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## Plains Cree morphosyatax

Dahlstrom, Amy Louise, Ph.D.<br>University of California, Berkeley, 1986

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# Plains Cree Morphosyntax 

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A.B. (Indiana University, Bloomington) 1978
M.A. (University of California) 1981
C.Phil. (University of California) 1984

DISSERTATION
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## Plains Cree morphosyntax

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#### Abstract

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## Chapter 1

Introduction


#### Abstract

This dissertation explores several topics in Cree morphology, syntax, and discourse structure. Cree is a non-configurational language: that is, the grammatical reletions of subject and object are not expressed by word order or other constituent structure relations, as they are in a configurational language such as English. Instead, subjects and objects are expressed by means of the inflection on the verb.

A primary role in the encoding of grammatical relations is played by an opposition within third person known as obviation. Obviation is a discourse-based opposition distinguishing the person of greatest interest in the discourse (= proximate) from all others (= obviative). When a verb has two third person objects, it is the distinction between proximate and obviative, marked on iNs and cross-referenced on verbs, that indicates which is subject and which is object.

Cree is typical of non-configurational languages in allowing a great deal of word order variation. As seen in the following examples, all six possible permutations of subject, object, and verb are grammatical, and are attested in iexts. Obviative nouns are indicated in the interlinear glosses, while proximate nouns are unmarked. Al: the verbs are suffixed with $-\mathrm{e} \cdot \mathrm{w}$, which indicates a proximate singular


subject and an obviative object.
(1) VSO
[Bloomfield 1934, P. 74]
e-kosi na•te-w awa iskwe-w o-hi kaskite-wastimwa. so feich this women this black horse obv
"So then the woman went and got the black horse."
(2) vos
[Bloomfield 1930; P. 36]
nakate-w mahke-si-sah wi-sahke-ca-hk.
leave fox obv $w$.
"Wisahkechahk left Fox behind."
(3)
,
[Bloomfield i930, p. 10]
awa oskini-kiskwe-w ki-we-htahe-w
this young woman bring home
anihih awa-sisah, ... that child obv
'This young woman brought the lad home,...'
(4) OVS
[Bloomfield 1934, P. 34]
owi-ce-wa-kanah miskawe-w awa ne-hiyaw.
his companion obv find this Cree -
'That Cree found his companions."
SOV
[Bloomfield 1934, p. 158]
ki-tahtawe. iskwe.w otawa.simisah wi-ce-we.w, presently woman her child obv accompany
e-h-na-tankik mi-nisah.
fetch berries
"Once a woman went with her children,
to get berries."
(6) OSV
[Bloomfield 1934, P. 110]
e.kwah awah ote-mah aitimwan aw o-pwa-simo.w and this his dog obv this Assiniboine
aye-na-niw kahkiyaw ota-pahe.w, ...
8 all hitch up
'In addition, the Assiniboine hitched up all his eight dogs, ...'
(The quantifiers in the last example have been floated to preverbal position; see the discussion in chapter 3 , section 3.)

This introductory cnapter presents some background information on the Cree language itself, on the data used here, and on its transcription. The second section provides an overview of material to be covered in later chapters.

1. Background on Cree

Cree is an Algonquian language spoken across a large area of Canadas ranging from the Rocky Mountains in the west to James Bay in the east, encompassing the central portions of Alberta, Saskatchewan, and Manitoba, northern Ontario, and northwestern Quebec. There are also some Cree speakers in the United States, mostly at Rocky Boy's reservation in Montana. Plains Cree, spoken primarily in central Saskatchewan and in Alberta, is one of five dialects. The major feature distinguishing the various dialects is the reflex of Proto-Algonquian *l: in Plains Cree, PA *l corresponds to $y$, as in $P A *$ mi.le.wa 'he gives it to him' (Bloomfield 1946, item no. 81), Piains Cree mi-ye.w. The following set of forms for 'no, not' illustrates the reflexes of PA *1 in the Cree dialects.
(7)

| Plains Cree | namo•ya |
| :--- | :--- |
| Swampy Cree | namo•na |
| Moose Cree not' |  |
| Woods Cree | namo-la |
| Tete-a-Boule Cree | namo-סa |
|  | namo•ra |

Ellis 1973 estimated the total number of Cree speakers to be 35,300 , with 24,000 speaking Swampy Cree and 21,000 Plains Cree. A more recent figure comes from the 1981 Canadian census, where about 66,000 respondents identified Cree as the language they first learned and still understand (Burnaby 1985).

