been previous work on affixes and grammars but due to the timeframe of their development, the completeness of the linguistic descriptions are unknown (Alexander, 1871; Chamisso & Chapin, 1974; Parker Jones, 2010; Pukui & Elbert, 1986). Here I develop a semi-automated greedy morphological analysis system to address the lack of linguistic knowledge of Hawaiian needed for a computational morphological analyzer and to create the first comprehensive list of Hawaiian morphemes.

3.2 Hawaiian Morpheme Annotation

3.2.1 Semi-automated greedy analysis system - First Pass

Here I address the lack of morphological annotation of the Hawaiian language inclusive of roots through the development of a semi-automated greedy analysis system (SAGMAS). The system includes synergistic work of a human language informant and a computer system that are both restricted by defined rules of the language. The flowchart of the system is shown in Figure 3.

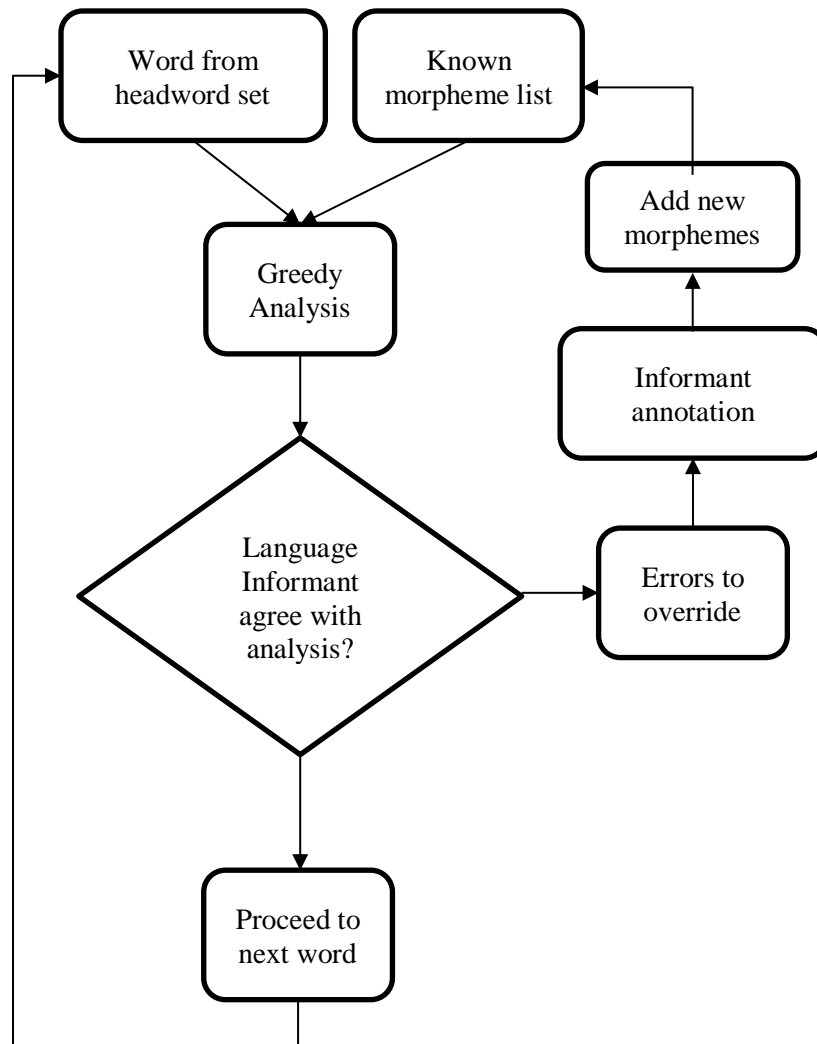


Figure 3. Semi-automated greedy analysis system (SAGMAS) flow chart

The system begins with two inputs, a known set of morphemes and a word from the extracted Pukui and Elbert lexicon. The initial known set of morphemes used were the affixes from Pukui and Elbert, listed in Table 1. The Pukui and Elbert extracted lexicon were added into the system sorted first by length, then alphabetically. The two inputs were run through a greedy analysis algorithm that identifies morphemes from the input word from left to right using a longest match algorithm which is paired with a known set of alphabetized morphemes. The known set of

morphemes is improved upon with human input after analysis of each word; this is the semi-automated portion of the analysis system, the inclusion of a human, the language informant. As the language informant, I complied with the following hierarchical rules in order to determine whether the system should proceed to the next word or parse the word differently. These hierarchical rules provide the system with knowledge of the form and meaning of each word, which is necessary for morphological annotation.

Rule 1: Ignore new morphemes identified in loanwords and add loanword to morpheme list

Loanwords were added as a whole word to the morpheme list because majority of them are phonologically composed words that are based on English words. For instance, the word *kelepona* for the English word telephone was split by the greedy analyzer as *kele-pona* although both roots are on the morpheme list, they do not semantically match the definition of the dictionary headword, *kelepona*. It was chosen to add the whole loanword to the morpheme list because modern terms iterate upon the loanwords. For example, the term for cell phone *kelepona lawelima* is based on the term *kelepona* being a free-form morpheme. The addition of loanwords to the morpheme list is important for use of the identified morpheme list in information retrieval specifically in instances where modern terms are concatenated like *keleponalawelima*.

Rule 2: Contractions were not accepted as new morphemes

Word contractions such as *lā'ī*, the contracted form of *lau + kī*, were not added to the morpheme list.

Rule 3: Add only the root from any word that has reduplication

Elbert and Pukui (1979, pp.64) describe seven types of reduplication. Full reduplication is exemplified by the word *kīpēkīpē* which was properly split into its roots *kīpē-kīpē* by the algorithm. In instances where the word is not fully reduplicated such as *kīpēpē*, only the root, *kīpē*, was added to the morpheme list if the root was not already included. If a reduplication form did not semantically match the root it was added

Rule 4: If there are multiple morphological analyses of a given word, the default is the output from the greedy morphological analysis. If the default analysis is not one of the accepted semantic morphological analysis then add new morphemes to morpheme list.

Hawaiian words are known for having multiple meanings, a portion of the variety of meanings can be attributed to the different morphological breakdowns of a word, for instance, the word *maluhia* could be split into *ma-luhia* or *malu-hia*, both of which are acceptable semantically. The default of the greedy analysis system is *malu-hia* which was the accepted output. Word disambiguation is beyond the scope of this project, therefore if the greedy morphological breakdown is semantically acceptable, it was used as the default for the program. If the semantic meaning was not acceptable by my determination, I identified a morphological split, if necessary using my own knowledge of the language and the word definitions in the Pukui and Elbert dictionary. An example is the word *kaiao* meaning dawn. The greedy analyzer splits the word as *kaia-o* however based on the semantic meaning it should be split as *kai-ao*.

Rule 5: All morphemes with varying orthographies were accepted

The difference in orthographies of words like *kaua* and *kauwa* do not change the semantics of the word. Therefore morphemes with alternate orthographies were both added to the morpheme.

After the rules were applied the system either advanced to the next word or the unique morphemes were added to the compiled morpheme list. If the morphemes were already on the compiled list the entire word and its morphological was added to the SAGMAS errors list.

List of PE Affixes: a, aka, ala, ha, hai, hana, ha‘a, hi, hia, ho, ho‘, ho‘o, hā, hō, hō‘, i, ia, kana, ki, ki, kia, ku, kā, kī, kū, lana, lia, ma, mia, mo, mā, mō, na, nia, no, nā, nō, pa, pu, pā, pū, u, ‘a, ‘i, ‘u, ‘ā, ‘ō, ‘ū *see PE dictionary (1986) for description and use of affixes.					
Iteration	Headword	Greedy Analysis	Informant annotation	Output morpheme(s)	Known morpheme list
Start					List of all PE affixes
1	ha‘alili “to ripple”	ha‘a-lili	ha‘a-lili	ha‘a, lili	PE affixes, lili
2	mokulele “airplane”	mo-ku-lele	moku-lele “flying ship”	moku, lele	PE affixes, lele, lili, moku
3	ha‘alelea “to desert”	ha‘a-lelea	ha‘a-lele-a “to desert”		PE affixes, lele, lili, moku

Table 2. Example of semi-automated greedy analysis system – word level, iteration by iteration. Starting with all affixes as described from the Pukui and Elbert (PE) dictionary.

An example of three iterations of the semi-automated morphological greedy analysis system is shown in Table 2. The semi-automated recursive process was repeated for the entire set of words from the Pukui and Elbert lexicon extracted in Chapter 2. The result of this process is a compiled list of morphemes and a list of SAGMAS errors.

3.2.2 Semi-automated greedy analysis system - Second Pass

The first pass of SAGMAS was a developmental phase that produced a comprehensive list of morphemes as determined by myself, the language informant. A second product of the first pass of SAGMAS is a computational model that includes morphological knowledge, based on the morphemes identified by the language informant, and a greedy match algorithm. The SAGMAS computational model was re-applied through a second pass of SAGMAS to parse each individual word from the generated Pukui and Elbert lexicon relative to the morpheme knowledge provided by the language informant.

The second pass of SAGMAS worked by re-applying the comprehensive list of as a whole to each word of the Pukui and Elbert lexicon to generate a morphological annotation of each word and a list of SAGMAS errors. Figure 4 displays a flow chart of the second pass. The second pass applies the final compiled list of morphemes identified by the first pass to each word in the Pukui and Elbert lexicon using the same greedy analysis Python script as in the first pass. The output of this greedy analysis is an annotation for each word in the Pukui and Elbert extracted lexicon. The annotated lexicon was examined to determine if each word parse was relevant based on the previously established rules. If the morphological annotation of the word complied with the rules it was added to the final morphological annotated word list if it did not comply it was added to the SAGMAS errors list that was previously established during the SAGMAS first pass.

These errors produced by the second pass of SAGMAS are defined as errors of the computational model relative to the ground truth of morphological knowledge associated with the computational model, which in this case is the morphological knowledge of the language informant. The types of errors of the computational model are categorized and detailed in the next sections. Many of items that are considered errors relative to the computational model are considered rich items for linguistic and educational advancement. It is beyond the scope of this dissertation to explore each of the linguistic and educational nuances identified by SAGMAS but instead to focus on the development of the method to identify the roots of the language. The errors produced by the computational model is rich data primed for linguistic explorative research as it pertains to knowledge of Hawaiian morphemes.

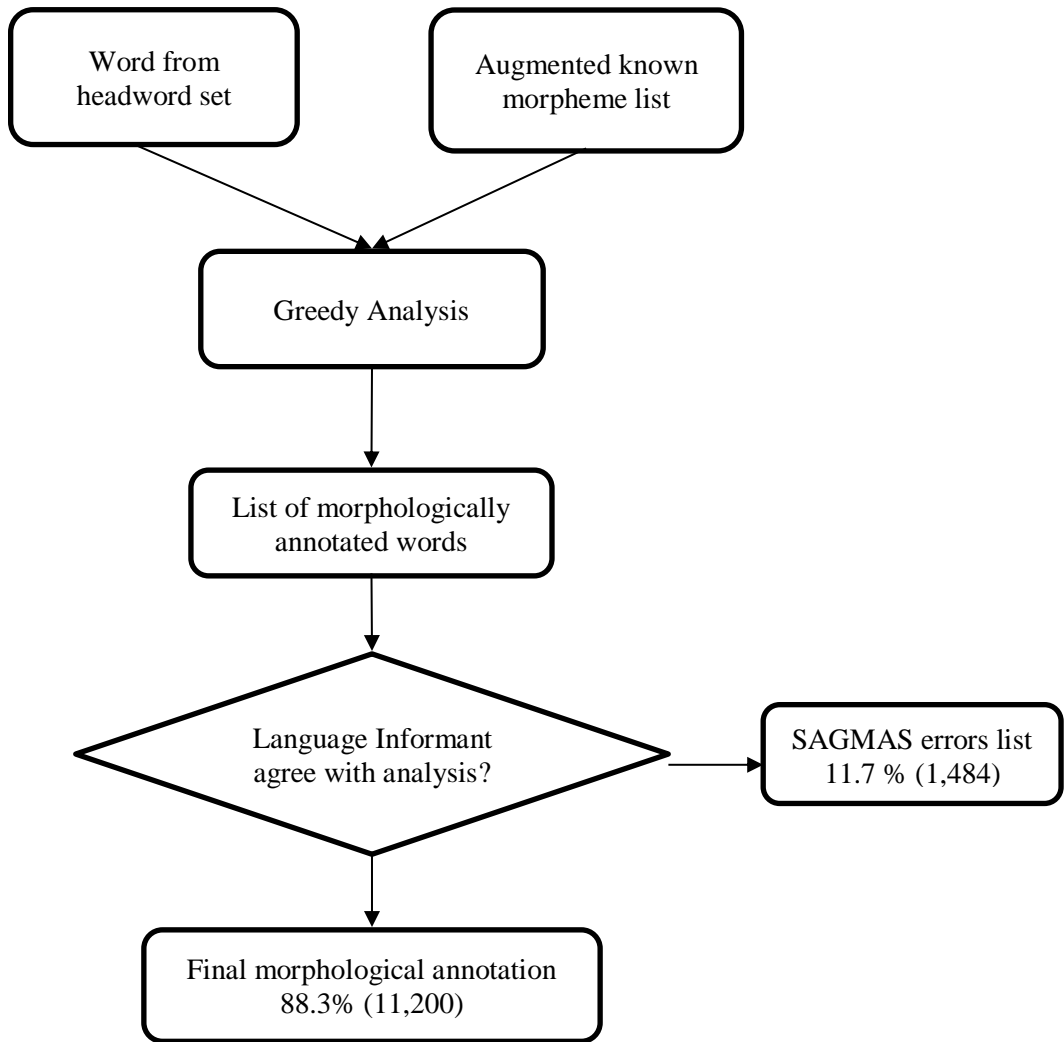


Figure 4. Greedy morphological analysis - Second Pass Flow Chart

3.2.3 SAGMAS Resources, Limitations, and Improvements

The SAGMAS system described in the previous section exemplifies a computational model that can be developed with input from a single language informant with minimal resources. SAGMAS took approximately 128 man-hours for the first analysis, shown in Figure 3. and an additional 36 man-hours for the second analysis, shown in Figure 4. Altogether this method of morphological analysis took 164 man-hours of work with a single language informant coder. The computational model developed was capable of morphologically analyzing 88.3% of the words successfully relative to the language informant annotation.

The aim of SAGMAS was to develop and test a system that allows for the identification of Hawaiian morphemes within words. It is recognized that a key limitation of this method, as it currently stands, is the use of a single language informant. The definition of a morpheme within the context of the Hawaiian language has not yet been fully described. Including other language informants in this study, at this point in time, would impede the development of the system due to the ambiguity of the concept of a Hawaiian morpheme. This research and development of SAGMAS demonstrates that Hawaiian morphemes can be identified using this method of analysis, quantitative evidence is provided in sections 3.3.1 and 4.2.3.

A contribution of the SAGAMAS is the system's ability to create a model of that represents the nuances of a specific language expert's morphological knowledge. The analyzed data of SAGMAS, Chapter 4 and 5, provide baseline data for future comparison with other language informants. A potential for this system is as a mechanism to study differences in language users and questions relating to the development of a unified single model of Hawaiian morphemes. Another potential opportunity for the application of SAGAMAS is for language learners to use it as a tool, that could identify points of consensus and confusion as it pertains to Hawaiian

morphology. In either case there are many potential uses for SAGMAS and for improvement of the technical system as well as the users of the system.

From a broader perspective, this methodology of morphological analysis is ideal for low resource languages to identify an annotated corpus that can be used as training data for an FSTs. It is ideal because only a seed set of morphemes and a language informant is needed to use the system that produces morphologically annotated words. A strength of the data presented in this dissertation should be viewed as baseline data for comparison with other language users and can be used to develop profiles of language users. Profiles of Hawaiian language users for the development of metrics associated with language evaluation is necessary for advocacy and funding of the revitalization of the language. In future iterations, the computational model of SAGMAS can be improved by addressing systematic errors that are defined relative to the single language informant. Crowdsourcing knowledge on Hawaiian morphemes through compiling individual language informants' morphological segmentation profiles is one potential method to improve the system. However, if using a crowdsourcing method to source information, the questions should be addressed during the system design process: 1) *what can we learn about language users through their segmentation of words into morphemes?* and 2) *can multiple language users morphological segmentation profiles be unified into a single model?* The SAGMAS system is not meant to be a static technology providing a prescriptive solution for Hawaiian linguistic morphology but a dynamic tool that is meant to be used to identify and address morphological structures from various Hawaiian knowledges and evolve as more Hawaiian linguistic information is elucidated.

In the sections that follow the SAGMAS computational model errors will be addressed and the morpheme characteristics will be discussed.

3.2.3 SAGMAS Errors

The SAGMAS errors list contained 11.7% of all the words extracted from Pukui and Elbert. The words on the SAGMAS errors list are described and categorized into five different categories: loanwords, prefixes, suffixes, roots, and reduplication, Figure 5 shows the percentage breakdown.

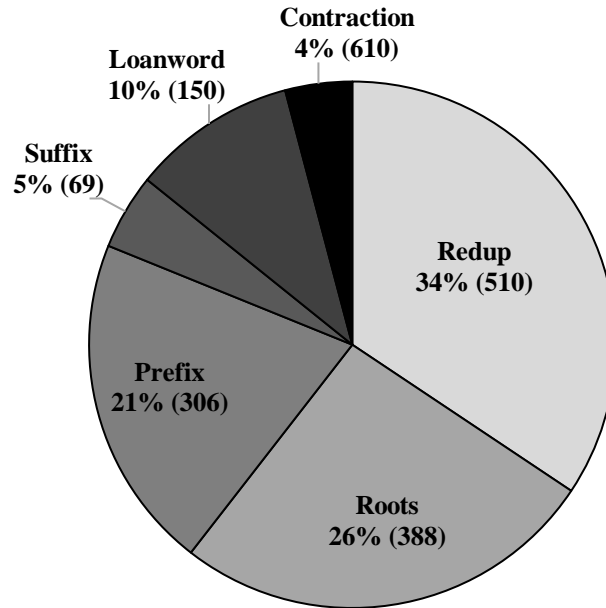


Figure 5. Breakdown of error types of SAGMAS.

3.2.3.1 Reduplication

Reduplication in Hawaiian is a well-studied linguistic phenomenon. Elbert & Pukui (1979, p.64) describes seven types of reduplication. All of the seven reduplication types were detected. Of the seven reduplication types, only one was detected by the greedy analysis algorithm, and the rest were considered errors. The six other reduplication types were not detected by the greedy analysis algorithm because reduplication is based on sub-root additions, which were not on the compiled

morpheme list, Example 1. General rules associated with the six undetected reduplication types would greatly improve SAGMAS.

	Headword	Greedy Analysis	Human annotation
Annotation	Nunui	Nunu-i	nu-nui
Associated meaning	“Plural of nui big,large”	“To extort” + “transitivizer suffix”	No meaning + “big,large”

Example 1. Parse explanation: reduplication type 2, reduplication of the first syllable.

3.2.3.2 Roots

The errors categorized as roots were identified when the human did not agree with the result of the greedy analysis because the semantic meaning of the annotated morphemes did not match the semantic meaning of the word. The roots errors were further categorized into three different types of errors: function words, orthography and potential prefixes.

3.2.3.2.1 Function words & Orthography

Function words were found in full words. Hawaiian function words were difficult for the greedy analysis program because they are generally shorter length words in comparison to roots and affixes. In Example 2., the function word *i* is located in between two roots making it difficult for SAMGAS to identify the root. Root identification was prioritized over function words in the greedy analysis. The function words within full words bring into question word boundaries.

Orthography was difficult for SAGMAS because a single letter substitution or deletion prevented morpheme matches, Example 3. It was found that the orthographic differences were not consistent, for example, the letter n was not always substituted for the letter l, which makes it

difficult to write a general rule for the orthographic differences. Overall there was not a strong prevalence of errors due to function words and orthography, therefore, developing general rules are not ideal for the improvement of SAGMAS; instead the errors should be considered exceptions.

	Headword	Greedy Analysis	Human annotation
Annotation	‘awaikū	‘awa-ikū	‘awa-i-kū
Associated meaning	“Kawa root dug and help up to Kū god”	“kava/bitter” + “officer”	“kava/bitter” + “in/on/at/to” + “stand/Kū god”

Example 2. Function word limitation of greedy analysis

	Headword	Greedy Analysis
Annotation	Ponohuku	pono-huku polo-huku
Associated meaning	A variety of polohuku	“Goodness” + “lump” “Plump” + “lump”

Example 3. Orthography limitation of greedy analysis

3.2.3.2.2 Potential prefixes

Potential prefixes were identified upon analysis when a set of words was not annotated accordingly and the set of words had the same starting characters. The morphemes following the

potential prefixes also had a similar sentiment when used in the word following the potential prefix, Example 4.

Headword with potential annotation	‘īmaka	maka	‘īkoko	koko
Associated meaning	“watchtower”	“eye”	“bloodless”	“blood

Example 4. Potential prefix ‘ī

The set of morphemes in relationship to the potential prefix was semantically analyzed. The potential prefix ‘ī, along with all of the potential prefixes were not apart of the Pukui and Elbert dictionary list of affixes. Further analysis of the potential prefixes, is beyond the scope of this study but will be done in future studies. From the perspective of this study, the potential prefixes should be added to the compiled list of morphemes to improve the greedy analysis. Overall the errors categorized as roots are diverse. The analysis of the errors provides opportunities to improve SAGMAS.

3.2.3.3 Loanwords

Loanwords are defined as non-Hawaiian etymological words. The loanwords that gave SAGMAS difficulty were those that were developed as phonemes of the originating language’s word. In most cases, the greedy analysis system of SAGMAS was capable of providing a morphological analysis of the words. However, the morphological annotation did not match the semantics of the word definition. An interesting finding was certain loanwords were a combination of a Hawaiian root and a phonetic loanword. SAGMAS was not designed for non-Hawaiian etymological words but they should be considered in future studies as the number of loanwords added to Hawaiian vocabulary is rapidly expanding.

Greedy Analysis	Human Parse	Etymological Breakdown
lō-kā-lia	lōkālia	English, rosalie
kai-mana	kaimana	English, diamond

Example 5. of loanword error and proposed correction by the Human Parse.

3.2.3.4 Prefixes

Prefix problems were identified when a prefix was a part of a listed morpheme, see Example 6. The prefix problem was substantial because prefixes are generally two letters which is smaller than most morphemes. Further development of SAGMAS should include rules for when prefixes supersede the greedy match algorithm.

	Headword	Greedy Analysis	Human annotation
Annotation	kūpāpā	Kūpā + pā	Kū + pāpā
Associated meaning	“To grope/feel”	“To dig” + “fenced in area”	“Stative prefix” + “to touch”

Example 6. Prefix limitation of SAGMAS

3.2.3.5 Suffixes

Suffix errors were similar to the prefix errors and were identified when the suffix was used within a morpheme at the end of a word, but based on word semantics the suffix should be used instead of the morpheme, Example 7. A potential method to address the suffix errors is to not only

use a forward match but also a backwards match algorithm that prioritizes suffixes over morphemes.