The data used in this dissertation is all from the Plains dialect of Cree. Where possible, textual examples are given to illustrate a point; however, when a syntactic argument requires the negative data of ungrammatical sentences, or when a textual example is not at hand, the textual examples have been supplemented with elicited sentences. The elicited sentences come from fieldwork in Saskatoon, Saskatchewan during the summer of 1985, and from fieldwork with Cree speakers residing in California, in 1984 and 1985. The textual examples are mostly taken from Eloomfield's two putlished volumes of texts (Rloomfield 1930, 1934); a few are drawn from texts collected in Sasl:atoon.

Plains Cree has a simple phonemic inventory:


The stop series is voiceless unaspirated; $t$ is alveolar. $\subseteq$ is an affricate varying from alveolar to alveo-palatal; 5 similarly shows some variation from alveolar to alveo-palatal. Vowel length is distinctive. It is sometimes convenient to distinguish two underlying

```
sources oí i: /i/ and /e/, as well as tivo underlying
sources of t: /t/ and / / . This allows certain
morphophonemic alternations to be easily represented, as
discussed in chapter 2, section 2.5. However, /e/ and / / /
are never written in the Cree orthography.
    Examples from my fieldnotes are given in the standard
orthography developed for Cree, except that vowel length is
indicated by a following raised dot, rather than by a macron
or circumflex over the vowel. (For a discussion of the
standard orthography, see Wolfart and Ahenakew, to appear.)
The transcription used by Bloomfield (1930, 1934) differs
from the standard orthography in a number of ways, and the
exampies taken from Bloomfield's texts have been changed in
some orthographic respects. As above, vowel length is
indicated by a following raised dot. Bloomfield's u}\mathrm{ is here
written 으, his 酋 is here e., and his ts is here c. These
ar\equiv not the only places in which the transcription used by
Bloomfield differs from current orthographic practice. He
also wrote word-final B, which is not phonemic, and
indicated some instances of syncope of short vowels,
external sandhi, and variation in vowel length. These
features of Bloomfield's transeriptions, while not standard,
have been retained in the examples cited here. I have added
interlinear glosses, while maintaining (in most cases)
Bloomfield's English translations.
    The syntactic investigations reported here have been
greatly aided by previous analyses of Cree morphology: most
```

```
of ail by Wolfart 1973. Chapter 2 presents a lengthy
discussion of inflection, as a necessary preliminary to what
follows, but the discussion here is more limited in scope
than that given by Wolfart. For details on the less common
verbai paradigms, as well as an overview of the varieties of
Cree word formation, the reader is referred to this
excellent study. The summary of inflection given in chapter
2 also does noi duplicate the presentation found in Ahenakew
1984, a clear and detailed discussion of noun and verb
classes, basic paradigms, and morphophonemic alternations.
For readers unfamiliar with Algonquian lanclages, Ahenakew
1984 is the more accessible description. Other resources on
Cree include the dictionaries of Lacombe 1874 and Faries
1938, and the wordlist of Bloomfield 1984.
```

2. Overview of following chapters

Chapter 2 describes inflection, especially the complex system of verb inflection. As will be seen in chapter 5, the inflectional features associeted with the verb serve to link the arguments of the verb to the proper grammatical functions. The marking of these features on the verb, however, is accomplished in a rather unusual manner. Most of the affixes encoding person and number features are not specialized for subject or object, nor are the affix positions themselves dedicated to encoding information about a particular grammatical function. Rather, special suffixes on transitive verbs link the person and number features of
the other inflectional affixes to subject and object. Transitive verbs may be divided into two sets, called direct and inverse, based upon the particular suffix used to perform the linking of features with grammatical functions. Inverse verbs with obviative third person subjects and proximate third person objects display a discourse functional similarity to passives in other languages. Syntactically, however, the direct and inverse verbs are both active. Chapter 3 presents the syntactic analysis of the direct and inverse forms, contrasting them with the genuine passive of Cree. The chapter also contains a discussion of constructions which may be used as tests for grammatical relations in Cree.

Obviation is taken up in chapter 4. Obviative third persons receive special marking, while the proximate third person is expressed by unmarked third person forms. Within a fairly narrow syntactic domain, obviation is obligatory. That is, if there are two or more third persons within a certain syntactic context, all but one must be marked obviative. Obviation is optional outside this syntactic context, and is used in narratives for various purposes. Chapter 4 outlines the syntactic conditions affecting obviation, and also discusses some of its optional uses. The discussion of the uses of obviation examines in depth the patterns found in a single text. This text, taken from Bloomfield 1934, is given in full as an appendix to this chapter.