	Headword	Greedy Analysis	Human annotation
Annotation	hanaua	hana-ua	hanau-a
Associated meaning	“Gave birth”	“work/labor” + “rain”	“To give birth” + “passive suffix”

Example 7. Suffix limitation of SAGMAS

3.2.4 Conclusion

The semi-automated greedy analysis system was used to linguistically annotate a word set from the commonplace dictionary in the Hawaiian language community, the Pukui and Elbert (1984) Hawaiian dictionary. The semi-automated greedy analysis system used a simplistic longest match algorithm paired with a known set of morphemes and was capable of properly analyzing 88.3% of the word set relative to the human parse. The parsing errors were identified, classified, and described in order to lay the foundation for future refinement of SAGMAS.

3.3 Comprehensive List of Morphemes

3.3.1 Length Distribution

The length of a string, either a word or a morpheme, is defined by the number of letters it contains. String length, specifically word length, studies were first conducted by de Morgan in 1851 when he correlated the average length of words to the authorship of documents (Lord, 1958).

Word length was examined as a distribution, or the “characteristic curve”, relative to authorship styles by Mendenhall (Mendenhall, 1887). Morpheme length distribution has been used to describe the endangered language Lakota (Pustet & Altmann, 2005). Both word and morpheme length as an utterance has been used to evaluate first and second language learners (Miller & Chapman, 1981; Parker & Brorson, 2005). String length distribution studies provide a language profile. In this chapter, the first Hawaiian morpheme length distribution profile will be described.

The resulting comprehensive list of morphemes produced from the first pass of SAGMAS is described in this section. A summary description of the comprehensive list of morphemes is provided in Table 3. The list of morphemes were classified by the number of characters in the morphemes and morpheme type, see Appendix D for the full list of morphemes. Character length is the number of letters in a morpheme with the ‘okina (‘) included as a separate character. For example, the morpheme length of *ha‘a* is four characters long. The morpheme type is either affix or root. The morphemes were designated as affixes as defined by Pukui and Elbert (Pukui & Elbert, 1979, pp. 65, 79). Based on this method of identifying morphemes, there was a total of 3661 roots identified. This is the first comprehensive list of Hawaiian roots. The comprehensive list of morphemes is further analyzed through the examination of Table 3.

Morpheme Length	Affixes	Roots	Number of Morphemes
1	4	0	4
2	30	44	74
3	10	240	250
4	5	1053	1058
5	0	712	712
6	0	1149	1149
7	0	302	302
8	0	145	145
9	0	16	16
Totals	49	3661	3710

Table 3. Summary list of morphemes categorized by morpheme length.

3.3.2 Morpheme Certainty

To further establish the boundaries of this list of morphemes the certainty of each identified morpheme was examined. Potential ambiguity of each morpheme was assessed through analysis of two questions: 1) *are there subcomponent morphemes within the identified morpheme?* 2) *if there are subcomponents, does the identified morpheme have a semantic meaning different than the subcomponents?* If the language informant responded agreed with both of the previous questions, then the word was considered to have a degree of uncertainty. The certainty distribution of the morphemes broken down by morpheme length is shown in Figure 6. The words categorized as uncertain are ideal for language informants to debate in order to potentially conclude on a generalized conceptualization of Hawaiian morphological parsing. It was found that there was more certainty of morphemes that have a length of 5 or less characters, as seen by the intersection

of the certain and uncertain plots in Figure 6. Although working with multiple language informants is ideal, it is beyond the scope of this dissertation due to inability of language informants to agree on a single "certain" morphological breakdown of a word and the purpose of this dissertation which is to develop a system to identify Hawaiian morphemes. The morphemes listed as uncertain should be addressed first in future studies that include other language informants in order to optimize resources.

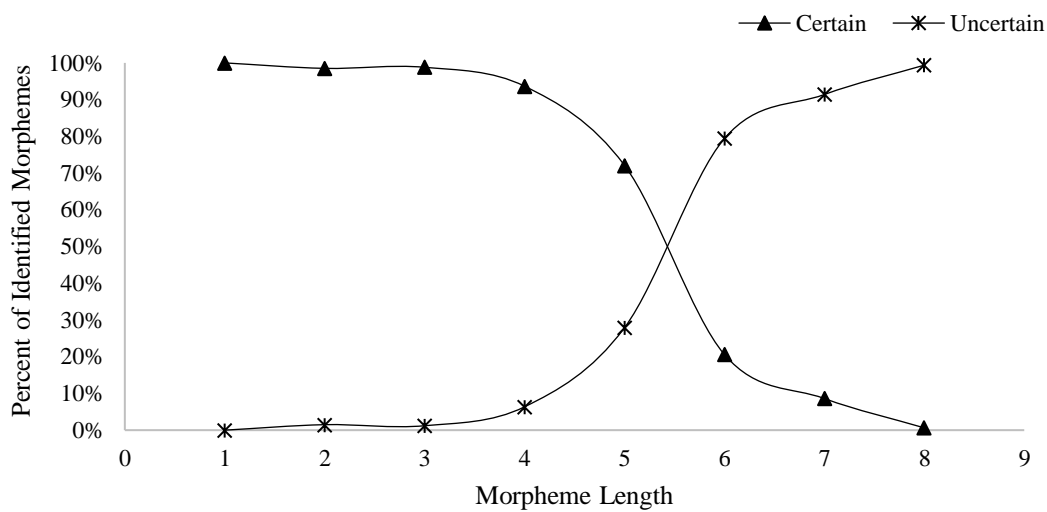


Figure 6. Certainty of identified morphemes.

I found that morpheme certainty is greater for shorter length morphemes, specifically the morphemes equal to or less than a character length of 5. The uncertainty of identified morphemes is largely due to reduplication and multiple meanings associated with identified morpheme subcomponents. This identification of uncertain roots is an ideal list for future studies that includes multiple language informants. This list uncertain roots is the first of its kind because it creates a more targeted list for future studies, allowing other scholars to iterate and improve upon the findings here. I recommended to include multiple perspectives on the uncertain list of morphemes because there are many ways to morphologically segment a word based on a language informant's

background knowledge. Agreement by multiple language informants on morphological segmentation of the uncertain list of roots is unnecessary at this point in the development of SAGMAS because multiple language informants would not definitively agree on a single morpheme segmentation, but using multiple language informants in future studies would improve the generalizability of this system.

	Affix	Root	Morpheme
Mean	2.33	5.16	5.13
Standard Error	0.11	0.02	0.02
Median	2.00	5.00	5.00
Mode	2.00	6.00	6.00
Standard Deviation	0.77	1.30	1.34
Sample Variance	0.60	1.69	1.78
Minimum	1.00	1.00	1.00
Maximum	4.00	9.00	9.00
Kurtosis	0.35	-0.31	-0.23
Skewness	0.75	0.17	0.09
Range	3.00	8.00	8.00

Table 4. Morpheme length distribution descriptive statistics

3.3.3 Morpheme Length

Morpheme length is the number of characters in a morpheme. The overall morpheme length ranged from one to nine with the average length of a morpheme being 5.13 characters. The average character length of affixes is 2.33 ranging from one to four with standard deviation of 0.77. The average length for roots is 5.16 characters ranging from one to nine characters with a standard deviation of 1.30 showing minimal variability of root length. Although there are no

similar studies in related Polynesian languages like Māori or Samoan, for comparison the Turkish language, an agglutinative language, statistics are provided for comparison which has an average root length of 6.60 and an average suffix length of 3.56 (Gungor, 2003).

3.3.4 Root Character Length Distribution

Root length distribution was examined for skewness and outliers, see Table 4. Morpheme length distribution descriptive statistics. The Kurtosis measure of distribution was -0.31 for the roots. The negative Kurtosis metric implies a Platykurtic distribution. The Platykurtic distribution is visualized in Figure 7, where the tails of the root distribution has thin tails. For the roots identified, there are less extreme possible roots in comparison to a normal distribution. The skewness of the root distribution is close to zero, it is 0.17 showing that the distribution is skewed slightly to the right, there are more roots that are on the left side of the curve. This shows that there are slightly more roots with a character length less than 5.16. This analysis shows that the root character length is heavily centered around the mean number, 5.16. An interesting feature of the root distribution, as seen in Figure 7, is that it is bimodal. The two-mode peaks are at the even character root lengths, 4 and 6. The bimodal distribution of the root character length supports the phonological analysis of the language in which consonants are always immediately accompanied after by a vowel. Using the CV system, where C is a consonant and V is a vowel, acceptable Hawaiian words include CVCV or CVVx but never CC, consonants are always followed by a vowel but vowels can be followed by any number of vowels. Therefore there are more even length morphemes in the language.

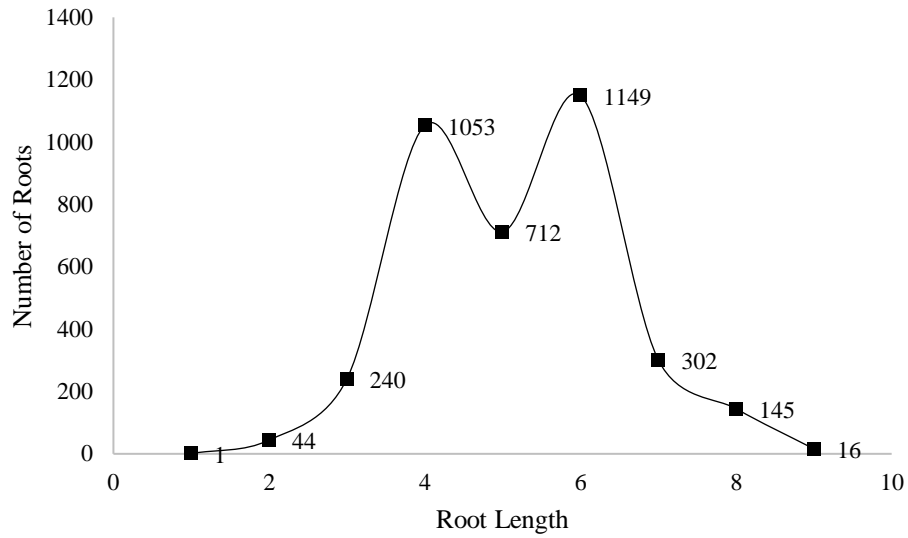


Figure 7. Root length distribution

3.3.5 Affix Length Character Distribution

The skewness and outliers of affix character length distribution was analyzed. The affix Kurtosis measure of distribution was 0.35. The positive Kurtosis metric implies a *Leptokurtic* distribution, visualized in Figure 8, with more affixes in the outlier region in comparison to a normal distribution. The affix distribution is heavily skewed to the right, with a skewness value of 0.75, with more affixes on the left side of the curve. This supports the result that affixes are smaller in length.

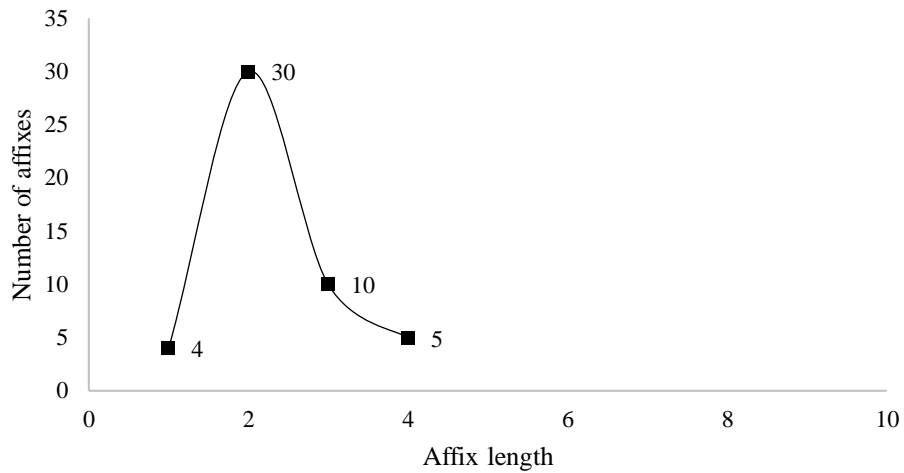


Figure 8. Affix length distribution

Conclusion

Morpheme length distribution is categorically defined by roots and affixes to provide the first Hawaiian morpheme length distribution profiles. Affixes are characteristically shorter in length than roots. Morpheme length distribution is influenced by a large number of roots (98%) relative to the number of affixes (2%). Distribution of morphemes are centered around their mean providing evidence the identified morphemes are categorically similar, as roots and affixes.

Chapter IV: Morphological Structure

4.1 Relevant Literature

The final morphologically annotated lexicon produced from the second pass of the semi-automated greedy analysis system in Chapter 3 is analyzed and discussed in this section. Frequency and relationship of morphemes are analyzed providing foundational characteristic profiles of Hawaiian morphological typology and frequency distributions. For this dissertation, this chapter addresses the question, *What is the relationship between the morphemes of the Hawaiian language?*

4.1.1 Network Theory

Network analysis is used to examine the morpheme relationship structure of the words extracted from Pukui and Elbert. Network analysis is based on network theory in which graphs are used to explore the relationships between discrete units (Barabási, 2016). Network theory is applied to linguistics, including word and morphological networks, and has been used to profile the overall structure and sub-structures of a language (Abramov, n.d.; Cong & Liu, 2014). Linguistic networks are useful for structural comparisons between different languages (Abramov, n.d., pp. 45–46). Directed networks provide quantitative information on frequency and co-occurrence of lexical item usage. Gao et al. (2014) provides an example of directed networks used to compare six different languages based on their network structure, including node frequency degree distribution. Frequency distribution of lexical items is compared to a power-law, because “a power-law degree distribution of a network implies that there are relatively a few number of nodes having very big number of connections, which are often called hubs, while most of the nodes have a few connections in the network” (Gao et al., 2014). Zipf’s law is a specific type of power-

law, which states that given a corpus of natural language the frequency of any utterance is inversely proportional to its rank (Piantadosi, 2014; Zipf, 1949). The morphological structure of the overall Hawaiian language, as characterized by the words extracted from Pukui and Elbert, is evaluated in this chapter through network analysis metrics, where the discrete units of analysis are the morphemes identified in Chapter 3.

4.1.2 Morpheme Typology

Morpheme relationships at the word level are characterized by morphological typology. Morphological typology is the classification of languages based on morpheme structure. The two broad categories of morphological typology are analytic and synthetic. Analytic languages have a morpheme per word ratio close to one, whereas synthetic languages have a morpheme per word ratio greater than one (Booij, 2010, p. 42). Synthetic languages are further categorized as agglutinative, fusional, polysynthetic and oligosynthetic. Polynesian languages, including Hawaiian, are often categorized as agglutinative (Brown, 1907, p. 82). It is acknowledged there is a disconnect between grammar categorization systems stemming from Latin that are applied to non-latin derived languages (Brown, 1907, p. 83). However, this study frames the current work within the Latin-based morpheme system and the associated morphological typology categories discussed as a means to compare the Hawaiian language relative to other studies of linguistic morphology.

4.1.3 Diacritical Markings

The use of diacritical markings is an issue of controversy in the Hawaiian language community. The placement of the diacritical markings are important as they aid in word sense disambiguation. For example, the word *mānoa* means vast, deep, or thick, whereas the word *manoa* means numerous. The lack of diacritic markers increases the ambiguity of words. Many of the

historical digitized Hawaiian documents lack diacritical markings as seen in the documents on Ulukau (Hale Kuamo‘o, n.d.). The inconsistency of diacritical markings is an issue to address in future studies associated with information retrieval. Recently, Shillingford and Jones Parker (Shillingford & Parker Jones, 2018) address the missing diacritic markers in historical texts through the development of a language model that aids in automatic insertion of diacritical markers, however, the statistical ambiguity of words due to diacritical marking was not addressed. In this chapter, I address statistical ambiguity of morphemes due to missing diacritical markings.

4.2 Network Analysis for Word Morphology

The resulting morphologically annotated words produced from the second pass of the semi-automated greedy analysis system in Chapter 3 was used as the input for the network analysis. Using the network analysis software, Gephi, morpheme frequency and relationships were visualized and examined (Bastian, Heymann, & Jacomy, 2009). A single network graph was produced from the parsed words, an edge list of the graph is provided in Appendix E. The graph is described as a directed network where the nodes are morphemes and edges are the morpheme connections within a given word. For example, the two words *ho‘omākaukau* and *ho‘omaka* are graphed as a network in Figure 9. The word *ho‘omākaukau* is split into four different morphemes *ho‘o-mā-kau-kau*, since *kau* is a reduplication it is denoted by a self-loop. The word *ho‘omaka* is split into two morphemes *ho‘o-maka*. Each unique morpheme has one assigned node, as seen by the example *ho‘o* node. The sample edge list for the graph of the two words is shown in Table 5.

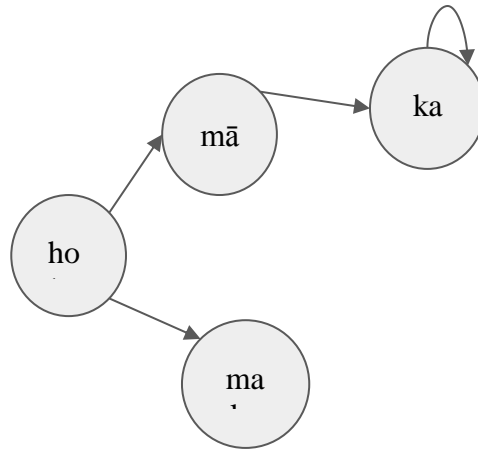


Figure 9. Example of Morpheme Network Analysis

ho‘o, mā
ho‘o, maka
kau, kau
mā, kau

Table 5. Example edge list based on morpheme network in Table 8

4.2.1 Network Analysis of Hawaiian Morphological Structure

A network analysis of the words from Pukui and Elbert (1986) show there are 2447 unique morphemes, nodes, the number of nodes differs from the 3710 identified morphemes because of errors associated with the SAGMAS computational model errors. The network has 8989 connections, edges, between the nodes. There are 732 morphemes that have self-loops, meaning they reduplicate themselves. The average node degree, described as the number of edges regardless of direction, that any node has is 3.495. This means that on average a single given morpheme connects to 3.495 other morphemes. The most frequent morphemes, as defined by the morphemes with the highest node degrees, were further analyzed to better understand specific instances of morpheme relationships and structures. In combination with studies on word frequency and coverage, such as my pilot study on High Frequent Hawaiian words Hosoda (*in publication*), morpheme frequency has applications in Hawaiian pedagogical practices. An example of

application is to teach more frequent morphemes earlier because of their broader coverage of the language, but this application must be in conjunction with high word frequencies in the case that the most frequent words may consist of lower frequency morphemes.

4.2.2 Highest Degree Morphemes

Node degree is interpreted as the use of the morphemes within words. High node degree shows the morphemes that are most used within words. Nodes that have more directed edges, arrows, pointing away from them have a higher out-degree. For this network, nodes with a high out-degree are morphemes that often occur before other morphemes. For this analysis, out-degree is used to examine prefixes in words. In-degree is calculated by the number of directed edges pointing towards a given node. Nodes with a high in-degree for this network are morphemes that often occur after other morphemes. Node in-degree was used to examine suffixes in this study.

Degree		Indegree		Outdegree	
ho‘o	402	a	223	ho‘o	395
kū	273	na	202	kū	203
a	229	hia	71	‘ō	154
na	205	i	71	pā	153
‘ō	192	kū	70	hā	135
pā	177	hi	63	kā	126
hā	166	la	63	pū	112
kā	164	ā	53	‘ā	110
pū	139	wai	51	hō‘	108
‘ā	136	lua	51	mā	101
wai	120	ka	48	kī	84
lau	118	‘i	48	pō	83

Table 6. Top 12 highest degree, in-degree and out-degree morphemes

The top 12 morphemes with the highest degrees are shown in Table 6. Top 12 highest degree, in-degree and out-degree morphemes. The morphemes highlighted in gray have a high degree due to frequent out-degree usage. The morphemes highlighted in white have a high degree due to frequent in-degree usage. There are two morphemes with high degree, *kū* and *lau*, that are not exclusively explained by frequent in-degree or out-degree usage. The high degree of these two morphemes is explained by their varied use in both in-degree and out-degree. It posited this result correlates with the semantic meaning of the morphemes and frequency of usage within words. In Pukui and Elbert (1986) there are 17-word senses listed for *kū* and 8-word senses listed for *lau*. A full description of the number of morpheme senses is beyond the scope of this dissertation but this

analysis motivates a need for future work in understanding and describing of senses relative to morpheme usage.

4.2.2.1 In-Degree Morphemes

The morphemes with high in-degree were examined from the perspective of suffixes. The top 12 morphemes with the highest in-degree are *a*, *na hia*, *i*, *kū*, *hi*, *la*, *ā*, *wai*, *lua*, *ka*, and *'i*, as seen in Table 6. Top 12 highest degree, in-degree and out-degree morphemes. The morphemes identified with high in-degree that are not listed as suffixes in *Hawaiian Grammar* (1979) are *ā*, *wai*, and *lua*.

Although *ā* is not an affix, it is described as a ligature, which combines a verb and a noun, creating “compounds [whose] total meaning is usually somewhat different from the meaning of the parts” (Pukui & Elbert, 1979, p. 124). The use of *ā* as a ligature explains its high in-degree because of its use in compound words. Pukui and Elbert’s description of *ā* highlights a limitation of this study, in that certain compound words hold different semantic meaning than their associated roots, which is a rich topic for future work.

The morphemes *wai* and *lua* do not have grammatical features listed in *Hawaiian Grammar* that would cause them to have a higher in-degree. The semantic meanings associated with these two morphemes provides an explanation for their high in-degree. The morpheme *wai* has 6-word senses listed in the *Hawaiian Dictionary*. The meanings associated with *wai* make it a commonly used root, in other words, specifically the following two meanings listed in the *Hawaiian Dictionary*:

1. nvs. Water, liquid or liquor of any kind other than sea water
4. vi. To retain, place, leave, remain, earn, deposit

The morpheme *lua* has eight semantic meanings listed in the *Hawaiian Dictionary*. Three of the listed definitions of *lua* make it a relatively common root, specifically the meanings:

1. n. Hole, pit, grave, den, cave, mine, crater.
 3. num. Two, second, secondary, twice, deuce, double; doubly, much, a great deal.
 4. n. Equal, likeness, duplicate copy, match
- lua-. To enjoy oneself.

The analysis of high in-degree morphemes highlights two features that play a role in the morphological structure of Hawaiian words, grammatical features and semantic meanings. Future studies that delve into the grammatical features and semantic meanings associated with high frequent in-degree morphemes can further address categorization and understanding of morphemes.

4.2.2.2 Out-Degree Morphemes

The morphemes with high out-degree were examined from the perspective of prefixes. The top 12 morphemes with the highest out-degree are *ho 'o*, *kū*, *'ō*, *pā*, *hā*, *kā*, *pū*, *'ā*, *hō*, *mā*, *kī*, and *pō*, as seen in Table 6. Top 12 highest degree, in-degree and out-degree morphemes. All of the morphemes with the highest out-degree are listed as prefixes in *Hawaiian Grammar* (Pukui & Elbert, 1986) except *pō*. Based on its frequency and characterized usage in this analysis combined with its description in the *Hawaiian Dictionary*, evidence suggests *pō* is a derivational prefix.

Description of *pō* in the *Hawaiian Dictionary*: “*Time of, state of. See below, especially po 'ele 'ele, pōhae, pōhihi, pōhina, pō 'ino, pōka 'a, pōka 'o, pōlena, pōlewa, pōluku, pōmaika 'i, pōnalo, pōniho, pōniu, pōpilikia, pōule. Also po-*”

(Pukui & Elbert, 1986)

This unique finding that pō is considered a derivational affix provides support for further analysis of high out-degree morphemes that are not currently listed as prefixes, as only the top 12 high out-degree morphemes were examined.

4.2.3 Degree Distribution and Zipf's Law

Zipf's law states that given a corpus of natural language the frequency of any utterance is inversely proportional to its rank (Piantadosi, 2014; Zipf, 1949). Here it is used to examine morpheme frequency distribution to determine whether the morphemes identified are reasonable utterances of the Hawaiian language. This distribution is used to determine the appropriateness and truth of identified morphemes. Where identified utterances, in this case, morphemes follow the Zipf's distribution law the set of morphemes may be construed as true utterances of the language. Deviation from Zipf's distribution suggests morphemes that are not true utterances of the language. The morphemes were ranked by the degree to examine if morpheme usage follows Zipf's law. The top 1000 degree ranked morphemes were plotted on a logarithmic scale and analyzed.

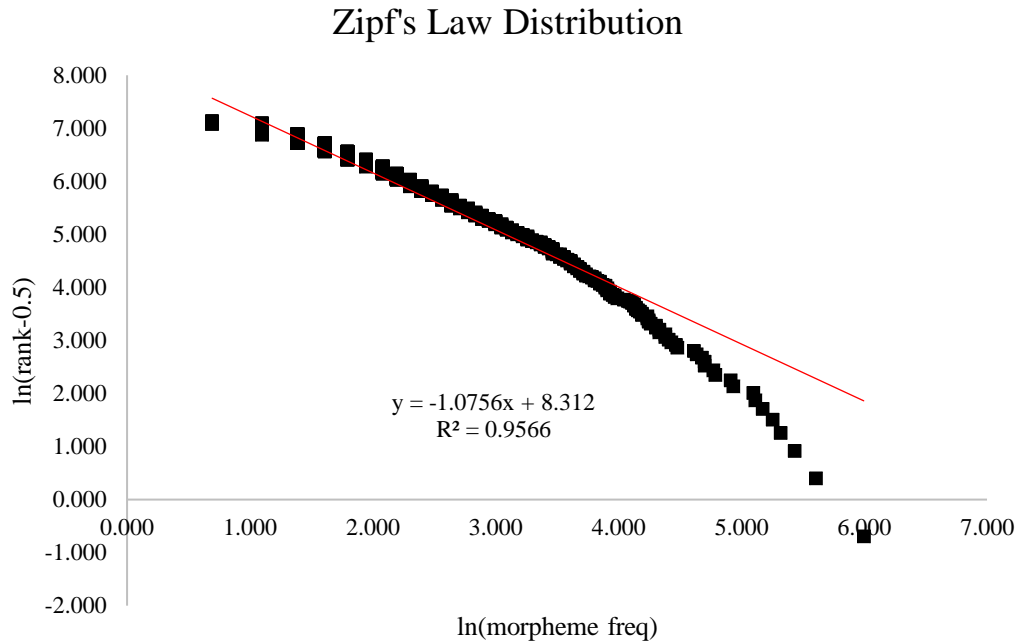


Figure 10. Zipf's Law Distribution on Logarithmic Scale

$\chi^2(1000)$	2632.18933
df	999
alpha	0.05
critical value	1073
$\chi^2 > \text{critical value}$	
<p>H₀: Morpheme degree is distributed according to Zipf's law H₁: Morpheme degree is not distributed according to Zipf's Law Conclusion: $\chi^2 > \text{critical value}$ therefore H₀ supported</p>	

Table 7. Chi-Squared Test of Independence between Morpheme degree and Zipf's Law

Regression analysis shows an R^2 value of 0.96 which is associated with a "good linear fit" meaning the data is modeled relatively well by the Zipf's law distribution, see Figure 10. To determine a

significant relationship between morpheme usage relative to Zipf’s law, a Chi-squared test of independence was run, see Table 7. Chi-Squared Test of Independence between Morpheme degree and Zipf’s Law. The null hypothesis that the morpheme degree usage is distributed according to Zipf’s law was supported ($\chi^2 > \text{critical value}$, $\alpha=0.05$). This shows that there is a significant relationship between morpheme degree distribution and Zipf’s law.

4.3 Hawaiian Morpheme to Word Ratio

Based on this data set, the average morphemes per word ratio is 1.81 with a range from one to seven. Figure 11 displays the breakdown of the counts of words with different numbers of constituent morphemes.

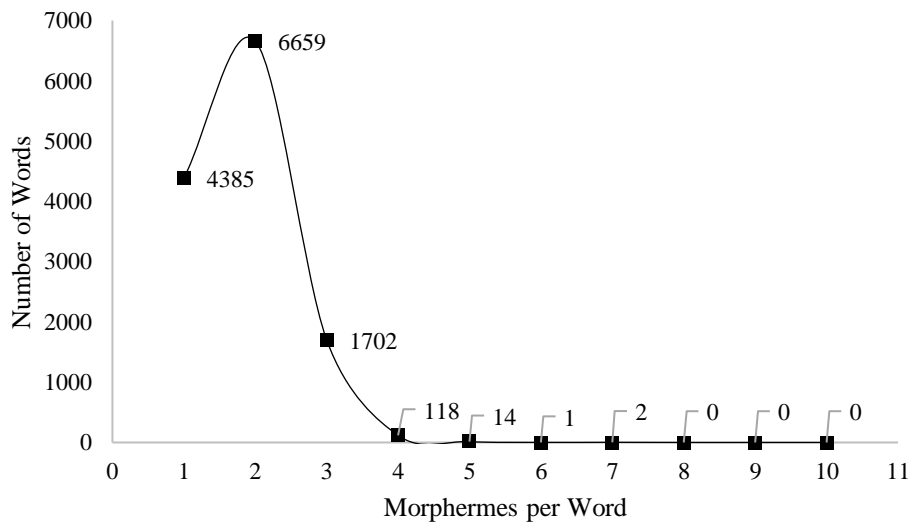


Figure 11. Counts of words with different morpheme lengths

Most of the words, 6659, had a morpheme per word ratio of 2, an example is *malu-hia* which includes a root and a suffix as the two annotated morphemes. There were two words with the largest number of morphemes per word, 7. One of the words with seven annotated morphemes and its associated morphological annotation is *hī-newa-newa-hī-newa-newa-ū* which is defined by Pukui and Elbert as “Variety of hīnawenawe”. The word *hīnawenawe* is translated by Pukui and

Elbert as “vs. Thin, feeble, weak, spindling, slender, puny, debilitated.” Although the word *hīnewanewahīnewanewaū* is long, it has minimal variety of roots because of the two forms of reduplication: *hīnewanewa* and *newa* are reduplicated. The semantic meaning of the word correlates with the associated root meanings that are bolded in Table 8 that lists the morphemes and their associated meanings from Pukui and Elbert (1986). The meanings of the morpheme *ū* do not correlate with the meaning of the word, this could be due to *ū* having a definition other than those listed in Pukui and Elbert.

<i>hī</i>	1. vt. To cast or troll, as for bonito, ‘ahi, and kala. (PPN sii.) 2. nvt. Dysentery, diarrhea; to flow, hiss; to purge. Ka hī koko (Oih. 28.8), a bloody flux. ho‘o.hī Caus/sim.; to purge. (PPN sii.)
<i>newa</i>	1. n. War club, cudgel, policeman's club; fluted stone, as held in the hand as a stone club; fluted stone inserted in one end of a war club or dagger, as the pāhoa. 2. nvi. To reel, stagger; dizziness, vertigo; dizzy. ho‘o.newa Caus/sim. (PCP newa.) 3. (<i>Cap.</i>) A constellation, probably the Southern Cross.
<i>ū</i>	1. n. Breast, teat, udder. Cf. <i>waiū</i> . (PPN huhu.) 2. vs. Moist, soaked; to drip, drizzle, ooze; impregnated, as with salt. Cf. <i>kawaiū</i> , <i>ko‘ū</i> , <i>ma‘ū</i> . Ū ke kapa i ka ua, the tapa was wet by the rain. ho‘o.ū, hō.‘ū To moisten, soak, wet.

Table 8. Morphemes in the word *hīnewanewahīnewanewaū* and their associated definitions from Pukui and Elbert

Overall, the results here show the Hawaiian language has a relatively low morpheme per word ratio suggesting it is possibly classified as a more analytic language. However, the results here are limited by the data used, the dictionary headwords, and only a single language informant. The words in the Hawaiian dictionary may not be the best representation of the morphemes per word ratio used in general Hawaiian documents because they are distilled dictionary headwords. For example, common usage may further emphasize the lower morpheme word counts or vice-versa.

4.4 Morpheme Ambiguity due to Diacritic Markers

The statistical ambiguity of words due to diacritical marking was not addressed. Here I quantify the ambiguity of Hawaiian morphemes due to diacritic markers at the lexical level. The diacritics, ‘okina and kahakō, were removed from all morphemes on the comprehensive list using regular expression substitution commands. A frequency count of duplicate morpheme entries without diacritic markers was done using a developed frequency Python script resulting in Table 9.

Number of Morpheme Variants	Frequency of morphemes with number of variants
5	2
4	29
3	79
2	381
1	2570

Table 9. Frequency count of morpheme variants.

This analysis of variants of morphemes due to diacritic markings provides a statistical analysis of morpheme ambiguity. It was found that 30.51% of morphemes have lexical ambiguity due to missing diacritical markings. The maximum number of morpheme variants due to lack of diacritic markings was five. The morphemes that had the five variants due to omitted diacritic markers were *ai* and *nau* shown in Table 10.

	variant 1	variant 2	variant 3	variant 4	variant 5
<i>ai</i>	<i>ai</i>	<i>aī</i>	<i>a‘i</i>	<i>‘ai</i>	<i>‘ā‘ī</i>
<i>nau</i>	<i>nau</i>	<i>nāu</i>	<i>na‘u</i>	<i>na‘ū</i>	<i>nā‘ū</i>

Table 10. Morphemes with five variants due to diacritic markings.

The identified variants of morphemes due to lack of diacritic markers shows a basic understanding of the complexity of Hawaiian due to ambiguity. Though beyond the scope of this dissertation, it is noted that ambiguity of morphemes is compounded by the number of definitions associated with each morpheme variant. I posit that ambiguity at the word level is even greater because multiple morphemes are used to construct words further complicating the problem of ambiguity and should be further addressed in future studies. An example of how the variants impact word ambiguity is demonstrated with the string of letters, *malama*. The ambiguous variants of *malama* are shown in Table 11, specifically ambiguity due to diacriticals are listed in the first column and the compounded ambiguity associated with morphemes segmentation is listed in columns 3-5. The semantically plausible variants, defined as the segments of the variants that have a specific meaning associated with the fragment at the morpheme or word level, are shown in green in Table 11. In this case the semantically plausible variants are *malama*, *mālama*, *lama*, *mala*, *māla*, *la*, *lā*, *ma* and any of their combinations. This analysis shows that there are potentially 28 different lexical variants of the word *malama* with 14 of the variants having a semantic definition.

Diacritical Variants	Morpheme Segmentation Variants		
malama	ma lama	mala ma	ma la ma
mālama	mā lama	māla ma	mā la ma
mālāma	mā lāma	mālā ma	mā lā ma
mālāmā	mā lāmā	mālā mā	mā lā mā
malāma	ma lāma	malā ma	ma lā ma
malāmā	ma lāmā	malā mā	ma lā ma
malamā	ma lamā	mala mā	ma la mā

Table 11. Ambiguity due diacritical and Morpheme Segmentation

This quantitative analysis provides support for characters with diacritical markings to be considered distinct letters since they carry significance in the definitions of words. Specifically, I suggest that instead of the 13 letters in the standardized modern Hawaiian alphabet there are 18 letters in the alphabet where each of the elongated vowels are categorized as a separate letter resulting in the following alphabet: A, E, I, O, U, H, K, L, M, N, P, W, ‘, Ā, Ē, Ī, Ō, Ū. Current, Hawaiian pedagogical practices focus on phonetics and mimicking the sound of the language (Wilson & Kamanā, 2017). Distinction of the letters with diacritical markers provides the foundation for improved semantic understanding of the written Hawaiian language, through disambiguation of terms with diacritical markings.

Chapter V: Morphemes and Information Retrieval

5.1 Relevant Literature

5.1.1 Hawaiian Information Retrieval

Hawaiian language in the digital realm has been prevalent since the invention of Leokī, the first indigenous, Hawaiian, language bulletin board system in the world, developed in 1997 (Warschauer, 1997). The two most common, referenced, searchable, Hawaiian databases are Ulukau and Papakilo. Ulukau is an online digital library that runs on Greenstone open-source software (Hale Kuamo‘o, n.d.; Witten et al., 2000). Papakilo is a database that houses multiple Hawaiian databases, including Ulukau. The Papakilo database also uses the Greenstone open-source software and is run as a digital library (Office of Hawaiian Affairs, 2018). Greenstone works with two search indexers: 1) MGPP, an indexer developed by the New Zealand digital library group, and 2) Lucene, an indexer supported by the Apache Software Foundation (“Apache Lucene - Apache Lucene Core,” n.d.; Witten et al., 2000). According to Greenstone, both the MGPP and Lucene indexers do not apply linguistic morphology information retrieval tools to search queries.

Another commonly used search engine that is capable of handling Hawaiian language search queries is Google. A full understanding of information techniques used by Google for Hawaiian language queries is unknown. Through usage of Google for Hawaiian language queries, it has been seen that the search engine may use diacritical marking folding and n-grams in order to optimize information retrieval (Schulze, 2000). Based on current understanding of Google’s Hawaiian language information retrieval algorithms, Hawaiian morphology is not a component used.

All current Hawaiian information retrieval systems analyzed do not use Hawaiian linguistic morphology as a component of their search engine index. In comparison, lemmatization, the text normalization technique based on linguistic morphology, is commonly used to facilitate fast, accurate, information retrieval of English text documents. This suggests the need to examine the effect of Hawaiian morphology parses on information retrieval from Hawaiian search queries.

The Hawaiian names carry significance associated with descriptions of natural phenomena. Historical Hawaiian documents include proper nouns that have been seen as just names but really they encode knowledge. For example, *Papahānaumokuakea* is a name but the morphological segmentation of the name provides *Papa-hānau-moku-ākea* which identifies the multiple roots within the name. Historians such as Fornander (2017) recognized the importance of these morphological structures included the annotation of proper nouns in their writings. However, many of the proper nouns in historical documents are not morphologically annotated. An additional contributing factor to the need for morphological parsing for information retrieval of historical Hawaiian documents is that word boundaries were fluid. For example, the name *Papahānaumokuakea* is sometimes written as *Papahānau Mokuākea* and other writings have it separate as two words written as *Papahānaumoku ākea*. Here I provide a conceptual framework and application examples of morpheme parsing and indexing for information retrieval that addresses word boundaries and identification of the main semantic meaning of a query.

5.1.2 Information Retrieval

Morphological annotation aids in the normalization of linguistic data for natural language processing, such as the text processing technique called lemmatization. Lemmatization includes word-level semantic analysis in comparison to the text processing technique, word stemming, which operates at the syntax level (Jurafsky & Martin, 2018, pp. 22–27). Lemmatization is a word

processing technique commonly used to normalize words, by reducing a full word to only its roots prior to information retrieval (Jurafsky & Martin, 2018, pp. 26–27). Normalizing words prior to searching has shown to improve information retrieval in various languages (Balakrishnan & Lloyd-Yemoh, 2014; Can et al., 2008; Carlberger et al., 2001). Information retrieval is evaluated using precision and recall metrics. Precision is defined as the fraction of documents retrieved that are relevant to the user's query. Recall is defined as the fraction of the documents that are relevant to the query that is successfully retrieved (Baeza-Yates & Ribeiro, 2011).

$$\text{precision} = \frac{|\{\text{relevant documents}\} \cap \{\text{retrieved documents}\}|}{|\{\text{retrieved documents}\}|}$$

$$\text{recall} = \frac{|\{\text{relevant documents}\} \cap \{\text{retrieved documents}\}|}{|\{\text{relevant documents}\}|}$$

These metrics are used to compare morphological parsing results from the query and its potential impact if both the query and documents are morphologically parsed and indexed. Query expansion is used to increase number of the retrieved documents, for example searching for all morphological forms of a word (Moreau, Claveau, & Sébillot, 2007). Morphological query segmentation for query expansion has been shown to improve information retrieval of medical documents, which contain morpheme-rich medical terms similar to agglutinative languages (Schulz & Hahn, 2000). Indexing documents by morphological segmentation improves information retrieval and knowledge extraction (US6212494B1, 2001). Morphological segmentation of queries and indexed documents can improve precision and recall associated with information retrieval.

In the next sections, I provide conceptual models and examples of query expansions and document indexing with morphological segmentation to address the research question: *How can knowledge of Hawaiian morphemes inform information retrieval of Hawaiian language documents?*

5.2 Query Expansion with Morphological Segmentation

The first conceptual model focuses on the morphological segmentation of the query. To demonstrate this case, only the query is morphologically parsed then entered into an established Hawaiian language database, Ulukau. Query expansion aids by converting the user's search terms into the morphological components that are then searched for. This type of parsing is ideal for users who are not accustomed to the Hawaiian language.

5.2.1 Stemming and Query Parsing

This query is an example of stemming associated with the morphological parsing. Stemming is used to remove affixes, leaving only the stem or root of the word. The query term, *ho'omaluhia* was run without parsing yielding 16 hits in Ulukau. The term was parsed morphologically creating three query units, *ho'o-malu-hia*, two of which are affixes, *ho'o* and *hia*. Using the Boolean AND search operator the three units were queried resulting in 1113 search hits. The stem or root, *malu*, was queried by itself because search engines that use stemming remove affixes and search only the root term. In this case, the query *malu* produced 6870 search results.

Query	Search hits in Ulukau
ho'omaluhia	16
ho'o malu hia	1113
malu	6870

Table 12. Stemming associated with morphological query parsing

The stemming process led to increased results associated with the query term *ho'omaluhia*. The increased number of results due to stemming has the potential to improve recall, as there are more retrieved results. However, the precision of stemming may decrease depending on the user's intention for the query.

5.2.2 Morphological Parsing of a Query Phrase

This query was used to demonstrate how morphological parsing works with the sentence or phrase queries. Often times, those who are not accustomed to the Hawaiian language are unaware of word boundaries leading to phrases, even whole sentences, being seen as a single word or query term. Here an entire sentence is analyzed as a potential query and compared to different morphological parsing queries. The morphological parser broke the word into six different morphemes, *aia-i-hea- 'o-maka-pu 'u*. Table 13 shows the results of query parsing of a sentence. Initially, the query phrase by itself produced zero hits. When parsed and queried using the Boolean search operator AND, 229,275 documents were retrieved. Modern search engines use stopwords, a list of high frequent commonly occurring words, which are removed from queries to better identify the semantically rich portions of the query (Luhn, 1960). Hosoda (Hosoda, in publication) identifies high frequency words from a corpus of Hawaiian literature, the top 25 most frequent words on the list could be considered the stopwords along with other commonly occurring words, of the Hawaiian language. The removal of Hawaiian stopwords as identified by the top most frequent 25 words from Hosoda (in publication) and the inclusion of the commonly occurring words *aia* and *hea* lead to a query using only root words for the query was then examined, *maka-pu 'u*, producing a result of 8332. The query *makapu 'u* is the intended search term which produced a result of 223.

Query	Search hits in Ulukau
<i>aia i hea 'o makapu 'u</i>	0
<i>aia i hea 'o maka pu 'u</i>	229,275
<i>maka pu 'u</i>	8332
<i>makapu 'u</i>	223

Table 13. Morphological query parsing of a sentence.

Both precision and recall is improved in the case of morphologically parsing a query phrase. The morphological parse of the query phrase increases the number of retrieved results, as seen by the difference from 0 results to 229,275 results. Precision of the query is improved by limiting the results to only roots because there are more retrieved documents that are specific to the query, *maka-pu'u*, and less irrelevant documents like those identified by the inclusion of the morphemes *aia i hea 'o*, which are removed. I do note that the morphemes *aia i hea 'o* are considered as grammatical particles, which raises the question are particles roots? For information retrieval, purposes these particles are not considered roots.

5.3 Morphological Parsing and Indexing of Documents

Word boundaries vary in written Hawaiian because of the language's evolution from an oral tradition to a written tradition. Hawaiian speakers rapidly grasped the written language, with 91% literate in 13 years (Laimana, 2011). Due to the numerous writers of the Hawaiian language in a short period of time, there was no standard orthography, therefore leading to various written forms of the language. Provided here is an example of how morphological parsing of both query and indexed documents can be used to address word boundary problems in information retrieval.

The documents are currently indexed at the word level, as defined by white space. Here it is proposed to index the documents at the morpheme level. For example, the name *Makapu'u* would be indexed as *Maka-pu'u*. Combining morpheme level indexing with collocation would improve information retrieval. The query would yield results similar to the previous *makapu'u* search query, in Table 13, but recall would be increased by also including items that are currently indexed as *maka pu'u*.

Conclusion

In this chapter, I demonstrated that morphological parsing can immediately benefit information retrieval of Hawaiian language documents by increasing the number of retrieved documents using current Hawaiian database infrastructure. The concept of morphological parsing and indexing of documents in combination with the application of collocations are database infrastructure improvements that will aid in overall information retrieval. Information retrieval of Hawaiian language documents using knowledge of Hawaiian morphemes has the potential to improve precision and recall statistics of Hawaiian database searches.

Chapter VI: Final Conclusions and Future Work

This dissertation has contributed to the overall understanding of the structure of the Hawaiian language. Prior studies on the Hawaiian language have focused on sentence-level grammatical syntax (E. Hawkins, 1982; Hopkins, 1992; Kamanā, 2012; Parker Jones, 2010). Similar work on the development and usage of computational methods applied to the Hawaiian language has been previously done by Parker Jones (Parker Jones, 2010); however, his work focused on extending well-described Hawaiian language patterns. This dissertation contributes to the existing body of knowledge by identifying new patterns of the Hawaiian language at the word level. The results of the word level analysis from this dissertation have applications in the fields of Hawaiian language cyberinfrastructure, lexicography, and language acquisition.

I have analyzed the morphology of the words in the Pukui and Elbert dictionary to extract a comprehensive list of word roots. The comprehensive lexicon of Hawaiian language roots is foundational for future development and understanding of the language. For Hawaiian, and many indigenous languages, word roots are important because they hold the substance of the language and culture. Historically, linguistic documentation of traditionally oral languages often combined roots creating larger words that are construed as a phrase or even a whole sentence. Roots can improve cyberinfrastructure development because they capture the meaning of the language. The creator of the World Wide Web envisioned it as a neutral digital landscape (Berners-Lee, 2010). The web has inadvertently been colonized as the natural languages used on the web are also the building blocks of the algorithms that work behind the scenes of all natural language processing products. The language roots identified in this dissertation are pivotal for the creation of cyberinfrastructure inclusive of Hawaiian knowledge because these roots of the language are the building blocks that should be used for future development of Hawaiian natural language

processing products. Theoretically, using the language roots as the foundation for future cyberinfrastructure development will provide linguistic diversity and cultural perspectives on the web due to the inherent intersection between language and culture aiding in efforts towards the overall neutralization of the web.