Chapter 5 examines the inventory of grammatical functions subcategorized for by verbs in Cree: subjects, objects, second objects, obliques, sentential complements, and secondary predicates. Depending on the grammatical function, subsategorization requirements may be satisfied by a separate word, by a morpheme within a complex word, or by the inflection on the verb. This chapter also discusses lexical processes that increase or decrease valence. The lexical entries and syntactic iexical rules are presented in the framework of Lexical Functional Grammar (Bresnan 1982b), along with an introduction to LFG concepts and terminology.

The advantage of the Lexical-Functional Grammar framework for describing a non-configurational language is that it represents grammatical relations at a level of funciienal structure, not at the level of constituent structure. Cree constituent structure displays no characteristic distinguishing subjects from objects. As seen in the examples given at the beginning of the chapter, all varieties of word order are possible for lexical subjects and objects. There is no evidence for a UP nede in Cree; the =leuse structure for (1), for example, would be the following:
(9)


There is also no evidence for any underlying levei of constituent structure: there are no movement rules, and no evidence of gaps. Relative clauses, for example, are internally headed:

```
    (10) [Bloomfiels 1934, P. 98]
        e-kosi kotak awa,
        so other this
        osi-mah ow oskini-kiw ka--nipahimiht,
        his y.sib. obv this young man be killed obv
```

        'Then this other one, the young man
        whose younger brother had been killed,"
    ow oskini-kiw "this young man" occurs neither on the
    left or right periphery of the relative clause, but is
instead between two constituents of the lower clause:
(11)


Chapter 5 describes only a few of the lexical processes which have syntactic consequences, and in general, the material presented here is far from being a complete survey of the morphosyntax of Cree. Rather, this dissertation is intended to provide a basis for continuing research. The discussion begins in the next chapter, with the survey of inflection.

## Chapter 2

Inflection

Cree is mostly head-marking in the sense of Nichols 1986. The grammatical functions of subject and object are marked on the verb, rather than by case endings on NPs. Possession is indicated on the possessed noun; contrast the dependent-marking strategy of German or Russian (or English 's) where it is the possesscr that receives marking, with genitive case.

The inflectional system of any Algonquian language merits a book-length study of its own; for Cree, Wolfart 1973 gives a fuller account of infleciion than what is presented in this chapter. The present analysis differs in a few details from that given by Wolfart; these differences are listed in the final section of this chapter.

Although the inflectional system has been described elsewhere, it is necessary to include a description of basic paradigms here to make the examples in later chapters comprehensible. However, it is probably not necessary to read all of the material in this chapter at the outset. The examples in subsequent chapters will be glossed for the categories inflected for on verbs and nouns. For example:
(1) niwa-pama-wak 'I see them' see 1-3p

The interlinear gloss gives the stem, followed by the subject and object indicated by the inflection: here, first person singular subject, and third person plural object. In
the discussion of inflection in this chapter, the forms will be broken down into morphemes:
(2) ni-wa-pam-a--w-ak
1 see dir 3 3p $\quad$ 'I see them"

However, for the purposes of the discussion in the later chapters, this level of detail is usually not necessary.

For now, the reader may wish to read only the general discussions of inflection found in sections 1 and 2 , and then skip ahead to chapter 3. In the following chapters, all discussion of inflection will be accompanied by references back to the pertinent sections of this chapter.

The bulk of this chapter is devoted to the system of verb inflection which marks subject and object features. First, though, noun inflection will be briefly surveyed. The following nominal categories will be discussed: genders number, obviation, locative case, and possession. For details on other topics in noun inflection, see Wolfart 1973 or Ahenakew 1984.

1. Noun intlection

Cree nouns belong to one of two genders, animate or inanimate. The animate class includes people, animals, most plants, and some objects. Examples of animate nouns include the following:

```
    (3) iskwe-w "woman"
    si.si.p "duck"
    mi.tos "tree"
    se-hke-payi-s "car"
    ospwa-kan 'pipe'
The inanimate class includes most objects, most body parts, and some parts of plants. Examples of inanimate nouns are given telow.
(4) mo-hkoma-n 'knife'
misit ni-piy "leaf"
Animate and inanimate nouns take different plural suffixes: -ak is the ending for animate plural nouns, and -a is the ending for inanimate plurals.
(5) ne-pe-w-ak 'men' man pl mi-nis-a 'berries' berry pl
Obviation is a distinction made within third person, motivated by syntactic and discourse conditions that will be discussed in chapter 4. In a stretch of discourse, one third person is considered "proximate", all others, "obviative". The proximate NP is unmarked. Obviative animate nouns are marked by the ending -a. In the following example, oskini-kiskwe.w 'young woman' is proximate, and awa-sisa "child" is obviative. (The final h written isy Bloomfield is not phonemic.)
```