I have developed a unique system for identifying Hawaiian morphemes that includes human input and leverages computational power. For the larger community of low resource languages, this provides an example of a method for identifying and annotating the roots of a language. In comparison to corpus linguistic and machine learning techniques that need large amounts of data, this method is simple but results in a similar product, a lexicon of roots. This method contributes to work on low resource languages by addressing the disadvantages of relying solely on big data for research in artificial intelligence. A broader impact of the developed method is the inclusion of indigenous knowledge in future research aimed at incorporating “small data” into artificial intelligence algorithms.

Using the morphemes identified in the previous contribution, I have analyzed the relationship between morphemes using network analysis techniques. Knowledge of the language at the word level provides many avenues for lexicography work. Understanding the morphemes and their relationships allows for further semantic analysis of words within context such as collocation of root usage in corpora that provides information necessary for improvement of dictionaries. Further examination of semantic relationships of roots is ideal for the development of a thesaurus and computational linguistics tools like WordNet for the Hawaiian language (O’Regan, Scannell, & Dhonnchadha, 2016). Morphemes are the basic units of the language: future work on knowing and understanding them can produce many language tools.

The contribution of Hawaiian morpheme profiles has practical pedagogical applications, not only for Hawaiians but any minority community. For example, one specific application is to use classroom-based metrics to develop data-driven pedagogical tools. Quantitative data is needed for validation of student growth in non-dominant educational practices at the state and federal accreditation levels. The morpheme structure profiles are advantageous for educational data analytics. These morpheme profiles can be used as a metric of comparison, a pedagogical baseline statistic, for student growth metrics in minority languages.

Hawaiian language pedagogies from preschool to university include sentence level, whole word, and phonemic approaches (Hopkins, 1992; Kamanā, 2012; Wilson & Kamanā, 2017). The knowledge developed in this dissertation provides the information necessary to generate innovative word-level pedagogical approaches to Hawaiian language learning. These same word-level pedagogical approaches can be used to enhance modern word creation that uses morphological structures instead of phonological structures. For example, modern scientific terminology can be developed through translation of Latin roots to Hawaiian roots instead of a phonetic translation of English terms.

The conceptual application of Hawaiian morphemes for information retrieval is a contribution from my research. This contribution provides the need and potential outcomes of Hawaiian search engine optimization. This type of research can continue to place Hawaiian at the forefront of indigenous languages in the digital realm especially as Web 2.0 progresses (Berners-Lee, Hendler, & Lassila, 2001) . Ontological work inclusive of minority perspectives is a field of work that can be created and improved upon with knowledge of language roots and their relationships.

The research in this dissertation contributes to linguistic morphology of the Hawaiian language and its applications in information retrieval. This study found identifying and understanding the roots of the Hawaiian language are important and has numerous applications for language and knowledge development. For the larger community of indigenous and minority languages, this study provides examples of a novel method for identifying the roots of a language and their application in technology and education. This dissertation research is just scratching the surface of this field of knowledge. Future work in this area should improve on and apply the methods and lexicons produced in this study.

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q=Hawaii%27s+Story+by+Hawaii%27s+Queen+Liliuokalani&ots=jbXZ52qX3I&sig=6k
zetnh4OH36EbXhx7O9e54mMsc

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Appendix

Appendix A: Data Collection and Cleaning Script

```
#!/usr/bin/env python3
# -*- coding: utf-8 -*-
import os
import string
import re
from collections import Counter

import sys

pos = (
'conj.',\
'idiom.',\
'inter.',\
'interj.',\
'Interj.',\
'n.',\
'nonproductive transitive suffix.',\
'num.',\
'n.v.',\
'nvi.',\
'nvs.',\
'nvt.',\
'Pas/imp.',\
'Probably similar',\
'Rare var.',\
'Redup.',\
'Same as',\
'See',\
'Short for',\
'Similar to',\
'Var.',\
'v.',\
'vi.',\
'vs.',\
'vt.',\
'loc.n.',\
'part.',\
'Rare',\
'Plural')

nonHI = (
'b',\
'c',\
'd',\
```

```
'f,\n'g,\n'j,\n'q,\n'r,\n's,\n't,\n'v,\n'x,\n'y,\n'z')
```

```
if len(sys.argv)!=3:\n    print("Usage: cleandata.py infilename outfilename")\n    exit (1);
```

```
fname = sys.argv[1]
```

```
outfname = sys.argv[2]\nout = open(outfname, "w", encoding="utf-8")
```

```
hii = open(fname, "r", encoding="utf-8")\nfor line in hii:\n    if line.rstrip()=="":\n        continue\n    if re.search(r"([A-Z])",line) !=None:\n        continue\n    matched = 0\n    if re.match(r"\d+\.", line) !=None:\n        continue\n    matched = 0\n    for tag in pos:\n        if re.match(re.escape(tag), line) !=None:\n            matched=1\n            break\n    if matched==1:\n        continue\n    for non in nonHI:\n        if re.search(re.escape(non), line) !=None:\n            matched=1\n            break\n    if matched==1:\n        continue\n\n    out.write(line)
```

Appendix B: Token Frequency Script

```
#!/usr/bin/env python3
# -*- coding: utf-8 -*-
#This program takes an input file of tokens in a list then identifies all duplicate tokens and
outputs a file with token, freq

import os
import string
import re
from collections import Counter

import sys

if len(sys.argv)!=3:
    print("Usage: getTokenFreq.py infilename outfilename")
    print(" returns <token,freq> pairs unsorted")
    exit (1);

fname = sys.argv[1]
#print 'Argument:', fname
#exit(1)

#os.chdir("/Users/kelseahosoda/Desktop/Python3Scripts")

o = open(fname, "r", encoding="utf-8")
oread=o.read()
olower=oread.lower() #change upper case to lower
o_sub = re.sub(r"-\\n", "", olower)
o_sub = re.sub(r"\"", "", o_sub)
#o_sub = re.sub(r'[+string.punctuation+]', "", o_sub) #string.punctuation removes !"#%&'()*+,-
./:;<=>?@[\\]^_`{|}~
o_sub = re.sub("'''", "", o_sub) #inefficient
o_sub = re.sub("```", "", o_sub)
o_sub = re.sub("†", "", o_sub)
o_sub = re.sub("$", "", o_sub)
#o_sub = re.sub("—", "", o_sub)
o_sub = re.sub("æ", "", o_sub)
o_sub = re.sub("»", "", o_sub)
o_sub = re.sub(r"\\s+", ' ', o_sub)
tokens = o_sub.split(" ")

cleantokens = []
for w in tokens:
    # If not empty string and not digit string
```

```
    if re.match(r"\d+", w) == None:
        cleantokens.append(w)
count = Counter(cleantokens) #does not count b/c unhasable type
#print count

outfname = sys.argv[2]
out = open(outfname, "w", encoding="utf-8")
for k,v in count.items():
    line = k + "," + str(v) + "\n"
    out.write(line)
```


Appendix C: Dictionary Headwords

'alamo'o
a
aea
aeae
aeāea
ae'o
aha
ahaaha
ahahana
ahana
aha'ina
ahe
aheahe
ahi
ahia
ahiahi
ahiahihia
ahikao
ahikoe
ahimakani
ahio
ahipele
aho
aholoa
ahona
ahonui
ahu
ahuahu
ahuake
ahue
ahukū
ahulau
ahuli'u
ahulu
ahuna
ahunāli'i
ahupua'a
ahuulu
ahuwaiwai
ahuwale
ahu'awa
ahāhā
ai

aia
aihuawa‘a
aikaha‘ula
aikāne
aina
aiāhua
aiāhulu
ai‘a
aka
akaaka
akaakahi‘u
akaakalani
akaakā
akahai
akahana
akahao
akahele
akahi
akahi‘u
akahoe
akaholo
akaka
akakole
akakū
akalani
akalau
akalei
akalewa
akaluli
akamai
akanahe
akanoho
akao‘o
akauahelo
aka‘ai
aka‘aka‘awa
aka‘awa
aka‘a‘amo
aka‘ula
aka‘ōlelo
ake
akeakamai
akeake
akeke‘e
akelo
akemakani

akemāmā
akena
akenī‘au
akepahaola
akepau
akepa‘a
akepāhola
akiahala
akimona
ako
aku
akua
akuila
akuku‘u
akula
akule
aku‘e
ala
alaalahia
alaalaho‘ālaala
alahaka
alahaki
alahao
alaheo
alahe‘e
alahia
alahi‘i
alahukimoku
alahula
alaia
alaiaha
alaka‘i
alaka‘ina
alaku‘uku‘u
alakō
alala
alalai
alaloa
alamimo
alana
alani
alania
alaniho
alanui
alanuionāhōkūho‘okele
alapao

alapa‘i
alapiko
alapine
alapinepine
alapi‘i
alapoho
alapoki
alapuka
alau
alaula
alawai
alawela
alaweo
alawiki
alawī
alaō
ala‘ala
ala‘alai
ala‘au
ala‘oloī
ala‘oma
ala‘ula
ala‘ume
ale
alea
aleale
alehu
alelo
aleloahi
alemona
alena
alenale
ali
alia
aliali
aliana
ali‘i
ali‘ipoe
alo
aloali‘i
aloalo
aloha
alohalua
aloha‘i
alohiki
alokahi

alokele
alolio
alolo
alolua
alopeka
alopihe
alopiko
alu
alualu
alāiki
ama
amaumau
amo
amoa
amoamo
amu
amuamu
ana
ana!
anaanapau
anahonua
anahuinakolu
anahulu
anahā
anaina
anaina‘ike
anakahi
anaku‘u
analio
analipo
anana
ananea
ananū
anapa‘a
anapuni
anauani‘i
anauna
anawaena
ana‘uku
ana‘ē
ane
aneane
anei
anena
ani
ania

aniani
ano
anoa
anoano
anohale
anu
anuanu
anuhea
anō
ao
aoaoa
aokū
aouli
apo
apoapo
apohao
apowaena
apoālewa
apu
apuapu
apuhihi
au
aua
auahi
auake‘e
auakua
aualaliha
aualalo‘i
auali‘i
auane‘i
auau
aua‘ina
aue
auele
auhele
auhili
auhonua
auhuli
auhulihia
auhā
auka
aukaha
aukahi
aukaka
aukana
aukanaka

aukea
aukukui
aukukū
aukū
aukūkū
aulau
aulele
aulia
aulike
auloli
aulā
aumaiewa
aumiha
aumihi
aumiki
aumoā
aumoe
auolo
aupaka
aupo‘ipū
aupula
aupuni
aupūpū
auwaea
auwahi
auwalakī
auwa‘alālua
auwehekika
auwina
auwē
auwēuwē
auwī
auālipo
auē
auēuē
auī
au‘āpa‘apa‘a
awa
awaawa
awaikū
awaiāulu
awakea
awaloa
awe
aweawe
awāwa

awī
aī
a‘a
a‘aahi
a‘ahia
a‘ahu‘i
a‘alele
a‘alolo
a‘apau
a‘apu
a‘a‘a
a‘e
a‘ea‘e
a‘ela
a‘i
a‘ia‘i
a‘o
a‘oa‘o
a‘u
a‘uane‘i
a‘ua‘u
a‘ukī
e
ea
eaea
eamāmā
eaolamāmā
ea‘a‘ā
ehaha
ehehe
ehene
ehoho‘opi‘i
ehe‘ula
ehu
ehuehu
ei
eia
eina
eiā
eke
ekele
ekikilau
eko
ekoeko
ele
elehu

elelo
elepani
eli
eluehe
emi
emiemi
emowai
emu
ene
enene
enenu
eo
epaepa
epani
eu
ewa
ewanelio
ewe
eō
e‘e
e‘ea
e‘ehu
h_awali
haa‘a
hae
haea
haehae
haehia
haekoko
haele
haeleele
haena
haeola
haha
hahae
hahahana
hahahi
hahai
hahaka
hahaki
hahaku
hahalalū
hahale
hahalu
hahana
hahani

hahano
hahao
hahape
hahau
hahaua
hahauhia
hahauhui
haha‘i
haha‘ianana
hahei
hahi
hahihahi
hahili
hahina
haho
hahoma
hahu
hahualo
hahuhahu
hahā
hai
haia
haialo
hiamua
hiamū
haiau
haiehu
haihai
haihaiā
haiha‘i
haika
haikaika
haikala
haikea
haikina
hailapu
hailawe
hailepo
haili
hailia
hailili
hailimoa
hailipo
hailona
hailuku
hailōkeaka

haina
hainaki
hainakā
hainikā
hainole
hainā
haipule
haiwā
haiā
hai'e'a
hai'ula
haka
hakahaka
hakahakaea
hakakai
hakakau
hakakauluna
hakakaupili
hakaka'e
hakakā
hakakāmoa
hakakē
hakakī
hakakū
hakalina
hikalunu
hakaī
hakaū
hakanea
hakanele
hakanū
hakaṗō
haka'ano
haki
hakiā
hakihaki
hakihana
hakina
hakināu
haki'opa
hako
hakohako
haku
hakua
hakualo
hakuhaku

hakuhana
hakukele
hakukole
hakuko‘i
hakuone
hakupapa
hakupa‘a
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ho'oh elehele
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ho'oh eno
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ho'oh ewa
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ho'oh ie
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ho'oh iki
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ho'oh ili
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‘ōkulekule
‘ōkulikuli
‘ōkuma
‘ōkumakuma
‘ōkumu
‘ōkumukumu
‘ōkunukunu
‘ōkupe
‘ōkupekupe
‘ōkupu
‘ōkupukupu

‘ōku‘eku‘e
‘ōku‘u
‘ōkā
‘ōkāka‘i
‘ōkū
‘ōkūkū
‘ōlae
‘ōlaelae
‘ōlala
‘ōlali
‘ōlalilali
‘ōlanalana
‘ōlani
‘ōlapa
‘ōlapalapa
‘ōlapu
‘ōlauniu
‘ōla‘i
‘ōla‘o
‘ōla‘ola‘o
‘ōlehaleha
‘ōlelo
‘ōlelokīkē
‘ōlelokīkēkē
‘ōlemu
‘ōlemuka‘a
‘ōlena
‘ōlenalena
‘ōlepe
‘ōlepelepe
‘ōlepo
‘ōlepolepo
‘ōlewa
‘ōlewalewa
‘ōle‘ole‘o
‘ōlihalaha
‘ōliko
‘ōlikoliko
‘ōlilelile
‘ōlili
‘ōlino
‘ōlinolino
‘ōli‘oli‘o
‘ōli‘uli‘u
‘ōlohe
‘ōlohelohe

‘ōlohilohi
‘ōloliloli
‘ōlopelope
‘ōluheluhe
‘ōlulelule
‘ōlulelulea
‘ōlulo
‘ōlulolulo
‘ōlulu
‘ōlā‘au
‘ōlū
‘ōlūau
‘ōlūlū
‘ōlūpalaha
‘ōmaka
‘ōmakamaka
‘ōmakaoka‘īlio
‘ōmale
‘ōmalemale
‘ōmali
‘ōmalu
‘ōmalumalu
‘ōmau
‘ōma‘i
‘ōma‘ima‘i
‘ōma‘o
‘ōma‘oma‘o
‘ōmea
‘ōmealani
‘ōmeamea
‘ōme‘o
‘ōme‘ome‘o
‘ōmiko
‘ōmilo
‘ōmilomilo
‘ōmilu
‘ōmilumilu
‘ōmino
‘ōminomino
‘ōmiomio
‘ōmohehohe
‘ōmole
‘ōmolemole
‘ōmou
‘ōmo‘omou
‘ōmo‘omo‘o

‘ōmuku
‘ōmu‘a
‘ōmu‘amu‘a
‘ōmu‘e
‘ōmu‘emu‘e
‘ōmu‘o
‘ōmu‘omu‘o
‘ōmu‘u
‘ōmīmī
‘ōnaha
‘ōnahanaha
‘ōnalunalu
‘ōnea
‘ōneanea
‘ōnehenehe
‘ōnihinihi
‘ōniho
‘ōnihoniho
‘ōniki
‘ōnikiniki
‘ōninanina
‘ōnini
‘ōninipua‘i‘o
‘ōnino
‘ōninonino
‘ōniu
‘ōni‘o
‘ōni‘oni‘o
‘ōnohi
‘ōnohiawa
‘ōnohika‘i‘olepohihikalawai‘aokalā‘ino
‘ōnohilehua
‘ōnohiāi‘a
‘ōnoninoni
‘ōno‘onou
‘ōnuhenuhe
‘ōnuhenuhea
‘ōnāwali
‘ōnēnē
‘ōnū
‘ōo‘a
‘ōpae
‘ōpaekala‘ole
‘ōpaha
‘ōpahapaha
‘ōpaka

‘ōpakapaka
‘ōpala
‘ōpalapala
‘ōpalipali
‘ōpalupalu
‘ōpapa
‘ōpa‘ipa‘i
‘ōpele
‘ōpelepele
‘ōpelu
‘ōpe‘a
‘ōpe‘apanipani
‘ōpe‘ape‘a
‘ōpiha
‘ōpihapiha
‘ōpihipihi
‘ōpiki
‘ōpikipiki
‘ōpiko
‘ōpikopiko
‘ōpili
‘ōpilo
‘ōpilopilo
‘ōpio
‘ōpiopio
‘ōpua
‘ōpua‘ōpū
‘ōpuhi
‘ōpukupuku
‘ōpule
‘ōpulekai
‘ōpulepule
‘ōpu‘u
‘ōpu‘upu‘u
‘ōpā
‘ōpē
‘ōpī
‘ōpū
‘ōpūao
‘ōpūka‘emoa
‘ōpūke‘emoa
‘ōpūlauoho
‘ōuaua
‘ōuli
‘ōuliha‘i
‘ōunauna

‘ōuouo
‘ōwae
‘ōwaewae
‘ōwahawaha
‘ōwali
‘ōwana
‘ōwa‘awa‘a
‘ōwehewehe
‘ōwela
‘ōwelawela
‘ōwelo
‘ōwelokahuelokū
‘ōwena
‘ōwenawena
‘ōweo
‘ōwili
‘ōwiliwili
‘ōwili‘ōka‘i
‘ōwāwā
‘ōū
‘ō‘a‘a‘a
‘ō‘ili
‘ō‘ili‘ili
‘ō‘io
‘ō‘io‘io
‘ō‘upē
‘ō‘upē‘upē
‘ō‘ā
‘ō‘ō
‘ō‘ōahi
‘ō‘ōhū
‘ō‘ōnui
‘ō‘ōpē
‘ō‘ū
‘ō‘ūholowai
‘ō‘ū‘ō‘ū
‘ū
‘ūhekeheke
‘ūhini
‘ūhā
‘ūhī‘ūhā
‘ūka‘e
‘ūkele
‘ūkelekele
‘ūke‘e
‘ūkihi

‘ūkiu
‘ūkiukiu
‘ūki‘ukiu
‘ūkēkē
‘ūkī
‘ūkīkiki
‘ūlala
‘ūlei
‘ūlepe
‘ūlika
‘ūlikalika
‘ūlili
‘ūlina
‘ūlinalina
‘ūli‘i
‘ūli‘uli‘u
‘ūlāleo
‘ūlōlohi
‘ūmalu
‘ūmelu
‘ūmene
‘ūmikimiki
‘ūmi‘i
‘ūmu‘o
‘ūnihi
‘ūniki
‘ūnina
‘ūninanina
‘ūpa
‘ūpalu
‘ūpalupalu
‘ūpehupehu
‘ūpepe
‘ūpiki
‘ūpikipiki
‘ūpili
‘ūpoho
‘ūpolu
‘ūpo‘i
‘ūpo‘ipo‘i
‘ūpuku
‘ūpā
‘ūpē
‘ūpī
‘ūua
‘ū‘ua

‘ū‘uwa
‘ū‘u‘u
‘ū‘ū

Appendix D: Morphemes - Roots & Affixes

morph,length,first char,morph type

a,1,a,affix
aka,3,a,affix
ala,3,a,affix
ha,2,h,affix
hā,2,h,affix
hā,2,h,affix
hai,3,h,affix
hana,4,h,affix
ha‘a,4,h,affix
hi,2,h,affix
hia,3,h,affix
ho,2,h,affix
hō,2,h,affix
ho‘,3,h,affix
hō‘,3,h,affix
ho‘o,4,h,affix
i,1,i,affix
ia,2,i,affix
kā,2,k,affix
kana,4,k,affix
ki,2,k,affix
kī,2,k,affix
kia,3,k,affix
ku,2,k,affix
kū,2,k,affix
lana,4,l,affix
lia,3,l,affix
ma,2,m,affix
mā,2,m,affix
mia,3,m,affix
mo,2,m,affix
mō,2,m,affix
na,2,n,affix
nā,2,n,affix
nia,3,n,affix
no,2,n,affix
nō,2,n,affix
o,1,o,affix
pa,2,p,affix

pā,2,p,affix
pu,2,p,affix
pū,2,p,affix
u,1,u,affix
‘a,2,‘,affix
‘ā,2,‘,affix
‘i,2,‘,affix
‘ō,2,‘,affix
‘u,2,‘,affix
‘ū,2,‘,affix
ā,1,ā,root
ae,2,a,root
aea,3,a,root
āelo,4,ā,root
ae‘o,4,a,root
aī,2,a,root
āiwa,4,ā,root
āo,2,ā,root
pōpahi,6,p,root
aha,3,a,root
āhā,3,ā,root
ahaaha,6,a,root
ahāhā,5,a,root
āu,2,ā,root
ahe,3,a,root
ahi,3,a,root
ahia,4,a,root
ahiahi,6,a,root
ahio,4,a,root
aho,3,a,root
ahu,3,a,root
ahuahu,6,a,root
ahuake,6,a,root
ahue,4,a,root
ahukū,5,a,root
ahulau,6,a,root
ahuli‘u,7,a,root
ahulu,5,a,root
ahuna,5,a,root
ahuulu,6,a,root
ai,2,a,root
aia,3,a,root
aiāhua,6,a,root
aikāne,6,a,root
aina,4,a,root
āhē,3,ā,root

akaka,5,a,root
akalani,7,a,root
akalau,6,a,root
akalei,6,a,root
akamai,6,a,root
akao‘o,6,a,root
ake,3,a,root
omo,3,o,root
akena,5,a,root
ākena,5,ā,root
ako,3,a,root
aku,3,a,root
hāu,3,h,root
akuila,6,a,root
hahā,4,h,root
akule,5,a,root
alaia,5,a,root
alāiki,6,a,root
hahalu,6,h,root
aoaoa,5,a,root
au,2,a,root
ākea,4,ā,root
ālālā,5,ā,root
hahei,5,h,root
hahi,4,h,root
hahili,6,h,root
haho,4,h,root
ale,3,a,root
hahualo,7,h,root
ania,4,a,root
auele,5,a,root
alo,3,a,root
haikina,7,h,root
haili,5,h,root
hailona,7,h,root
hainā,5,h,root
alolo,5,a,root
alelo,5,a,root
alena,5,a,root
ali,3,a,root
ali‘i,5,a,root
haikala,7,h,root
ālo,3,ā,root
aloha,5,a,root
aloha‘i,7,a,root
alokele,7,a,root

ānuenuē,7,ā,root
anuhea,6,a,root
ao,2,a,root
aua,3,a,root
auālipō,7,a,root
auane‘i,7,a,root
aue,3,a,root
auē,3,a,root
auī,3,a,root
auka,4,a,root
aukahi,6,a,root
aukaka,6,a,root
aukū,4,a,root
aukukū,6,a,root
akua,4,a,root
auloli,6,a,root
auolo,5,a,root
aupaka,6,a,root
aupuni,6,a,root
auwaea,6,a,root
auwē,4,a,root
auwī,4,a,root
auwina,6,a,root
āhole,5,ā,root
ālai,4,ā,root
ālaina,6,ā,root
alaō,4,a,root
alania,6,a,root
alau,4,a,root
alaweo,6,a,root
alia,4,a,root
ālia,4,ā,root
aliana,6,a,root
alolio,6,a,root
ālolo,5,ā,root
alu,3,a,root
ālulu,5,ā,root
ama,3,a,root
amo,3,a,root
amu,3,a,root
āmū,3,ā,root
āmuka,5,ā,root
ana,3,a,root
āna,3,ā,root
anahā,5,a,root
anahulu,7,a,root

anai,4,a,root
ānai,4,ā,root
anaina,6,a,root
ane,3,a,root
anapau,6,a,root
ana‘ē,5,a,root
ano,3,a,root
ānea,4,ā,root
anei,4,a,root
āneo,4,ā,root
ānehe,5,ā,root
āneho,5,ā,root
anena,5,a,root
āne‘o,5,ā,root
ani,3,a,root
aniani,6,a,root
ānini,5,ā,root
aukūkū,6,a,root
anō,3,a,root
anoa,4,a,root
anu,3,a,root
āpī,3,ā,root
apo,3,a,root
apu,3,a,root
awa,3,a,root
āwā,3,ā,root
awai,4,a,root
awaikū,6,a,root
awakea,6,a,root
awe,3,a,root
awī,3,a,root
a‘a,3,a,root
a‘ahi,5,a,root
a‘a‘a,5,a,root
a‘e,3,a,root
a‘ea‘e,6,a,root
a‘i,3,a,root
a‘o,3,a,root
a‘u,3,a,root
a‘uane‘i,8,a,root
ea,2,e,root
ehu,3,e,root
eia,3,e,root
eka,3,e,root
eko,3,e,root
emi,3,e,root

ene,3,e,root
ewa,3,e,root
ēwe,3,ē,root
hainakā,7,h,root
hainaki,7,h,root
hainikā,7,h,root
haiwā,5,h,root
haka,4,h,root
hakupe,6,h,root
halelū,6,h,root
hamo,4,h,root
haoma,5,h,root
hau‘oli,7,h,root
hākā,4,h,root
hākau,5,h,root
hākaha,6,h,root
hakakā,6,h,root
hākakai,7,h,root
hakakau,7,h,root
hakakē,6,h,root
hakakī,6,h,root
hākalalū,8,h,root
hakaī,6,h,root
hākālia,7,h,root
hakalina,8,h,root
hakalunu,8,h,root
hākanelo,8,h,root
hākaneno,8,h,root
hakanū,6,h,root
hāka‘e,6,h,root
hāka‘o,6,h,root
hakē,4,h,root
haki,4,h,root
hākī,4,h,root
hākia,5,h,root
hako,4,h,root
hākō,4,h,root
hākōkō,6,h,root
hākona,6,h,root
hāko‘i,6,h,root
haku,4,h,root
hakū,4,h,root
hākui,5,h,root
hakuko‘i,8,h,root
hākuma,6,h,root
hākupe,6,h,root

hāku‘e,6,h,root
hāku‘i,6,h,root
hala,4,h,root
hālau,5,h,root
halahī,6,h,root
halakā,6,h,root
halakau,7,h,root
halakū,6,h,root
hālala,6,h,root
halalē,6,h,root
hālale,6,h,root
halalī,6,h,root
halalū,6,h,root
hālawa,6,h,root
hālāwai,7,h,root
halawi,6,h,root
hala‘ō,6,h,root
hala‘o‘a,8,h,root
hale,4,h,root
halei,5,h,root
hali,4,h,root
hāliu,5,h,root
hali‘a,6,h,root
hāli‘i,6,h,root
halo,4,h,root
hālō,4,h,root
haloke,6,h,root
hāloku,6,h,root
hālona,6,h,root
halu,4,h,root
hālua,5,h,root
haluka,6,h,root
haluku,6,h,root
hālula,6,h,root
halulu,6,h,root
hamau,5,h,root
hāmale,6,h,root
hāmama,6,h,root
hāmama,6,h,root
hāmana,6,h,root
hame,4,h,root
hamu,4,h,root
hāmumu,6,h,root
hāna,4,h,root
hānā,4,h,root
hanaea,6,h,root
hānai,5,h,root

hanahanai,9,h,root
hanana,6,h,root
hananu˘u,8,h,root
hanapilo,8,h,root
hanau,5,h,root
hānau,5,h,root
hane,4,h,root
hānei,5,h,root
haneli,6,h,root
haneo˘o,7,h,root
hani,4,h,root
hanile,6,h,root
hano,4,h,root
hanoa,5,h,root
hanowa,6,h,root
hanu,4,h,root
hao,3,h,root
haoa,4,h,root
hao˘a,5,h,root
hao˘e,5,h,root
hānuna,6,h,root
hanunu,6,h,root
haokea,6,h,root
hapa,4,h,root
hau,3,h,root
hauene,6,h,root
hauhili,7,h,root
hauhō,5,h,root
hauhoa,6,h,root
hau,4,h,root
hauka,5,h,root
haukau,6,h,root
haulani,7,h,root
hau,5,h,root
hauloli˘i,9,h,root
haumekū,7,h,root
haunaele,8,h,root
hāunu,5,h,root
haupa,5,h,root
haupoa,6,h,root
haupu˘u,7,h,root
hauwene,7,h,root
hāpa,4,h,root
hapai,5,h,root
hāpai,5,h,root
hāpauea,7,h,root

hāpale,6,h,root
hape,4,h,root
hāpōpō,6,h,root
hapuee,6,h,root
hāpu‘u,6,h,root
hawa,4,h,root
hawai‘i,7,h,root
hāwale,6,h,root
hāwana,6,h,root
hāwane,6,h,root
hāwāwā,6,h,root
hāwa‘e,6,h,root
hāwele,6,h,root
hāwena,6,h,root
hā‘ae,5,h,root
ha‘aiwi,7,h,root
hā‘ao,5,h,root
ha‘e,4,h,root
hā‘ea,5,h,root
hā‘ei,5,h,root
ha‘i,4,h,root
ha‘ikū,6,h,root
hā‘ili,6,h,root
ha‘ilua,7,h,root
ha‘inole,8,h,root
ha‘o,4,h,root
ha‘u,4,h,root
hā‘ue‘ue,8,h,root
ha‘uoi,6,h,root
ha‘ukeke,8,h,root
ha‘ulena,8,h,root
hea,3,h,root
heana,5,h,root
heau,4,h,root
hea‘e,5,h,root
heehe,5,h,root
hehena,6,h,root
hehi,4,h,root
hei,3,h,root
heka,4,h,root
hekekē,6,h,root
hela,4,h,root
hele,4,h,root
helei,5,h,root
helele‘i,8,h,root
helena,6,h,root

helo,4,h,root
helu,4,h,root
hema,4,h,root
hemo,4,h,root
hena,4,h,root
hene,4,h,root
heno,4,h,root
heo,3,h,root
hepa,4,h,root
heu,3,h,root
heumiki,7,h,root
hewa,4,h,root
he‘a,4,h,root
he‘e,4,h,root
he‘u,4,h,root
hī,2,h,root
hiaala,6,h,root
hialoa,6,h,root
hiana,5,h,root
hiapo,5,h,root
hia‘ā,5,h,root
hie,3,h,root
hiena,5,h,root
hiō,3,h,root
hihi,4,h,root
hihio,5,h,root
hihiu,5,h,root
hihi‘o,6,h,root
hīkā,4,h,root
hīkākā,6,h,root
hiki,4,h,root
hīki‘i,6,h,root
hikoni,6,h,root
hiku,4,h,root
hila,4,h,root
hila‘i,6,h,root
hili,4,h,root
hiliau,6,h,root
hilina‘i,8,h,root
hilo,4,h,root
hilu,4,h,root
hina,4,h,root
hinakā,6,h,root
hinanauō,8,h,root
hine,4,h,root
hini,4,h,root

hio,3,h,root
hiolo,5,h,root
hiu,3,h,root
hīkau,5,h,root
hikua,5,h,root
hīlea,5,h,root
hīlia,5,h,root
hiliu,5,h,root
hīmeni,6,h,root
hinano,6,h,root
hinao,5,h,root
hīnau,5,h,root
hīnalo,6,h,root
hinana,6,h,root
hīnano,6,h,root
hinapā,6,h,root
hinapē,6,h,root
hinapū,6,h,root
hīnawe,6,h,root
hīna‘i,6,h,root
hinu,4,h,root
hipa,4,h,root
hipū,4,h,root
hiua,4,h,root
hīpuka,6,h,root
hīpu‘u,6,h,root
hiwa,4,h,root
hiwi,4,h,root
hi‘a,4,h,root
hi‘ali,6,h,root
hi‘aloa,7,h,root
hi‘i,4,h,root
hi‘ipoi,7,h,root
hi‘o,4,h,root
hī‘ō,4,h,root
hi‘ohi‘o,8,h,root
hi‘ona,6,h,root
hi‘u,4,h,root
hi‘ukā,6,h,root
hoa,3,h,root
hoaka,5,h,root
hoana,5,h,root
hoe,3,h,root
hoea,4,h,root
hoeha‘a,7,h,root
hoelo,5,h,root

hoene,5,h,root
hou,3,h,root
hōuna,5,h,root
houpo,5,h,root
hōhē,4,h,root
hohiu,5,h,root
hohō,4,h,root
hohonu,6,h,root
hohopa,6,h,root
hoi,3,h,root
hoi‘a,5,h,root
hoka,4,h,root
hōkā,4,h,root
hokai,5,h,root
hōkai,5,h,root
hōkeo,5,h,root
hōkelo,6,h,root
hoki,4,h,root
hōkī,4,h,root
hōkio,5,h,root
hōkilo,6,h,root
hoko,4,h,root
hoku,4,h,root
hōkū,4,h,root
hokua,5,h,root
hōkūkū,6,h,root
hola,4,h,root
hole,4,h,root
hōlei,5,h,root
hōleha,6,h,root
holi,4,h,root
hōlio,5,h,root
holina,6,h,root
hōlina,6,h,root
holo,4,h,root
holoa‘a,7,h,root
holoi,5,h,root
holokia,7,h,root
holokū,6,h,root
holomū,6,h,root
holowā,6,h,root
holu,4,h,root
hōlū,4,h,root
hōlua,5,h,root
holulu,6,h,root
homa,4,h,root

home,4,h,root
hōmī,4,h,root
hona,4,h,root
hone,4,h,root
honekoa,7,h,root
hōnēnē,6,h,root
honi,4,h,root
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‘ūpā,4,‘,root
‘upe,4,‘,root
‘ūpē,4,‘,root
‘upena,6,‘,root
‘ūpī,4,‘,root
‘ūpiki,6,‘,root
‘upu,4,‘,root
‘ūpuku,6,‘,root
‘uwao,5,‘,root
‘uwala,6,‘,root
‘uwi,4,‘,root
‘uwī,4,‘,root
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‘uwo,4,‘,root
‘u‘a,4,‘,root
‘u‘u,4,‘,root
‘ū‘ua,5,‘,root

Appendix E: Morpheme Edge List

Source,Target

a,hala

a,kia

a,kimo

a,na

a,wa

a,wā

ae,ea

ae,ā

aea,e

aha,na

aha,‘ina

ahe,ahe

ahi,kao

ahi,koe

ahi,makani

ahi,pele

ahiahi,hia

aho,loa

aho,na

aho,nui

ahu,li‘i

ahu,nā

ahu,pua‘a

ahu,wai

ahu,wale

ahu,‘awa

ai,hua

ai,hulu

ai,kaha‘ula

ai,wa‘a

ai,ā

ai,‘a

aka,a

aka,aka

aka,akalani

aka,hai

aka,hana

aka,hao

aka,hele

aka,helo

aka,hi

aka,hi‘u

aka,hoe

aka,holo
aka,kole
aka,kā
aka,kū
aka,lelo
aka,lewa
aka,luli
aka,mo
aka,nahe
aka,noho
aka,ua
aka,‘ai
aka,‘aka
aka,‘awa
aka,‘a‘a
aka,‘ula
aka,‘ō
ake,akamai
ake,hola
ake,ke‘e
ake,loa
ake,makani
ake,māmā
ake,nī‘au
ake,ola
ake,paha
ake,pau
ake,pa‘a
ake,pā
aku,la
aku,‘e
ala,ala
ala,haka
ala,haki
ala,hao
ala,heo
ala,he‘e
ala,hia
ala,ho‘
ala,ho‘o
ala,huki
ala,hula
ala,hōkū
ala,i
ala,ka‘i
ala,kele

ala,ku‘u
ala,laala
ala,loa
ala,lī
ala,mimo
ala,moku
ala,na
ala,nui
ala,nā
ala,o
ala,pao
ala,pa‘i
ala,piko
ala,pine
ala,pinepine
ala,pi‘i
ala,wai
ala,wela
ala,wiki
ala,wī
ala,ā
ala,‘ala
ala,‘au
ala,‘olo
ala,‘oma
ala,‘ula
ala,‘ume
alaia,ha
alala,i
alani,ho
alau,la
ale,a
ale,ale
ale,hu
ale,mona
alelo,ahi
alena,le
alia,li
ali‘i,poe
alo,ali‘i
alo,alo
alo,hiki
alo,kahi
alo,lua
alo,peka
alo,pihe

alo,piko
aloha,lua
alu,alu
ama,u
ama,uma
amo,a
amo,amo
amu,amu
ana,!
ana,anapau
ana,honua
ana,huina
ana,kahi
ana,kolu
ana,ku‘u
ana,lipo
ana,na
ana,nea
ana,ni‘i
ana,pa‘a
ana,puni
ana,ua
ana,una
ana,waena
ana,‘uku
anaina,‘ike
ane,ane
ano,hale
anoa,no
anu,anu
ao,kū
ao,uli
apo,apo
apo,hao
apo,lewa
apo,waena
apo,ā
apu,apu
apu,hihi
au,ewa
au,hele
au,hia
au,hili
au,honua
au,huli

au,kea
au,kika
au,kukui
au,kī
au,lau
au,lele
au,lia
au,like
au,lua
au,lā
au,mai
au,miha
au,mihi
au,miki
au,moa
au,moe
au,pa‘a
au,po‘i
au,pula
au,pū
au,pūpū
au,wahi
au,wala
au,wa‘a
au,wehe
au,‘ā
aua,ha
aua,hi
aua,ke‘e
aua,kua
aua,lali
aua,lalo
aua,li‘i
aua,u
aua,‘i
aua,‘ina
auka,ha
auka,na
auka,naka
auwē,uwē
auē,uē
awa,awa
awa,loa
awai,lu
awai,āu
awe,awe

a‘a,ahi
a‘a,hu‘i
a‘a,lele
a‘a,lolo
a‘a,pau
a‘a,pu
a‘ahi,a
a‘e,la
a‘i,a‘i
a‘o,a‘o
a‘u,a‘u
a‘u,kī
ea,ea
ea,māmā
ea,ola
ea,‘a‘ā
ehu,ehu
eko,eko
emi,emi
ene,ne
ene,nue
ewa,nelio
ha,a‘a
ha,ma
ha,maha
ha,maile
ha,maku‘u
ha,mau
ha,paka
ha,wewe
ha,īnana
ha,‘ā
ha,‘āpuka
hae,a
hae,hae
hae,hia
hae,koko
hae,na
hae,ola
haele,ele
haha,hana
haha,hi
haha,ka
haha,ki
haha,ku
haha,lalū

haha,le
haha,na
haha,nana
haha,ni
haha,no
haha,‘i
haha,‘ia
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hahau,hia
hahi,hahi
hahi,na
haho,ma
hahu,hahu
hai,ehu
hai,hai
hai,haīā
hai,ha‘i
hai,ka
hai,kai
hai,kea
hai,keaka
hai,lapu
hai,lawe
hai,lepo
hai,luke
hai,lō
hai,na
hai,nole
hai,pule
hai,‘e‘a
hai,‘ula
haia,lo
haia,mua
haia,mū
haia,u
haili,a
haili,li
haili,moa
haili,po
haka,ea
haka,haka
haka,kai
haka,ka‘e
haka,kū
haka,lū
haka,nea

haka,nele
haka,pō
haka,‘ano
hakakau,luna
hakakau,pili
hakakā,a
hakakā,amo
haki,a
haki,haki
haki,hana
haki,na
haki,nau
haki,‘opa
hako,hako
haku,a
haku,alo
haku,haku
haku,hana
haku,kele
haku,kole
haku,one
haku,papa
haku,pa‘a
haku,‘apa
haku,‘epa
haku,‘āina
hakupe,he
hakupe,‘o‘i
hala,hala
hala,halakau
hala,hi‘a
hala,hula
hala,hū
hala,kea
hala,ke‘a
hala,kī
hala,lani
hala,loa
hala,wai
hala,‘ai
hala,‘uha
hala,‘ula
hale,a
hale,aka
hale,haka
hale,hale

hale,i‘a
hale,koko
hale,ku‘i
hale,lewa
hale,loke
hale,lui
hale,mala
hale,pulu
hale,pā
hale,u
hale,‘au‘a
hale,‘oihana
hale,‘uwī
hale,‘ā
hali,a
hali,hali
hali,‘i
halo,lanī
halu,halu
hame,hame
hamo,hamo
hamo,‘ula
hamu,hamu
hamu,mu
hamu,mumu
hamu,‘ili
hana,hana
hana,hanau
hana,hihi
hana,hu
hana,ina
hana,kapa
hana,na
hana,ne‘e
hana,pēpē
hana,wai
hana,‘ia
hana,‘i‘o
hanana,i
hanau,a
hanau,na
hane,hane
hani,hani
hani,na
hani,ni
hano,hano

hano,na
hano,pilo
hanoa,lewa
hanu,a
hanu,hanu
hanu,paoa
hanu,pau
hanu,pua‘a
hanu,ā
hanu,‘u
hao,hana
hao,hao
hao,haoa
hao,hia
hao,kanu
hao,kila
hao,le
hao,n
hao,na
hao‘a,o‘a
hapa,haneli
hapa,hapai
hapa,hiku
hapa,hā
hapa,kolu
hapa,ku
hapa,ku‘e
hapa,lima
hapa,lua
hapa,ono
hapa,pū
hapa,wai
hapa,walu
hapa,‘uku
hapa,‘umi
hapa,‘u‘u
hapai,na
hapai,pū
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hape,nui
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hau,ala
hau,a‘i
hau,hala
hau,hali
hau,hana

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hau,ha‘u
hau,hia
hau,hole
hau,hāu
hau,koi
hau,ko‘i
hau,kī
hau,kō
hau,kōhi
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hau,pe‘e
hau,pia
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hau,wawā
hau,‘eka
hau,‘eli
hau,‘ina
hau,‘iole
hau,‘oki
hau,‘opo
hauhili,kī
hauka,lalī
hauka,lima
hauka,lī
hauka,mumu

hauka,pila
hauka,wewe
hauka,‘e
haupu‘u,pu‘u
hau‘oli,‘oli
hawa,hawa
ha‘a,a
ha‘a,e
ha‘a,ha
ha‘a,ha‘a
ha‘a,heo
ha‘a,hui
ha‘a,ika
ha‘a,kea
ha‘a,kei
ha‘a,kekē
ha‘a,koa‘e
ha‘a,koi
ha‘a,koko
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ha‘a,koni
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ha‘a,nepu
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ha‘i,loa‘a
ha‘i,lono
ha‘i,malule
ha‘i,manawa
ha‘i,moe
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ha‘i,nale
ha‘i,nau
ha‘i,noa
ha‘i,wale
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ha‘i,‘ano
ha‘i,‘ō