(6) [Bloomfield 1930, p. 10]
awa oskini-kiskwe-w ki-we-htahe-w this young woman bring home
anihih awa.sis-ah, ... that child obv
'This young woman brought the lad home,...'
awa is the form of "this" used with proximate animate nouns; anihi is the form of 'that' for obviative animate nouns. See Wolfart 1973 for a complete discussion of determiner and pronominal paradigms.

For inanimate nouns, no nominal ending distinguishes proximate from obviative. However, this opposition is reflected in verbal inflection when the inanimate NP is the subject of an intransitive verb. (See section 4 below for a discussion of the inflection of Inanimate Intransitive verbs.) In the examples delow, the verbs are in the conjunct order, discussed in section 2.1 below, and are here used as nominal modifiers. . In this use, the preverb ka•- indicates definiteness of the head noun.

$$
\begin{array}{cc}
\text { ka--mihkwa-k } & \text { maskisin } \\
\text { be red } 3 & \text { shoe }
\end{array}
$$

'the shoe [prox] which is red'
(8) ka--minkwa--yi-k omaskisin be red obv 3 his shoe
'his shoe [obv] which is red'
The noun in (8) is obviative because it is possessed by a third person, as discussed in chapter 4.

There is a locative case ending, -ihk, used on objects of directional postpositions, and on nouns without an adposition to indicate location. -ihk may be added to all

```
grammatically inanimate nouns, and to those (grammatically)
animate nouns which are semantically inanimate. Nouns
marked with the locative case do not mark plural or
obviative.
    (9) mi-tos-ihk *in the tree [anim]"
                        tree loc
        wa-skahikan-ihk ohci 'from the house [inan]'
        house loc from
    Possession is marked on the possessed noun by prefixes
and suffixes. The prefixes mark the person of the
possessor. If the possessor is plural or obviative, these
features are indicated by suffixes. The paradigm below
illustrates possessive affixes on the inanimate noun
maskisin 'shoe".
        ni-maskisin-ina-n
        ki-maskisin-inaw
        ki-maskisin-iwa-w
        o-maskisin-iwa-w
        o-maskisin-iyiw
```

(10) ni-maskisin ki-maskisin o-maskisin
"my shoe"
"your shoe"
"his shoe"
"our (excl.) shoe?
'our (incl.) shoe" "your (pl.) shoe"
"their shoe"
'his (obv.) shoe"

```
Nouns possessed by third person possessors are obviative. For animate nouns, obviation is marked by a suffix =a. The obviative marker follows the suffix indicating a plural or obviative possessor.
(11) o-ta-nis-iwa-w-a 'their daughter' 3 dghter 3p obv
Plural marking of the possessed \(N P\) also follows the suffix marking a plural or obviative possessor. This pattern is strikingly similar to the inflection of verbs in the independent order, discussed below. (The suffix -a•-,
```

```
glossed "direct", in the transitive verb indicates that the
non-third person argument is subject and the third person
argument is object.)
    (12) ni-ta-nis-ina-n-ak 'our (excl.) daughters'
        1 dghter 1p pl
    (13) ni-sa-kih-a--na\cdotn-ak 'we (excl.) love them'
        1 love dir 1p 3p
    The similarity between noun inflection and the
inflection of verb's in the independent order suggests that
the inflectional affixes are associated only wi.th featu:es
of person and number, and are not explicitly linked to
particular grammatical functions. This theme will be
returned to below.
```

2. General organization of verb inflection
In this section, an overview of the system of verb
inflection will be presented, along with a chart listing the
verbal affixes. The following sections of this chapter
discuss the distribution of affixes marking features of
subject and object on each of the four stem classes.
The description of inflection begins with the division
of verb stems into classes, and the grouping of inflectional
paradigms into "orders".