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ha'u,lili
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ha'u,ōwī
ha'ukeke,ke
hea,ha
hea,hea
hehi,a
hehi,hehi
hehi,kū
hehi,na
hei,a
hei,au
hei,hei
hei,ē
heka,heka
heka,u
hela,hela
hele,hele
hele,helei
hele,helena
hele,kū
hele,lei
hele,mauna
hele,uma
hele,wai
hele,ā
helo,helo
helu,a
helu,hana
helu,helu
helu,hi
helu,lekia
helu,na
helu, 'eka
hema,hema
hemo,hemo
hemo,lele
hemo, 'ē
hena,hena
hene,hene

heno,heno
heo,heo
hepa,hepa
heu,heu
hewa,hewa
he‘a,he‘a
he‘e,he‘e
he‘e,wale
he‘u,he‘u
he‘u,pueo
hi,ka‘a
hia,hia
hia,i
hia,la‘a
hia,lele
hia,moe
hia,pa‘i
hia,‘ai
hia,‘ole
hia,‘ono
hie,hie
hihi,a
hihi,alo
hihi,awai
hihi,hi
hihi,hiki
hihi,hina
hihi,ki
hihi,kolo
hihi,na
hihi,pe‘a
hihi,u
hiki,a
hiki,alo
hiki,ana
hiki,e‘e
hiki,hiki
hiki,ki‘i
hiki,kopili
hiki,lele
hiki,mea
hiki,moe
hiki,mua
hiki,na
hiki,pua
hiki,wale

hiki,wawe
hiki,‘ala
hiku,hiku
hila,hila
hila,la
hili,e‘e
hili,hili
hili,hua
hili,kau
hili,kolo
hili,kua
hili,kī
hili,lupa
hili,lupe
hili,oka
hili,‘ō‘ū
hilo,hilo
hilu,hilu
hina,hina
hina,kama
hina,kea
hina,lama
hina,‘ai
hina,‘ula
hine,hine
hine,‘ula
hini,hini
hinu,a
hinu,hinu
hinu,pua‘a
hio,hio
hio,hiolo
hio,na
hiolo,hia
hipa,hipa
hiu,hiu
hiwa,hiwa
hiwa,kea
hiwi,hiwi
hiō,hiō
hi‘a,hi‘a
hi‘a,naki
hi‘a,‘u
hi‘i,a
hi‘i,alo
hi‘i,kua

hi‘i, lani
hi‘i, lawe
hi‘i, lei
hi‘i, mo‘o
hi‘i, paka
hi‘i, puna
hi‘ipoi, poi
hi‘o, lani
hi‘ohi‘o, lani
hi‘ohi‘o, na
hi‘u, hi‘u
hi‘u, i‘a
hi‘u, kole
hi‘u, wai
hi‘u, wīwī
ho, a‘i
ho, ea
ho, hani
ho, ho
ho, hoa
ho, hoi
ho, hoka
ho, hola
ho, hole
ho, holo
ho, holu
ho, homa
ho, hono
ho, ho‘i
ho, hu
ho, lā
ho, ole
ho, pai
ho, ā
ho, iloilo
ho, inana
hoa, hoa
hoa, hoaka
hoa, hui
hoa, hānau
hoa, i
hoa, launa
hoa, loha
hoa, ‘āina
hoaka, ka
hoaka, kala

hoaka,ke‘a
hoe,hoe
hoe,hoene
hoe,kea
hoe,na
hoe,pā
hohō,hoa
hohō,ho‘
hohō,hō‘
hoi,hoi
hoka,hoka
hoka,hokai
hoka,‘awa
hoko,hoko
hola,hia
hola,hola
hola,na
hole,a
hole,hia
hole,hole
hole,lola
holi,li
holo,a
holo,hau
holo,hi‘a
holo,holo
holo,holoi
holo,hu‘a
holo,i‘a
holo,kahiki
holo,kai
holo,kake
holo,kikī
holo,kuku
holo,kē
holo,lani
holo,leka
holo,lelo
holo,makani
holo,moana
holo,moku
holo,mua
holo,na
holo,pani
holo,papa
holo,pau

holo,uka
holo,wai
holo,wa‘a
holo,wili
holo,wī
holo,ā
holo,‘anai
holo,‘oko‘a
holo,‘ō
holoi,mua
holu,a
holu,holu
holulu,le
homa,homa
hone,hone
hone,kaka
hone,la
honi,a
honi,honi
honi,kā
honi,na
hono,hina
hono,hono
hono,ka‘a
hono,le
hono,wā
honu,honu
honua,‘ula
hope,‘a‘ei
hope,‘eha
hope,‘ō
hopo,hopo
hopo,‘i
hopu,a
hopu,hia
hopu,hopu
hopu,na
hopu,ālulu
hou,hewa
hou,hou
ho‘,aka
ho‘,ana
ho‘,e
ho‘,ea
ho‘,eha
ho‘,ha

ho‘,halo
ho‘,hewa
ho‘,hi
ho‘,hia
ho‘,ho
ho‘,honu
ho‘,hu
ho‘,huli
ho‘,i
ho‘,ka
ho‘,kahele
ho‘,koakoa
ho‘,la
ho‘,li
ho‘,lii
ho‘,mana
ho‘,na
ho‘,ni
ho‘,no
ho‘,nu
ho‘,nu‘u
ho‘,pa‘a
ho‘,pipi
ho‘,pono
ho‘,wa
ho‘,ā
ho‘,ākea
ho‘,ālia
ho‘,ālo
ho‘,āna
ho‘,āo
ho‘,āu
ho‘,āwā
ho‘,ēheu
ho‘,ēhu
ho‘,ēmi
ho‘,ē‘e
ho‘,īho
ho‘,īlewa
ho‘,īli
ho‘,īlina
ho‘,īlo
ho‘,īloli
ho‘,īnu
ho‘,ōeoe
ho‘,ōheke

ho‘,ōhewa
ho‘,ōho
ho‘,ōki
ho‘,ōla
ho‘,ōlepe
ho‘,ōne
ho‘,ō‘ā
ho‘,‘o
ho‘i,a
ho‘i,ho‘i
ho‘i,hā
ho‘i,kau
ho‘i,na
ho‘o,_amaka
ho‘o,a
ho‘o,ao
ho‘o,eke
ho‘o,ha
ho‘o,hae
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ho‘o,hahau
ho‘o,hahu
ho‘o,haka
ho‘o,hakanū
ho‘o,haku
ho‘o,hakē
ho‘o,hala
ho‘o,hale
ho‘o,hali‘a
ho‘o,hamo
ho‘o,hana
ho‘o,hani
ho‘o,hano
ho‘o,hanu
ho‘o,hape
ho‘o,hau
ho‘o,haunaele
ho‘o,hau‘oli
ho‘o,ha‘a
ho‘o,ha‘i
ho‘o,ha‘ilua
ho‘o,ha‘o
ho‘o,hehelo
ho‘o,hehe‘e
ho‘o,hei
ho‘o,hele

ho‘o,helele‘i
ho‘o,hemo
ho‘o,hene
ho‘o,heno
ho‘o,heo
ho‘o,heu
ho‘o,hewa
ho‘o,he‘e
ho‘o,hia
ho‘o,hie
ho‘o,hihi
ho‘o,hiki
ho‘o,hila
ho‘o,hili
ho‘o,hilu
ho‘o,hina
ho‘o,hinu
ho‘o,hiwa
ho‘o,ho
ho‘o,hoa
ho‘o,hohonu
ho‘o,hoi
ho‘o,hoka
ho‘o,hole
ho‘o,holo
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ho‘o,huhu
ho‘o,huhū
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ho‘o,hā
ho‘o,hāhā
ho‘o,hāiki
ho‘o,hākālia
ho‘o,hālua

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ho‘o,kahu
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ho‘o,kana‘ō
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ho‘o,kani
ho‘o,kano
ho‘o,kau
ho‘o,kaumaha
ho‘o,kauoha
ho‘o,kawowo
ho‘o,ka‘a
ho‘o,ka‘aka‘a
ho‘o,ka‘awale
ho‘o,ka‘eo
ho‘o,ka‘i
ho‘o,ke
ho‘o,kele

ho‘o,kepa
ho‘o,ke‘a
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ho‘o,kiki‘a
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ho‘o,kupua
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ho‘o,kīnā

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ho‘o,kūkū
ho‘o,kū‘oi
ho‘o,kū‘ono
ho‘o,kū‘ē
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ho‘o,laha
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ho‘o,makua
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ho‘o,mau‘u
ho‘o,ma‘a
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ho‘o,ma‘au
ho‘o,ma‘awe
ho‘o,ma‘e

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ho‘o,melu
ho‘o,mia
ho‘o,miha
ho‘o,mo
ho‘o,moa
ho‘o,moana
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ho‘o,moho
ho‘o,moka
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ho‘o,mo‘o
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ho‘o,mā‘auē
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ho‘o,nunu
ho‘o,nā

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ho‘o,ola
ho‘o,oni
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ho‘o,pahe
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ho‘o,pale
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ho‘o,puni
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ho‘o,‘aka
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ho‘o,‘ia
ho‘o,‘i‘o
ho‘o,‘oi
ho‘o,‘ono
ho‘o,‘ule
hua,ale
hua,hekili
hua,hua
hua,huwā
hua,ka
hua,kawowo

hua,ka‘i
hua,ke‘eo
hua,ke‘o
hua,kē
hua,lani
hua,lau
hua,lele
hua,lelo
hua,lūkini
hua,mai
hua,maka
hua,makani
hua,moa
hua,pala
hua,palaoa
hua,po‘o
hua,pī
hua,waena
hua,wai
hua,‘ai
hua,‘ala
hua,‘i
hua,‘ina
hua,‘ono
hua,‘ula
hua,‘ō
huelo,elo
huelo,pōpoki
huelo,‘awa
huelo,‘ilio
huhu,e
huhu,i
huhu,ki
huhu,ku
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huhu,li
huhu,lu
huhu,lā‘au
huhu,me
huhu,na
huhu,ne
huhu,pao
huhu,‘ai
huhu,‘e
huhuhu,e
huhuhu,i

huhuhu,la
huhuhu,lei
huhuhu,li
huhuhu,me
huhuhu,na
huhuhu,ne
hui,a
hui,hui
hui,huini
hui,kala
hui,kau
hui,ka‘i
hui,la
hui,lala
hui,lapa
hui,lela
hui,pa
hui,pa‘a
hui,pu‘u
hui,pū
hui,‘apa
huina,hiku
huina,huina
huina,hā
huina,kolu
huina,lana
huina,lima
huina,lā‘au
huina,ono
huina,papa
huina,wai
huina,walu
huka,hukā
huka,hūkai
huka,ilo
huka,loa
huki,a
huki,he‘e
huki,huki
huki,ki
huki,kū
huki,lau
huki,na
hula,hula
hula,li
hulei,lua

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huli,ala
huli,au
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huli,ko‘a
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huli,lī
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huli,na
huli,nu‘u
huli,pahu
huli,peua
huli,poe
huli,ā
huli,‘ao
hulipū,loa
hulu,a
hulu,a‘i
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hulu,i
hulu,koa
hulu,koa‘e
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hulu,moa
hulu,ole
hulu,pala
hulu,peu
hulu,pua‘a
hulu,‘iwi
hulu,‘ānai
hulu,‘īlio
hume,a
hume,hume
hume,na
humu,humu
humu,kā
humu,lau
humu,na
humu,niki

humu,nuku
humu,papa
humu,pa‘a
humu,pua‘a
humu,wili
humu,ā
humu,‘ula
humu,‘ōmou
huna,ahi
huna,huna
huna,kai
huna,kāna‘i
huna,lewa
huna,pa‘a
hune,hune
hunā,hunā
huwā,ke‘o
huā,elo
huā,huwā
huā,huā
huā,le
hu‘a,hu‘a
hu‘a,kō
hu‘a,lepo
hu‘e,a
hu‘e,hu‘e
hu‘e,lepo
hu‘e,na
hā,
hā,a
hā,awe
hā,ehu
hā,hala
hā,ha‘a
hā,hia
hā,ho‘o
hā,ili
hā,inu
hā,i‘i
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hā,kala
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hā,kaokao
hā,ka‘i
hā,ke
hā,kea

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hā,lani
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hā,la‘o
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hā,lelo
hā,lena
hā,leu
hā,like
hā,liko
hā,lili
hā,lina
hā,li‘a
hā,lo
hā,loa
hā,lokeloke
hā,loko
hā,loli
hā,lo‘alo‘a
hā,lo‘i
hā,luku
hā,lule
hā,luli
hā,luna
hā,lupa
hā,lu‘a
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hā,lūlā
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hā,mana
hā,mani

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hā,mau
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hā,newa
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hā,nono
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hā,nu'u
hā,nēnē
hā,nō
hā,nūnē
hā,o'e
hā,pele
hā,pena
hā,pe'e
hā,pio
hā,po
hā,poko
hā,pou
hā,pua
hā,pue
hā,puku
hā,puna
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hā,pūpū
hā,pū'ili
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hā,wali
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hā, 'ana'ana
hā, 'ano

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hā, 'awa
hā, 'awe
hā, 'awi
hā, 'a'a
hā, 'ehu
hā, 'eka
hā, 'ele
hā, 'elele
hā, 'ena
hā, 'e'e
hā, 'ike
hā, 'ili
hā, 'ipu
hā, 'iu
hā, 'olo
hā, 'o'i
hā, 'o'opu
hā, 'uka
hā, 'uke
hā, 'ukē
hā, 'ula
hā, 'ule
hā, 'upu
hā, 'āina
hāhā, aka
hāhā, ho'o
hāhā, hāhā
hāhā, lua
hāhā, manu
hāhā, mau
hāhā, pa'akai
hāhā, 'ai
hāiki, iki
hāka'o, ka'o
hākona, kona
hāko'i, ko'i
hākuma, kuma
hāku'e, ku'e
hāku'i, ku'i
hālawa, lawa
hāliu, a
hāliu, liu
hāli'i, li'i
hālona, ipu
hālua, pou

hāna,na
hāna,wa
hāna,wana
hānai,huhu
hānai,pū
hānai,ā
hānuna,nuna
hāpa,la
hāpa,lapa
hāpa,pa
hāpa,papa
hāpa,‘u
hāpa,‘upa
hāpai,memeue
hāpu‘u,pu‘u
hāu,le
hāu,li
hāu,liuli
hāu,na
hāwana,wana
hāwa‘e,wa‘e
hā‘ili,‘ili
hī,he‘e
hī,hī
hī,kapa
hī,ke‘a
hī,lalē
hī,lea
hī,manu
hī,na
hī,nale
hī,newa
hī,nā
hī,wai
hī,wana
hī,waū
hī,wa‘a
hī,ū
hīki‘i,ki‘i
hīki‘i,lia
hīnawe,nawe
hīpu‘u,pu‘u
hī‘ō,‘ō
hō,ai
hō,kake
hō,kale

hō,ka‘a
hō,ka‘e
hō,ki‘i
hō,lapa
hō,lapu
hō,la‘o
hō,le‘ole‘o
hō,li‘o
hō,lokeloke
hō,lona
hō,lono
hō,lule
hō,lulo
hō,male
hō,mali
hō,nina
hō,nō
hō,pa‘i
hō,poe
hō,pēpē
hō,ulu
hō,wai
hō,waia
hōkio,kio
hōkī,kī
hōkū,helele‘i
hōlū,lū
hōmī,mī
hō‘,a
hō‘,ae
hō‘,aha
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hō‘,aka
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hō‘,ale
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hō‘,alo
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hō‘,ama
hō‘,ano
hō‘,au
hō‘,aua
hō‘,awa
hō‘,awe
hō‘,a‘a

hō´,a´e
hō´,ea
hō´,eha
hō´,ehapu´uwei
hō´,eka
hō´,ekeke´i
hō´,eleu
hō´,ele´ele
hō´,epa
hō´,eu
hō´,eu´eu
hō´,ewa
hō´,he´e
hō´,hu
hō´,hune
hō´,i
hō´,ihi
hō´,ika
hō´,ili
hō´,inaina
hō´,ino
hō´,inu
hō´,inā
hō´,io
hō´,ka
hō´,ke
hō´,ke´i
hō´,ki
hō´,kola
hō´,la
hō´,le´a
hō´,li´i
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hō´,lu
hō´,lu´olu
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hō´,ma
hō´,mi
hō´,mo
hō´,mu
hō´,na
hō´,no
hō´,o
hō´,oi
hō´,oia
hō´,oio

hō,oki
hō,ole
hō,olo
hō,oma
hō,omo
hō,oni
hō,ono
hō,o'o
hō,pa
hō,pe
hō,pu
hō,pū
hō,ula
hō,ulu
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hō,wā
hō,ā
hō,āpī
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hō,īī
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hō,ū
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hō,‘aha
hō,‘ai
hō,‘aka
hō,‘ale
hō,‘ali
hō,‘alu
hō,‘au
hō,‘ili
hō,‘inau
hō,‘i'o
hō,‘o
hō,‘oi
hō,‘ole
hō,‘olā
hō,‘omo
hō,‘ulu
hō,‘ā
hō,‘ē
hō,‘ī
hō,‘īpuka
hū,ai
hū,hewa

hū,hā
hū,hū
hū,i
hū,ka‘a
hū,keu
hū,kā
hū,kākai
hū,kē
hū,lani
hū,lili
hū,nui
hū,nunu
hū,poe
hū,pī
hū,pō
hū,wai
hū,‘alu
hū,‘a‘ā
hū,‘ena
hū,‘eu
hū,‘ole
hū,‘ono
hūlali,lali
hūlei,lei
hūnā,kele
hūnō,ai
hūnō,hūnō
hūnō,na
hūpē,koho
hūpē,kole
hūpē,lā
i,kuwai
i,kāna
i,‘ole
ia,hai
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ihu,ma‘a
ihu,pani

ika,ika
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iki,makua
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iki,pua
iki,‘ala
ikū,mau
ikū,maua
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ili,hia
ili,ili
ili,lani
ili,mo‘o
ili,na
ilo,ilo
inu,hia
inu,mia
inā,hea
ipo,ipo
ipu,kukui
iwa,kā
iwa,lua
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iwi,kua
iwi,kū
iwi,mo‘o
iwi,ole
iwi,puhi
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kau,no‘a
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kau,pa
kau,pale
kau,paona
kau,papa
kau,pe‘a
kau,pili
kau,po
kau,po‘i
kau,puka
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kau,wele
kau,welu
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kaua,moe
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kaula,hao
kaula,ni
kaula,‘ela‘e

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kaulana, haka
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kaulana, lelo
kaulana, mū
kaulana, 'ō
kaulei, lei
kaulu, a
kaulu, wehi
kaulu, wela
kaumaha, na
kaunu, ana
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kaunu, kunu
kaunu, lau
kaupoku, 'iole
kauwō, lani
kauā, lupe
kauō, lani
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kawa, lia
kawele, 'ā
kaī, ī
ka 'a, ahi
ka 'a, hele
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ka 'a, hili
ka 'a, hina
ka 'a, holo
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ka 'a, kupapa 'u
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ka 'a, la 'a
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ka 'a, leo

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ka‘anini,au
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ke,mepulu
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kea,nahā
kea,umāhina
keha,keha
kei,kei
keiki,mahi
keiki,ne
keiki,'ana
keke,a
keke,la
keke,pa
keke,we
keke,'e
keko,keko
keku,keku
kekē,ue
kela,kela
kela,moku
kela,wini
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kele,awe
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kele,ma
kele,moi

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kele,nia
kele,o
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kele,pona
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kele,wiki
kele,‘ai
kelo,kelo
kena,kena
keni,keni
keni,mekela
kenā,kenā
kepa,kepa
keu,keu
kewe,kewe
ke‘a,a
ke‘a,awai
ke‘a,haka
ke‘a,ke‘a
ke‘a,lei
ke‘a,pa‘a
ke‘e,a
ke‘e,hana
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ke‘e,ke‘ehi
ke‘e,moa
ke‘ehi,a
ke‘ehi,lae
ke‘ehi,na
ke‘o,ke‘o
ke‘u,ke‘u
ki,na
ki,nemo
ki,pona
ki,popou
ki,‘aki
ki,‘apu
ki,‘ena
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kia,pali

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kia,‘āina
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kini,peki
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kino,hi
kino,hou
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kipa,kipa
kipa,ku
kipa,o
kipa,pa‘i

kipa,wale
kipi,kipi
kipi,kua
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kiwi,kiwi
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kohe,popo
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koho,kola

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koho,pehu
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konene,ne
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konā,hau
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ku,ānuehue
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ku,‘i‘o

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kua, honu
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kuana,lipo
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kua' i,'o
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kukua,‘au

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kuli,o‘o
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kulu,ae‘o
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kulu,hio
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lawa, iho
lawa, kua
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lawa, nua
lawai'a, manu
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lei,‘aha
leina,moa
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lele,mū
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lele,o
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lele,pe
lele,pinao

lele,pinau
lele,po
lele,poni
lele,po‘i
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lele,pō
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lena,lena
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lepo,hao
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lewa,anu

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le‘o,lani
lia,la
lia,mala
lia,‘aki
liha,liha
liha,lihau
lihe,lihe
lihi,li
lihi,lihi
like,like
liki,ki
liki,liki
liko,lehua
liko,liko
lile,i
lile,lile
lile,uli
lili,ha
lili,ko
lili,koa
lili,ko‘i
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lili,na
lili,noe
lili,o
lili,pi
lili,wai
lili,‘i
lili,‘u
lilo,lilo
lilā,lilā
lima,hana
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lima,meke
lima,nui
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limu,a
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limu,maka

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limu,pi'i
limu, 'ahu
limu, 'ula
limu, 'ō
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lino,a
lino,hau
lino,leuma
lino,lino
lio,lio
lipi,lipi
lipi,ne
lipi,oma
lipo,a
lipo,lipo
li'a,ne
li'a,wahi
li'i,li'i
li'i,poe
li'o,li'o
li'u,a
li'u,li'u
li'u,lā
loa,loa
loa'a,hia
loha,loha
lohe,a
lohe,lelo
lohe,lohe
lohe,na
lohe, 'ō
lohi,a
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lohi,na
lohi, 'au
loi,a
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loi,na
loi,o
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loko,maika'i
loku,loku
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lole,a

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lole,‘ae‘ae
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lolo,pili
lolo,pio
lolo,pua
lolo,‘a
lolo,‘u
loloa,‘u
lolohua,mea
loma,loma
lomi,a
lomi,lomi
lono,hi‘i
lono,ihe
lono,kū
lono,lau
lono,lono
lono,lonoā

lono,lupe
lono,maka
lono,mea
lono,papa
lono,pūhā
lono,wā
lou,a
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lou,lu
lou,ulu
lo‘i,lo‘i
lo‘i,‘ai
lo‘u,lo‘u
lo‘u,lu
lua,ahi
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lua,hele
lua,hoana
lua,iele
lua,kaha
lua,kele
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lua,na
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lua,pō
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lua,‘oni
lua,‘uhane
lua,‘āpana
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lulu,‘u
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luna,‘ohi
luna,‘āina
luna,‘ō
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lupe,lupea
lupe‘a,keke
lu‘a,loa
lu‘a,lu‘a
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lu‘i,lu‘i
lu‘u,a
lu‘u,kia
lu‘u,lu‘u
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lā,hui
lā,kea

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lā,pau
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lā,pu'u
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lā,'aina
lā,'alo
lā,'ele
lā,'oia
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lāua,'aua
lā'au,'ai
lā'au,'ala
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lō,kū
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lō,lō
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lō,pi‘o
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lō,‘ohu
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ma,_hikihiki
ma,_‘īī
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ma,‘ō
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maka,‘ele
maka,‘ewa
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maka,‘īō
maka,‘ō
maka,‘ōpio
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makali,o
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makapū,
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make, a
make, hewa
make, hia
make, kau
make, ke‘eo
make, le
make, leho
make, lia
make, make
make, makika
make, na
make, pono
make, wai
make, ‘ai
makua, ai
makua, hine
makua, hu
makua, hōnōwai
makua, hūnō
makua, kea
makua, kohu
makua, limu
makua, li‘i
makua, līpoa
makua, oka
makāu, la
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malai, la
malama, la
malau, lau
malau, wā
malau, ā
male, a
male, ila

male,i'i
male,le
male,uwō
male,wa
male,‘ole
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mana,i

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mana, 'ue
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manawa,kolu
manawa,le 'a
mana 'o,ha 'i
mana 'o,kōkua
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mana 'o,lia
mana 'o,na 'o
mana 'o,pa 'a
mana 'o,pili
mana 'o,wene
mana 'o, 'i 'o
mane,ne
mani,ha
mani,he 'u
mani,no
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mania,wai
manini,ni
mano,a
mano,hā

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manoni,nia
manu,a
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manu,hele
manu,he‘u
manu,kā
manu,kū
manu,lawe
manu,leka
manu,lele
manu,nēnē
manu,nūnū
manu,wahi
manu,wā
manu,‘u
manunu,nu
manu‘a,i
manu‘a,ia
manu‘a,iki
manu‘a,ila
manu‘a,mīkana
manu‘a,papa
manu‘a,pilau
manu‘a,wa
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mau,a
mau,hala
mau,ha‘a
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mau,‘a‘e
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mauli, au
mauli, hi
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ma'alea, lea
ma'au, popo
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ma'au, 'au
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mea,mea
mea,‘ai
mea,‘ono
mea,‘ume
mele,kule
mele,mele
mele,nio
melu,melu
mene,mene
mene,ū
meu,a
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me‘e,a
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me‘e,u
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me‘u,me‘u
mia,‘a
miha,miha
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milu,milu
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mina,mina
mina,o
mino,i
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mino,‘aka
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mio,na
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mo,hihi‘o
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mo,mōlio

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mo,ne‘u
mo,weo
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moa,ho
moa,hoa
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moa,mahi
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moa,uli
moana,ana
moani,ani
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mo‘o,‘āina
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mukī,mukī
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muni,ni
mu‘a,mu‘a
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māhe,lu

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māla,‘ola‘o
mālama,lama
mālie,lie
mālolo,hia
mālō,lohi
māmaka,kaua
māmala,lelo
māmala,‘ō
māna,e
māna,leo
māna,na
māna,nalo
māna,wa
māna,wana
māna,‘o
māna,‘ona
mānai,i
mānai,na
mānai,‘ula
mānalo,nalo
mānei,‘ula
mānewa,newa
māniania,a
mānoa,noa

māpu,ana
māpu,māpu
māpu,na
māpu,napu
māua,ua
māuna,una
māunu,unu
mā‘au,‘au
mā‘au,‘aua
mā‘aue,a
mā‘auwe,a
mā‘iha,‘iha
mā‘ilu,lu
mā‘ilu,‘i
mā‘i‘i,‘i
mā‘i‘o,‘i‘o
mā‘ulu,‘ulu
mā‘ā,‘ele
mā‘īī,īī
mēheu,heu
mīko,a
mīko,koi
mīko,lohua
mīko,loli
mīko,lolohua
mīkohu,kohu
mīkoi,koi
mīkole,lehua
mīnoi,noi
mī‘oi,‘oi
mō,aho
mō,aka
mō,hai
mō,hihi
mō,hio
mō,hole
mō,ioio
mō,kaekae
mō,ka‘o
mō,kiha
mō,kila
mō,kohi
mō,kole
mō,kuhikuhi
mō,lale
mō,la‘e

mō,lehu
mō,lelehu
mō,lili
mō,lulolea
mō,lulolulo
mō,nea
mō,noi
mō,wahowaho
mō,‘ai
mō,‘ala‘ala
mō,‘ali
mō,‘olu
mōhala,hala
mōhala,pua
mōhalu,halu
mōhā,hā
mōkū,kū
mōlia,ola
mōlio,lio
mōmo,a
mōuki,uki
mōuo,uo
mō‘iu,‘iu
mū,e
mū,hea
mū,he‘e
mū,ho‘
mū,i
mū,ka‘e
mū,ke
mū,kei
mū,keke
mū,kini
mū,koki
mū,kole
mū,ko‘i
mū,kā
mū,lehu
mū,lelo
mū,mua
mū,mū
mū,namu
mū,nā
mū,nō
mū,‘ekeke‘i
mū,‘elele

mū, 'e'eke
mū, 'okole
mū, 'olo
mū, 'ou
mū, 'ā
mū, 'ō
mūki 'i, ki 'i
mūkī, kī
na, koa
na, koko
na, lo
nae, kau
nae, kū
nae, nae
nae, naele
nae, puni
nae, 'oai
nae, 'owaikū
nae, 'ā 'īkū
nae, 'ōpua
naele, ele
naha, nahae
naha, nawele
naha, wele
nahe, nahe
nahi, a
nahi, nahi
nahi, ole
naho, lo
naho, naho
nahu, a
nahu, ihu
nahu, maka
nahu, na
nahu, nahu
nahu, pū
naio, ea
naka, naka
nakaka, ka
nake, le
nakeke, ke
naki, naki
naku, lehu
naku, lu
naku, naku
naku, 'e

nale,nale
nali,liko
nali,nali
nali,‘i
nalo,hia
nalo,nalo
nalo,wale
nalu,kai
nalu,nalu
nalu,wā
naluli,luli
namu,namu
nana,e
nana,he
nana,hili
nana,ho
nana,hu
nana,hua
nana,huki
nana,hā
nana,ka
nana,ki
nana,la
nana,li
nana,mu
nana,ni
nana,nu‘u
nana,o
nana,pau
nana,piko
nana,u
nana,uki
nana,‘a
nanana,ea
nanana,i
nanana,kea
nanana,pa
nananana,ea
nananana,i
nane,ha‘i
nane,nane
nani,ha
nani,nani
nani,nui
nano,‘o
nanu,ha

nao,a
nao,ho‘o
nao,huki
nao,hā
nao,hā‘ao
nao,lua
nao,lu‘a
nao,maka
nao,nana
nao,nao
nao,pa‘i
nao,ua
nao,wili
napa,napa
nape,nape
napo,napo
napo,‘o
napo,‘ona
nau,ki
nau,kilo
nau,lia
nau,nau
nau,paka
nau,wa
naua,ne!
naue,wai
nauwe,uwe
nawe,we
na‘a,i
na‘a,kola
na‘ana‘a,u
na‘au,ao
na‘au,kake
na‘au,moa
na‘au,pō
na‘au,wili
na‘au,ā
na‘au,‘au
na‘e,na‘e
na‘i,au
na‘i,na
na‘i,na‘i
na‘o,na‘o
nea,nea
nea,u
nehe,nehe

nehe,nu‘u
nehu,nehu
nei,a
nei,nei
neko,neko
nele,au
nelu,nelu
nema,nema
nemo,nemo
nena,nena
neo,neo
nepu,e
nepu,nepu
newa,newa
newe,newe
newe,we
ne‘e,na
ne‘e,ne‘e
ne‘e,papa
ne‘e,pū
ne‘e,u
ne‘i,a
ne‘i,kū
ne‘i,ne‘i
ne‘u,ne‘u
nia,nia
nia,niape
nia,niau
nia,niele
niha,niha
nihi,a
nihi,na
nihi,nihi
nihi,pali
niho,a
niho,hemo
niho,kō
niho,li‘i
niho,maka
niho,manō
niho,niho
niho,popo
niho,pu‘u
niho,wili
niki,niki
niki,pa‘u

niku, niku
nina, nina
nina, ninau
nini, a
nini, au
nini, ha
nini, hi
nini, hua
nini, kea
nini, ki
nini, ni
nini, nia
nini, nini
nini, ole
nini, po
nini, polo
nini, u
nini, 'o
nipo, a
nipo, nipo
niu, a
niu, aua
niu, niu
ni'a, ni'a
ni'a, u
no, hae
no, hea
no, heno
no, 'i
no, 'ino
noa, noa
noe, uahi
noe, 'ula
nohi, li
nohi, nohi
noho, anu
noho, mālie
noho, na
noho, noho
noho, pu'uone
noho, pū
noho, 'i
noho, 'ie
nohu, nohu
noi, noi
noi'i, na

noke,noke
noke,‘a
noku,le
noku,noku
nolo,nolo
nolu,kaua
nolu,nolu
nolu,ā
nome,a
nome,nome
none,a
none,nea
none,none
noni,noni
noni,nui
nono,hi
nono,hia
nono,hina
nono,ho
nono,i
nono,i‘i
nono,kea
nono,lau
nono,lo
nono,lu
nono,me
nono,mea
nono,nea
nono,ni
nono,no
nono,noho
nono,noke
nono,papa
nono,ā
nono,‘o
nonohu,a
nonohu,wā
nonohu,ā
nopa,nopa
nupu,e
nupu,nupu
nou,a
nou,n
nou,nou
no‘e,no‘e
no‘o,a

no‘o,lu
no‘o,no‘o
no‘u,no‘u
nuha,nuha
nuka,nuka
nuku,kau
nuku,mane‘o
nuku,nuku
nuku,wā
nuku,ā
nuku,‘ula
nulu,nulu
nuna,nuna
nupa,iki
nupa,ni
nupa,nupa
nu‘a,lia
nu‘a,nu‘a
nu‘a,o
nu‘u,anu
nu‘u,kole
nu‘u,mela
nu‘u,pa‘a
nu‘u,pē
nā,hae
nā,hana
nā,hā
nā,hāhā
nā,kili
nā,ki‘i
nā,kolo
nā,kulu
nā,ku‘i
nā,le
nā,nowa
nā,pai
nā,pana
nā,pili
nā,po‘o
nā,pu‘u
nā,weo
nā,‘aka
nā,‘ike
nā,‘ī‘ike
nāhele,hele
nāhi,li

nāhoa,hoa
nāholo,holo
nākele,kele
nāna,ku
nānā,honua
nānā,kuli
nānā,lia
nānā,lā
nānā,nu‘u
nānā,‘ole
nāpele,pele
nāu,eue
nāuki,uki
nāulu,ulu
nāwali,wali
nā‘ele,‘ele
nēnē,le‘a
nīki‘i,ki‘i
nī‘au,pi‘o
nō,hae
nō,hāhā
nō,kea
nō,la‘e
nō,lino
nō,noenoe
nō,pili
nō,polo
nō,‘ā
o,a
o,awa
o,luwalu
o,mōhā
o,mōmo
o,puke
oe,oe
oha,ika
oha,oha
oha,pueo
oha,u
oha,uka
oha,‘e
oha,‘o
oha,‘oha
ohi,ohi
oho,hia
oho,ku‘i

oho,oho
oioi,kū
oka,oka
oko,ko
ola,a
ola,kino
ola,‘alo
ola,‘i
ole,a‘i
oli,lo
oli,oli
olo,a
olo,alu
olo,haka
olo,hana
olo,hao
olo,hia
olo,hio
olo,hi‘o
olo,i
olo,kī
olo,lani
olo,ma‘o
olo,mehani
olo,mio
olo,mu‘o
olo,olo
olo,olokē
olo,olonā
olo,pua
olo,wahi
olo,walu
olo,‘ewa
oloke,le
omo,ki
omo,mo
omo,omo
ona,ona
one,hahi
one,iho
one,na
one,nua
one,one
one,pohō
oni,oni
o‘io‘i,na

o'ou,le
o'ou,ma
o'ou,mā'auwe
o'o'o,le
pa,aniani
pa,hole
pa,ho'o
pa,i
pa,kelo
pa,keneka
pa,ke'a
pa,ke'o
pa,kika
pa,kikī
pa,kipa
pa,kohana
pa,lā
pa,mo
pa,moa
pa,nunukuahiwi
pa,'ewa
pa,'o
pa,'opa
pae,heu
pae,hi'a
pae,humu
pae,ki'i
pae,na
pae,paē
pae,'āina
paha,ha
paha,kū
paha,ola
paha,paha
pahe,mo
pahe,pahē
pahe,'e
pahi,kaua
pahi,lau
pahi,li
pahi,nu
pahi,ō
pahi,'oki
pahu,a
pahu,hu
pahu,kaina

pahu,kala
pahu,ka'a
pahu,ki'i
pahu,kū
pahu,na
pahu,pahu
pahu,pa'i
pahu,pū
pahu, 'a
pahulu,hope
pahū,pahū
pai,e'e
pai,ha'a
pai,hā
pai,kumu
pai,lewa
pai,loka
pai,lolo
pai,na
pai,niki
pai,nu'u
pai,pai
pai,ā
pai, 'ea
pai, 'i'i
paikau,a
paikau,hale
paikau,lei
paiki,kala
paiki,ni
paila,ni
paio,ea
paio,nia
paio,wea
pai'ā,pala
paka,ha
paka,keha
paka,ke'u
paka,kī
paka,kū
paka,laki
paka,lana
paka,lia
paka,lua
paka,neo
paka,nika

paka,o
paka,paka
paka,pakai
paka,weli
pakai,ea
pakai,ele
pakau,ahe
pakau,ele
pakau,eloa
pakau,helo
pakau,lei
pakau,lele
pakau,lo
pakau,‘a‘aka
pakele,awa
pakele,‘a
pakika,wai
pakika,ō
paku,i
paku,kui
paku,paku
pakē,pakē
pakī,pakī
pakū,kū
pakū,pakū
pala,a
pala,e‘a
pala,heha
pala,hemo
pala,he‘a
pala,he‘e
pala,he‘ī
pala,hi‘a
pala,hoana
pala,holo
pala,honua
pala,ho‘
pala,huki
pala,huli
pala,hē
pala,hī
pala,hō
pala,hū
pala,ina
pala,ka
pala,kahuki

pala,kai
pala,ka‘eo
pala,kea
pala,kei
pala,kua
pala,kāhela
pala,kē
pala,kēnā
pala,kī
pala,kū
pala,leha
pala,lehe
pala,loli
pala,lu
pala,mimo
pala,nehe
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pala,alahē
pala,palai
pala,palani
pala,palau
pala,pala‘ā
pala,pa‘a
pala,pī
pala,pō
pala,pōhaku
pala,pū
pala,weka
pala,wili
pala,‘ai
pala,‘ie
pala,‘i‘i
pala,‘īloli
pala,‘ō
palaha,ika
palaha,la
palahē,hē
palai,lai
palai,na
palai,‘ula
palaki,u
palaki,‘o
palaki,‘ānai
palala,ha
palala,lo
palaoa,‘ele

palau,alelo
palau,ki
palau,li
pala'e,hu
pala'e,wa
pale,a
pale,ha
pale,he
pale,hui
pale,kana
pale,ki
pale,koki
pale,la
pale,lei
pale,lē
pale,ma'i
pale,na
pale,pale
pale,piwa
pale,wāwae
pale,'a'ahu
pale,'ili
pale,'āina
pale,'ōpua
pali,ka
pali,kea
pali,la
pali,le
pali,li
pali,ma
pali,pali
pali,pa'a
palo,ke
palo,lo
palu,he'e
palu,hi
palu,hia
palu,hē
palu,la
palu,le
palu,nu
palu,palu
palu,'ai
palū,palū
pana,ka
pana,le'a

pana,lupa
pana,lā' au
pana,nā
pana,pana
pana,panau
pana,puhi
pane,a
pane,hū
pane,kai
pane,kana
pane,na
pane,pane
pane,po'o
pane'e,hā
pane'e, 'ūpiki
pani,a
pani,inoa
pani,ki
pani,kū
pani,na
pani,nikū
pani,nī'o
pani,ola
pani,olo
pani,pani
pani,pipi
pani,po'o
pani,pū
pani, 'o
pani, 'ole
pano,aka
pano,hi' i
pano,nono
pano,pano
pano,pa'ū
panoa,noa
pao,ke'e
pao,koke
pao,moni
pao,pao
papa,a
papa,hele
papa,hola
papa,holo
papa,hu
papa,hāpu'u

papa,i
papa,ia
papa,io
papa,iā
papa,iō
papa,ke
papa,kō
papa,kū
papa,la
papa,lau
papa,le
papa,lele
papa,lena
papa,li
papa,lu
papa,lua
papa,ma
papa,mo‘i
papa,mū
papa,nane
papa,ne
papa,ni
papa,no
papa,noa
papa,o
papa,pa
papa,papa
papa,pau
papa,pa‘i
papa,pueo
papa,pā
papa,pū
papa,ulu
papa,‘a
papa,‘aiana
papa,‘aua
papa,‘auwae
papa,‘i
papa,‘iole
papa,‘ohe
papa,‘oi
papa,‘ula
papa,‘unu
papā,kea
papā,kolea
papā,lina

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pau,ho
pau,kea
pau,ke'e
pau,kikī
pau,kua
pau,lehia
pau,lehua
pau,lele
pau,lia
pau,lua
pau,mākō
pau,mā'ele
pau,na
pau,ne'i
pau,nihi
pau,pau
pau,paua
pau,ā
pau,'iole
pau,'āli
paua,ho
pauka,'a
paukū,kū
paulina,lina
pauma,kōkō
pauma,no'o
pauma,uno'o
pau'aka,'aka
pawa,pawa
pa'a,aloha
pa'a,hana
pa'a,hao
pa'a,hia
pa'a,hihi
pa'a,hiku
pa'a,hono
pa'a,i
pa'a,ila
pa'a,kea
pa'a,kikī
pa'a,kope
pa'a,kūkū
pa'a,lalo
pa'a,lia
pa'a,lima

pa‘a,li‘i
pa‘a,lo
pa‘a,loha
pa‘a,lole
pa‘a,lua
pa‘a,lula
pa‘a,luna
pa‘a,mua
pa‘a,na‘au
pa‘a,nehe
pa‘a,ola
pa‘a,olo
pa‘a,ono
pa‘a,pani
pa‘a,pa‘a
pa‘a,pa‘akai
pa‘a,pa‘ani
pa‘a,pa‘anā
pa‘a,pa‘ina
pa‘a,pū
pa‘a,ulu
pa‘a,waha
pa‘a,wela
pa‘a,‘ili
pa‘a,‘ina
pa‘a,‘umi
pa‘a,‘ā
pa‘akai,helele‘i
pa‘akai,hū
pa‘au,a
pa‘au,hau
pa‘i,ha
pa‘i,hā
pa‘i,lau
pa‘i,ma
pa‘i,malau
pa‘i,niu
pa‘i,pa‘i
pa‘i,pa‘ina
pa‘i,punahele
pa‘i,pā‘ina
pa‘i,āu
pa‘i,‘ina
pa‘i,‘iole
pa‘i,‘ula
pa‘ia,ha

pa‘u,pa‘uhia
pa‘u,‘pa‘u
pa‘ē,pa‘ē
pa‘ū,pa‘ū
pehu,a
pehu,ako
pehu,ea
pehu,pehu
peka,le
peka,peka
peke,keu
peke,peke
peku,a
peku,la
peku,na
peku,nia
peku,peku
pela,ne
pela,pela
pele,au
pele,hū
pele,ka
pele,kana
pele,ke
pele,kunu
pele,makani
pele,pulu
pele,‘unu
pele,‘ū
pelo,pelo
pelu,a
pelu,hi
pelu,hā
pelu,kua
pelu,lia
pelu,pelu
pelu,‘ele
pene,i
pene,kū
peno,peno
penu,penu
peo,peo
pepehi,a
pepehu,a
pepehu,e
pepeiao,hao

pewa,pewa
pe‘a,kua
pe‘a,pe‘a
pe‘a,pe‘ahi
pe‘e,lua
pe‘e,lue
pe‘e,lulu
pe‘e,maka
pe‘e,one
pe‘e,pe‘e
pe‘e,pe‘ekue
pe‘e,walu
pie,na
pie,pie
pie,piele
piele,ele
piha,ku‘i
piha,lo
piha,piha
piha,weu
piha,‘eke
piha,‘ā
piha,‘ū
pihi,pihi
pihō,pihō
pika,kani
pika,ka‘o
pika,nini
pika,pika
pikipiki,‘ō
piko,holo
pili,a
pili,alo
pili,aloha
pili,i
pili,kahaka
pili,kai
pili,kana
pili,kino
pili,ko‘a
pili,kua
pili,kū
pili,lelo
pili,lā
pili,mai
pili,mea

pili,moe
pili,mua
pili,na
pili,pili
pili,puka
pili,pā
pili,pōhaku
pili,wai
pili,ā
pili,‘ai
pili,‘ao
pili,‘ele
pili,‘ula
pili,‘āina
pili,‘ō
pilo,pilo
pilu,pilu
pine,ki
pine,‘ōmou
pino,pino
pio,ea
pio,pio
piolo,olo
pipi,a
pipi,ki
pipi,li
pipi,liki
pipi,lo
pipi,na
pipi,ne
pipi,o
pipi,pi
pipi,pi‘i
pipi,po
pipi,‘auamo
pipi,‘i
pipi,‘o
pipi,‘ole
pi‘i,a
pi‘i,ali‘i
pi‘i,hālāwai
pi‘i,kuma
pi‘i,kū
pi‘i,lae
pi‘i,lau
pi‘i,mana

pi'i,na
pi'i,pi'i
pi'o,hi'a
pi'o,ke
pi'o,lepo
pi'o,pi'o
pi'o,ā
pi'o, 'ea
pi'o, 'olo
pi'olo,ke
pi'olo,kū
poe,a
poe,hāwa'e
poe,poe
poe,pīkoi
poehi,ehi
pohe,ke
pohe,pohe
pohe,ue
pohi,hihi
poho,kano
poho,kūpele
poho,lalo
poho,lawa
poho,le
poho,lelua
poho,lo
poho,lopū
poho,lua
poho,mōkoi
poho,na
poho,poho
poho,wa'a
poho, 'āina
pohā,pohā
pohō,pohō
poi,na
poi, 'ulu
poke,a
poke,poke
poke, 'o
poki,a
poki,ni
poki,pa'a
poki,poki
poki,wai

poko,a
poko,poko
pola,hi
pola,laua
pola,pola
pole,ke
pole,ko
pole,mo
pole,pole
poli,kua
poli,poli
poli,waiū
poli,‘ahu
polina,he
polo,hua
polo,huku
polo,hīnano
polo,ka
polo,kake
polo,kala
polo,ke
polo,kā
polo,kāwa‘e
polo,kē
polo,ma
polo,peka
polo,pe‘a
polo,polo
polo,polona
polo,ua
polo,‘ai
polohi,na
polohi,wa
pololo,hua
pona,nā
pona,pona
pona,wa‘a
poni,a
poni,aka
poni,mō‘ī
poni,niu
poni,poni
pono,huku
pono,kope
pono,pono
pou,ama

pou,hana
pou,hananu‘u
pou,kū
pou,li
pou,na
pou,nu
pou,oma
pou,ono
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po‘a,ka
po‘a,la
po‘a,lani
po‘a,lā
po‘a,na
po‘a,po‘a
po‘a,po‘ai
po‘a,pō
po‘a,‘aha
po‘a,‘ala
po‘e,a
po‘e,le
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po‘i,a
po‘i,malau
po‘i,na
po‘i,po‘i
po‘i,pū
po‘i,u
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po‘o,mana
po‘o,mana‘o
po‘o,muku
po‘o,nui
po‘o,o
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po‘o,pale
po‘o,pao‘o
po‘o,pa‘a
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po‘o,pua‘a
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po‘o,pū
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po‘o,‘ele
po‘o,‘ole
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po‘ou,li
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pu,ea
pu,ha
pu,hahalu
pu,halu
pu,ha‘u
pu,hemo
pu,he‘e
pu,hohō
pu,hole
pu,huehue
pu,i
pu,ia
pu,ihe
pu,ipu
pu,kā
pu,mehana
pu,n
pu,nelu
pu,ni
pu,nia
pu,no
pu,nono
pu,ola
pu,olo
pu,walu
pu,āhole

pu, 'oa
pua,a
pua,ane
pua,hae
pua,hala
pua,he
pua,hea
pua,hekili
pua,hi
pua,huku
pua,hulu
pua,i
pua,ine
pua,inā
pua,io
pua,kai
pua,kala
pua,kau
pua,kawa
pua,kea
pua,kiawe
pua,ki' i
pua,koali
pua,kī
pua,kō
pua,lani
pua,lele
pua,lena
pua,lewa
pua,li' i
pua,lo
pua,loa
pua,mana
pua,ne
pua,nea
pua,nihi
pua,niki
pua,niu
pua,oka
pua,po' o
pua,wa
pua,we
pua,wele
pua, 'ohi
pua, 'ula
pua, 'u' u

pua, 'āpiki
puahi,lo
puahi,lohi
puahi,na
puahia,hi
puahia,hia
puahio,hio
puapua,hi
puapua,moa
puapua,nui
puapua, 'a
puapua, 'i
pua 'a,ina
pua 'a,ka
pua 'a,kala
pua 'a,kuhi
pua 'a,kukui
pua 'a,la
pua 'a,lohe
pua 'a,nia
pua 'a,wa
pua 'a,wa 'a
pua 'a, 'ōkala
pua 'i,leho
pua 'i,na
pua 'i, 'i
pue,pue
pue,puehu
puhai,nānā
puhi,a
puhi,ki 'i
puhi,kole
puhi,ku
puhi,na
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puhi,palalā
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puhi, 'ohe
puhi, 'u 'u
puhi, 'ōni 'o
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puka,kā

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puka,‘aki
puka,‘ana
pukai,hu
puku,a
puku,ku‘i
puku,lia
puku,moa
puku,puku
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pula,kama
pula,kau
pula,maka
pula,pula
pule,heke
pule,hua
pule,i
pule,ipu
pule,leho
pule,lehua
pule,lu
pule,mika
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pule,‘aha
pule,‘anā‘anā
pulu,ea
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pulu,ke
pulu,kā
pulu,luhi
pulu,ne
pulu,pulu
pulu,‘aha
puma,hana
puna,helu
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puna,lua
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puni,a
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puni,kihi
puni,peki
puni,puni
puoko,oko
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pupu,amo
pupu,hi
pupu,hilo
pupu,hulu
pupu,ku
pupu,lia
pupu,lu
pupu,ni
pupu,ā
pupu,‘e
pupu,‘i
pupu,‘u
pupupu,a
pupupu,e
pupupu,hi
puwō,puwō
pu‘a,mimi
pu‘a,pū‘ā
pu‘a,wai
pu‘ala,wāhi
pu‘apu‘a,la
pu‘e,one
pu‘e,pu‘e
pu‘e,wai
pu‘e,‘eke
pu‘e,‘ena
pu‘i,pu‘i
pu‘u,a
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pu‘u,hala
pu‘u,hau
pu‘u,hi
pu‘u,honua
pu‘u,ili
pu‘u,kahua
pu‘u,kala
pu‘u,kani
pu‘u,kape

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pu‘u,ka‘a
pu‘u,kohu
pu‘u,kole
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pu‘u,ku‘u
pu‘u,kā
pu‘u,kō
pu‘u,kū
pu‘u,lau
pu‘u,le
pu‘u,lea
pu‘u,lei
pu‘u,lele
pu‘u,lepo
pu‘u,loa
pu‘u,lua
pu‘u,lā
pu‘u,make
pu‘u,mana
pu‘u,mimi
pu‘u,mo
pu‘u,moni
pu‘u,nane
pu‘u,nauwe
pu‘u,nohu
pu‘u,pale
pu‘u,pau
pu‘u,pa‘a
pu‘u,po‘o
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pu‘u,pu‘ua
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pu‘u,‘ai
pu‘u,‘ai‘ai
pu‘u,‘aka
pu‘u,‘o‘a
pu‘u,‘pu‘u
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pu‘ua,lu
pu‘uone,one
pu‘uwai,ū

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pā,heu
pā,he‘e
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pā,hihi
pā,hiki
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pā,hi‘u
pā,hoe
pā,hola
pā,hono
pā,hou
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pā,huku
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pā,hūpē
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pā,konā

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pā,leo
pā,lepe
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pā,lo‘o
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pā,lī
pā,lūlā
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pā,newa
pā,ne‘e
pā,ni
pā,nia
pā,niho
pā,niki
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pā,noe
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pā,no‘ū

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pā,nūnū
pā,o
pā,ono
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pā,palalī
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pā,pa‘anā
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pā,pele
pā,pine
pā,pipi
pā,pi‘o
pā,po‘o
pā,pu
pā,pua
pā,pū
pā,uhi
pā,uli
pā,uma
pā,wale
pā,wali
pā,walu
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pā,ā
pā,‘aila
pā,‘ao
pā,‘ele
pā,‘eli

pā, 'ewa
pā, 'ia
pā, 'ihi
pā, 'ili
pā, 'ina
pā, 'olo
pā, 'ou
pā, 'o'i
pā, 'ula
pā, 'ulu'ā
pā, 'ume
pā, 'umi
pā, 'upena
pā, 'wehe
pā, 'ī'i
pā, 'ō
pāhi'a, hi'a
pāka, hi
pāka, kahi
pāka, ka'a
pāka, la
pāka, laka
pāka, le
pāka, li
pāka, likali
pāka, 'o
pāka, 'uwi
pākaha, kaha
pākai, kai
pākai, kā
pākai, wale
pākana, ka
pākana, loa
pākana, pākana
pākau, kani
pākau, kau
pākau, ke'e
pākau, la
pākau, ā
pākau, 'opi
pāka'a, u
pāka'a, wili
pākeu, pali
pāki, ka
pāki, kaki
pāki, 'a

pāki, 'aki
pāki, 'o
pāki, 'oki
pākiko, kiko
pāki 'i, ki 'i
pākole, kole
pākā, ea
pākā, kā
pākā, una
pākī, ai
pākī, ko 'ele
pākī, kē
pākī, kēkīkē
pākī, kī
pākī, lio
pākī, 'ai
pālaha, laha
pālau, ana
pālau, eka
pālau, hala
pālau, hu
pālau, hulu
pālau, lau
pālau, weka
pālau, 'eka
pālia, lia
pāloke, loke
pālola, lola
pālolo, lo
pālā, i
pālā, lā
pālā, moi
pālā, na
pālā, wai
pālā, 'au
pāma, kani
pāma, ke
pāma, lo 'o
pāma, lō
pāma, 'i
pāna, iki
pāna, na
pāna, 'au
pāna, 'e
pānai, i
pānai, na

pānau,nau
pāna‘i,na‘i
pānuhu,nuhu
pāoni,oni
pāpio,pio
pāpā,hiku
pāpā,hā
pāpā,ia
pāpā,iwa
pāpā,i‘a
pāpā,kahi
pāpā,kana
pāpā,ki‘i
pāpā,kole
pāpā,kolu
pāpā,kā
pāpā,lehu
pāpā,lelo
pāpā,leo
pāpā,lima
pāpā,lua
pāpā,mano
pāpā,ono
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pāpā,pa‘a
pāpā,uli
pāpā,wa
pāpā,walu
pāpā,wa‘a
pāpā,‘a
pāpā,‘umi
pāpā,‘ō
pāpā,‘ōkole
pāpū,hea
pāuhu,uhu
pā‘ā,‘ā
pā‘ū,‘ū
pēheu,heu
pēkeu,keu
pī,a
pī,anuhea
pī,ea
pī,heka
pī,hele
pī,hi
pī,ho

pī,hoi
pī,hole
pī,hono
pī,hā
pī,hō
pī,kai
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pī,kake
pī,kala
pī,kana
pī,kananā
pī,kane
pī,ka‘o
pī,kela
pī,koka
pī,koni
pī,kākā
pī,la
pī,lahi
pī,laho
pī,lala
pī,lani
pī,lau
pī,le
pī,leka
pī,loli
pī,lā
pī,nana
pī,naue
pī,na‘au
pī,no
pī,noke
pī,nē
pī,nēnē
pī,oe
pī,oi oi
pī,pine
pī,pī
pī,wai
pī,weu
pī,‘ai
pī,‘alu
pī,‘ao
pī,‘ei
pī,‘ena
pī,‘ā

pī, 'āpā
pī, 'ō
pīena, ena
pīholo, holo
pīkale, kale
pīkele, kele
pīkoi, koi
pīlali, lali
pīlali, 'ohe
pīnao, nao
pīpā, pīpā
pī'oe, 'oe
pō, ake
pō, akua
pō, ale
pō, hae
pō, haha
pō, hai
pō, hala
pō, hale
pō, heheo
pō, hekeheke
pō, heo
pō, he'e
pō, hihi
pō, hina
pō, hole
pō, holo
pō, hua
pō, hue
pō, huehue
pō, huku
pō, huli
pō, hū
pō, kalaka
pō, ka'a
pō, ka'aka'a
pō, ka'u
pō, kina
pō, ki'i
pō, kohu
pō, kē
pō, la
pō, lalo
pō, lehe
pō, lehu

pō,lelo
pō,lena
pō,lewa
pō,lia
pō,lina
pō,lio
pō,li‘u
pō,loke
pō,lolo
pō,lolohua
pō,luku
pō,lumi
pō,lumu
pō,lonu
pō,lā‘au
pō,maika‘i
pō,mea
pō,nahe
pō,nalo
pō,nano
pō,na‘ana‘a
pō,neko
pō,neo
pō,niho
pō,niu
pō,nuhunuhu
pō,pali
pō,pilikia
pō,pofo
pō,pua
pō,pu‘ali
pō,pū
pō,ua
pō,uki
pō,ule
pō,uli
pō,wehi
pō,wili
pō,‘aha
pō,‘ai
pō,‘ali
pō,‘ana‘ana
pō,‘ele
pō,‘ie
pō,‘ino
pō,‘iu

pō, 'olo
pō, 'ulu
pō, 'ō
pōahi, ahi
pōa' e, a' e
pōhaku, pele
pōhā, hā
pōhā, kau
pōhā, kia
pōhā, kioloa
pōhā, ki' i
pōhā, ko' i
pōhā, kō
pōhā, loa
pōhā, nō
pōhā, 'ī
pōka' o, ka' o
pōliu, kua
pōluhi, luhi
pōnaha, iā
pōnaha, naha
pōnaha, ua
pōnulu, nulu
pōpō, ahi
pōpō, hau
pōpō, lehua
pōpō, limu
pōpō, ā
pōpō, 'ai
pōpō, 'ulu
pō' ai, honua
pō' ai, lani
pō' ai, lewa
pō' ai, waena
pō' ai, 'ai
pō' ai, 'ālunu
pō' ala, 'ala
pū, ahe
pū, ai
pū, aia
pū, anu
pū, awe
pū, eo eo
pū, hai
pū, hala
pū, halalū

pū,hali
pū,halu
pū,hano
pū,hanu
pū,hau
pū,heheo
pū,hene
pū,heo
pū,he'e
pū,hihio
pū,hili
pū,hio
pū,hi'u
pū,huli
pū,hulu
pū,ka
pū,kahi
pū,kala
pū,kalalī
pū,kani
pū,kaua
pū,kaula
pū,ka'a
pū,ka'i
pū,kela
pū,kele
pū,kiawe
pū,kiki
pū,ki'i
pū,kohu
pū,koko
pū,kolo
pū,kolu
pū,konakona
pū,ko'a
pū,ku'i
pū,kākā
pū,kāmole
pū,kē
pū,kī
pū,lale
pū,lama
pū,lana
pū,lau
pū,lauoho
pū,lawa

pū,lehe
pū,leho
pū,lehu
pū,lele
pū,lewa
pū,liki
pū,liko
pū,lima
pū,limu
pū,li‘u
pū,lua
pū,lumi
pū,luna
pū,miki
pū,neki
pū,ne‘e
pū,niha
pū,niho
pū,nika
pū,nikanika
pū,niu
pū,ni‘o
pū,nolu
pū,noni
pū,nono
pū,nonohu
pū,nonu
pū,nua
pū,nuhu
pū,nui
pū,nuku
pū,nā
pū,nēnē
pū,olo
pū,pana
pū,pua
pū,uli
pū,waha
pū,wai
pū,wa‘a
pū,wela
pū,weu
pū,‘aha
pū,‘ai
pū,‘ali
pū,‘alu

pū, 'ana'ana
pū, 'awa
pū, 'i
pū, 'uki
pū, 'uku
pū, 'ula
pū, 'ulu
pū, 'ulu'ulu
pū, 'ulī
pū, 'ō
pū, 'ōni' o
pūehu, ehu
pūhaka, ea
pūhaka, haka
pūhaka, kai
pūha' u, ha' u
pūholo, holo
pūhā, hā
pūhā, 'a'ā
pūkō, ke'e
pūlihi, lihi
pūlo' u, lo' u
pūlō, lia
pūnana, manu
pūnana, na
pūnohu, nohu
pūnāwele, wele
pūpū, kahi
pūpū, kamoe
pūpū, kiawe
pūpū, 'awa
pū'aka, 'aka
pū'ala, lā
pū'ala, 'a
pū'ili, hā
pū'ili, ko'eau
pū'ili, lu'a
pū'ili, 'ili
pū'iwa, 'iwa
pū'o, he'ohe
pū'o, leo
pū'o, lo
pū'o, lē
pū'ā, 'ā
pū'ā, 'ī
ua, a

ua,huki
ua,hā‘ao
ua,kea
ua,ke‘e
ua,koko
ua,leha
ua,lehe
ua,lehu
ua,nana
ua,o
ua,uwo‘a
uai,ki
uaua,hi
uaua,hoa
uaua,i
uaua,kaha
ue,ko
ue,koe
ue,ne
ue,ue
uea,‘ole
uha,e
uha,ele
uha,hemo
uha,i
uha,ke‘e
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uha,kole
uha,kē
uha,kō
uha,lalē
uha,lehe
uha,lena
uha,lu
uha,luhalu
uha,lula
uha,mu
uha,nui
uha,o
uha,u
uha,uha
uha,uhu
uha,‘u
uha,‘uha
uha,‘ula
uhai,holo

u hai, ā
u he, le
u he, lei
u he, mo
u he, ule
u he, ‘e
u hi, a
u hi, kino
u hi, na
u hi, nu
u hi, pa‘a
u hi, uhi
u hi, wai
u hi, ‘āpana
u hu, ki
u i, niha
u i, pa
u i, ui
u i, uilani
u ka, i
u ka, le
u ka, leka
u ka, uka
u ka, ‘awa
u ki, ki‘i
u ki, uki
u ku, hi
u ku, hia
u ku, kuhi
u ku, pau
u ku, pa‘a
u ku, ‘uku
u la, ko
u la, kola
u la, wai
u la, ‘a
u le, hala
u le, hihi
u le, hole
u le, le
u le, pa‘a
u le, pua‘a
u le, ule
u le, ‘ohi
u le, ‘u
u le, ‘ulu

ulehe,lehe
uli,uli
ulu,haka
ulu,ha'e
ulu,hewa
ulu,hia
ulu,hie
ulu,hui
ulu,kai
ulu,kake
ulu,moku
ulu,māhie
ulu,pau
ulu,pi'i
ulu,pua
ulu,puni
ulu,pē
ulu,pō
ulu,ulu
ulu,wehi
ulu,wela
ulu,ā
ulu,‘eo
ulu,‘ulu
ulua,lono
ulua,mahi
uluha‘o,‘a
uluna,hele
ulu‘ā,lana
uma,uma
uma,umalei
umu,akua
una,he
una,hena
una,ue
una,una
una,unahi
una,‘oa
unahi,nahi
unahi,pipi
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‘ā,kuleana
‘ā,kuma
‘ā,kumu
‘ā,ku‘i
‘ā,kē
‘ā,kō

‘ā,la
‘ā,lea
‘ā,lewa
‘ā,loha
‘ā,lohi
‘ā,lono
‘ā,lo‘alo‘a
‘ā,lo‘i
‘ā,lua
‘ā,luku
‘ā,luli
‘ā,luna
‘ā,lu‘a
‘ā,make
‘ā,mau
‘ā,ma‘a
‘ā,mika
‘ā,mikamika
‘ā,mio
‘ā,mo
‘ā,moku
‘ā,mo‘o
‘ā,muku
‘ā,mu‘e
‘ā,na
‘ā,napa
‘ā,napu
‘ā,nau
‘ā,na‘a
‘ā,ne‘e
‘ā,oka
‘ā,one
‘ā,paha
‘ā,pahu
‘ā,pali
‘ā,pana
‘ā,pane
‘ā,pani
‘ā,papa
‘ā,pa‘a
‘ā,peke
‘ā,pela
‘ā,pe‘a
‘ā,pe‘e
‘ā,pika
‘ā,pipi

‘ā,puhi
‘ā,puku
‘ā,pulu
‘ā,pu‘u
‘ā,pāna
‘ā,uli
‘ā,waha
‘ā,wala
‘ā,wa‘a
‘ā,wela
‘ā,welu
‘ā,weo
‘ā,weu
‘ā,we‘a
‘ā,wihī
‘ā,wihīwihī
‘ā,wiki
‘ā,wili
‘ā,wini
‘ā,wīwī
‘ā,‘ahu
‘ā,‘kena
‘ā,‘ula
‘ā,‘ume
‘ā,‘ā
‘āhu,i
‘āina,ano
‘āina,hō‘
‘āina,ma‘o
‘āina,na
‘āina,puni
‘āina,wohi
‘āina,‘ole
‘āina,‘ō
‘ākuli,kuli
‘ākuli,‘ōhelo
‘āla,elae
‘āla,na
‘āla,pa
‘āla,‘ela‘e
‘āla‘a,honua
‘āla‘a,lae
‘āla‘a,la‘a
‘āla‘a,papa
‘āli,kalika
‘āli,ke

‘āli,na
‘āli,nali
‘āloa,loa
‘ānai,i
‘ānai,na
‘āni,a
‘āni,ania
‘āni,ha
‘āni,hani
‘āni,hi
‘āni,hini
‘āni,ni‘u
‘āni,‘u
‘āno,a
‘āno,ho
‘āno,ni
‘āno,ninoni
‘ānu,henuhe
‘āpana,pana
‘āpeu,peu
‘āpiki,piki
‘āpi‘i,pi‘i
‘āpo,ho
‘āpo,hopo
‘āpo,ke
‘āpo,na
‘āpo,no
‘āpo,po‘i
‘āpo,‘epo‘e
‘āpo,‘i
‘āpole,pole
‘āpo‘o,po‘o
‘āpua,kea
‘āpua,kā‘e‘e
‘āpuka,puka
‘āpu‘e,pu‘e
‘āuna,una
‘āwiha,wiha
‘ā‘ili,‘ili
‘ā‘ī,kala
‘ā‘ī,lepe
‘ā‘ī,līo
‘ā‘ī,pahāha
‘ā‘ī,pau
‘ā‘ī,pu‘u
‘ā‘ī,‘ala‘ala

‘ā‘ī,‘olo
‘ā‘ī,‘o‘ole‘a
‘ā‘ī,‘īlio
‘ēkaha,kaha
‘ēkaha,loa
‘īho,e
‘īlio,ha‘a
‘īlio,holoi
‘īlio,kaua
‘īlio,ua
‘īniki,niki
‘ō,a
‘ō,ahe
‘ō,ahi
‘ō,aniani
‘ō,aua
‘ō,eheehe
‘ō,elokū
‘ō,hai
‘ō,hala
‘ō,ha‘i
‘ō,he
‘ō,heha
‘ō,heke
‘ō,hela
‘ō,hemo
‘ō,hepa
‘ō,heu
‘ō,hewa
‘ō,he‘e
‘ō,hila
‘ō,hinu
‘ō,hio
‘ō,hi‘ohi‘o
‘ō,hi‘u
‘ō,huku
‘ō,hulu
‘ō,huna
‘ō,iho
‘ō,iki
‘ō,ikiiki
‘ō,ilo
‘ō,iwi
‘ō,kahu
‘ō,kaka
‘ō,kale

‘ō,ka‘a
‘ō,keni
‘ō,ke‘a
‘ō,ke‘e
‘ō,koho
‘ō,kolo
‘ō,komo
‘ō,kuhe
‘ō,kule
‘ō,kuli
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‘ō,kumu
‘ō,kunu
‘ō,kupe
‘ō,kupu
‘ō,ku‘eku‘e
‘ō,kē
‘ō,kīkē
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‘ō,lala
‘ō,lali
‘ō,lana
‘ō,lapu
‘ō,launiu
‘ō,la‘i
‘ō,la‘o
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‘ō,lelo
‘ō,lemu
‘ō,lena
‘ō,lepo
‘ō,lewa
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‘ō,lile
‘ō,lino
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‘ō,lohi
‘ō,loli
‘ō,lopelope
‘ō,lua
‘ō,luhe
‘ō,lule

‘ō,lā
‘ō,lā‘au
‘ō,maka
‘ō,male
‘ō,malu
‘ō,mau
‘ō,ma‘i
‘ō,ma‘o
‘ō,me‘o
‘ō,miko
‘ō,milo
‘ō,mino
‘ō,mio
‘ō,mo
‘ō,mou
‘ō,mo‘o
‘ō,muku
‘ō,mu‘a
‘ō,mu‘e
‘ō,mu‘o
‘ō,mu‘u
‘ō,mīmī
‘ō,nalu
‘ō,nihi
‘ō,niho
‘ō,niki
‘ō,nina
‘ō,noni
‘ō,nou
‘ō,no‘o
‘ō,nuhe
‘ō,nui
‘ō,nāwali
‘ō,nēnē
‘ō,oka
‘ō,o‘a
‘ō,pala
‘ō,pali
‘ō,palu
‘ō,pani
‘ō,papa
‘ō,pa‘i
‘ō,pele
‘ō,pe‘a
‘ō,piha
‘ō,pihi

‘ō,pili
‘ō,pilo
‘ō,puku
‘ō,pu‘u
‘ō,pē
‘ō,u
‘ō,uaua
‘ō,uli
‘ō,una
‘ō,wae
‘ō,waha
‘ō,wali
‘ō,wana
‘ō,wa‘a
‘ō,wehe
‘ō,wela
‘ō,welo
‘ō,wena
‘ō,weo
‘ō,wili
‘ō,wā
‘ō,‘a‘a‘a
‘ō,‘io
‘ō,‘īlio
‘ō,‘ō
‘ō,‘ōhū
‘ō,‘ōka‘i
‘ōa‘a,‘a‘a
‘ōhao,a
‘ōhao,hao
‘ōhea,hea
‘ōhelo,helo
‘ōhelo,‘ele
‘ōhiki,hiki
‘ōho,li
‘ōho,ma
‘ōho,no
‘ōho,noho
‘ōho,pehopeke‘a
‘ōhumu,humu
‘ōhu‘i,hu‘i
‘ōhā,hā
‘ōhā,kālai
‘ōhā,wai
‘ōkai,kai
‘ōkala,kala

‘ōki,hi
‘ōki,hiki
‘ōki,lo
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‘ōkole,hao
‘ōkole,makili
‘ōkole,oioi
‘ōkole,pu‘u
‘ōkole,‘oi
‘ōkā,ka‘i
‘ōkū,kū
‘ōlapa,lapa
‘ōlepe,lepe
‘ōlohe,lohe
‘ōlulo,lulo
‘ōlū,au
‘ōlū,lū
‘ōlū,palaha
‘ōmea,lani
‘ōmea,mea
‘ōmilu,milu
‘ōmole,mole
‘ōnaha,naha
‘ōne,a
‘ōne,ane
‘ōne,he
‘ōne,hene
‘ōnini,pua‘i
‘ōnini,‘o
‘ōnino,nino
‘ōni‘o,ni‘o
‘ōnohi,awa
‘ōnohi,hihi
‘ōnohi,i‘a
‘ōnohi,ka
‘ōnohi,kalawai
‘ōnohi,ka‘i
‘ōnohi,lehua
‘ōnohi,lā‘i
‘ōnohi,no
‘ōnohi,pohi
‘ōnohi,ā
‘ōnohi,‘ao
‘ōnohi,‘ole
‘ōpae,kala
‘ōpae,‘ole

‘ōpaha,paha
‘ōpaka,paka
‘ōpiki,piki
‘ōpiko,piko
‘ōpio,pio
‘ōpua,‘ōpū
‘ōpule,kai
‘ōpule,pule
‘ōpū,ao
‘ōpū,ka‘e
‘ōpū,ke‘e
‘ōpū,lauoho
‘ōpū,moa
‘ō‘ili,‘ili
‘ō‘upē,pē
‘ō‘upē,‘u
‘ō‘ū,holo
‘ō‘ū,wai
‘ō‘ū,‘ō‘ū
‘ū,hekeheke
‘ū,hini
‘ū,hī
‘ū,ka‘e
‘ū,kele
‘ū,ke‘e
‘ū,ki
‘ū,kihi
‘ū,kēkē
‘ū,leo
‘ū,lepe
‘ū,lina
‘ū,li‘i
‘ū,li‘u
‘ū,lohi
‘ū,lā
‘ū,lō
‘ū,malu
‘ū,melu
‘ū,mene
‘ū,miki
‘ū,mi‘i
‘ū,mu‘o
‘ū,niki
‘ū,nina
‘ū,pa
‘ū,palu

‘ū,pehu
‘ū,pepe
‘ū,pili
‘ū,poho
‘ū,polu
‘ū,po‘i
‘ū,u
‘ū,ua
‘ū,wa
‘ū,‘u
‘ū,‘uki
‘ū,‘u‘u
‘ū,‘ū
‘ū,‘ūhā
‘ūkiu,kiu
‘ūkī,kiki
‘ūlika,lika
‘ūpiki,piki