### 2.1. Stem classes and inflectional orders

Verb stems in Cree, and in Algonquian languages generally, fali into one of four classes, depending on their

```
valence and on the gender of one of their arguments. There
are two classes of intransitive verb stems, one class
requiring a grammatically animate subject, and the other
class requiring a grammatically inanimate subject.
    (14) mihkosi-w-ak asiniy-ak
        be red 3 pl rock pl
        "The rocks are red"
    (15) mihkwa.-w-a maskisin-a
        be red 3 pl shoe pl
    "The shoes are red"
    mihkosi- 'be red' can only be used with animate
subjects, such as asiniy 'rock', which belongs to the
animate gender class. mihkwa.- 'be red' is similarly
sperialized for inanimate subjects.
    Transitive verb stems also come in pairs, with the
choice of verb stem dependent on the gender of one of the
verb's arguments. But, unlike the intransitives, the
transitive verb stems are sensitive to the gender of the
object of the verb, not to the gender of the subject.
wa-pam- "see" is used if the gender of the object is
animate; wa-paht- if it is inanimate.
    (16) ni-wa-pam-a--w asiniy
    "I see the rock'
    (17) ni-wa-paht-e\cdot-n maskisin
    'I see the shoe'
    The four classes of verb stems are labelled as follows:
```

```
(18) Animate Intransitive (AI) Inanimate Intransitive (II) Transitive Animate (TA) Transitive Inanimate (TI)
In determining the class of a particular verb stem, only subjects and (first) objects are taken into account. The presence or absence of other types of arguments, such as secand objectss obliques, sentential complements, and secondary predicates, has no effect on tha class membership of the stem. For example, ohtohte.- 'come from' requires a subject and an obiique locative argument. Although ohtohte. - has more than one argument, the absence of a direct object places it in the Animate Intransitive class. Verbs with both a first object and a second object, such as mi-y- 'give’, belong to the Transitive Animate class. For mi.y \(=\) the recipient is the first object, the thing given the second object.) Varieties of subcategorization frames are discussed in more detail in chapter 5.
The assignment of a verb stem to one of the four Classes listed in (18) corresponds, by and large, to the actual syntactic valence of the verb stem. There are, however, cases where a subject or object merked in the inflectional morphology does not correspond to a syntactic argument of the verb. For example, kimiwan- "rain' can never take a lexical NP subject, but is inflected with Inanimate Intransitive endings as if it had a pronominal inanimate singular subject. [1] In a parallel fashion, certain Transitive Inanimate verbs display inflection for an
```

```
inanimaie object, although there is no syntactic object. An
example is kaske.viht- 'be lonesome, homesick'.
    Each class of verb stem may be inflected in one of
three "orders": independent, conjunct, and imperative
<except that Inanimate Intransitive verbs have no imperative
forms). "Order" is an Algonquianist term referring to a
superordinate category of paradigms. For example, the
conjunct order consists of the simple conjunct indicative,
the changed conjunct indicative (with ablaut of the first
vowel in the verb stem), the future imperative, the
subjunctive, and the iterative paradigms. There are many
similarities among the endings of these five paradigms,
which motivate grouping them together as a class. Verbs in
main clauses may appear in any of the three orders, while
verbs in subordinate clauses must be in the conjunct order.
The markers of several inflectional categories vary
according to the order of the verb. This chapter will
present the indicative paradigms of the independent and the
conjunct orders; the imperative order will not be discussed.
    Before discussing the inflectional morphology found on
verbs, some brief comments will be made regarding uses of
changed conjunct verbs. This is the most frequently used
paradigm in the conjunct order, found in the majority of
subordinate clauses, and in some main clduses as well.
    Most instances of the changed conjunct bear either the
preverb e.- or the preverb ka.-. The functions of these
preverbs are not fully understood, but some general
```

```
observations may be made. e.- is used with verbs in
subordinate clauses in general. It often appears on
relative clauses when the referent is first mentioned, and
it sometimes shows up in on verbs in matrix clauses,
apparently conveying continuative aspect.
    ka-- is most frequently attached to changed conjunct
verbs used as relative clauses, and seems to indicate
definiteness of the head. It is also used with cleft
constructions. When a changed conjunct verb with ka.- is
used in an adverbial clause, the verb has a perfective
reading.
Changed conjunct verbs marked with ka.- also are found in matrix clauses. In narratives, these verbs present foregrounded, previously unknown information; in other words, this use of ka- is quite different from its use in cleft constructions, where it expresses presupposed information.
The following examples of matrix clause uses of the changed conjunct marked with ka.- are taken from a single text.
(19) ke-tahtawe e-sa awa pe-yak na•pe-w
presently

this one man ka-miskahk wa-pamon.
find 3-inan mirror "After a while this one man found a mirror."
```

```
    (20)
            e\cdot-wa\cdotpamot e-tokwe. ispi•,
                ka--wa-pama-t oste.sa.
            see 3-abv his older brother obv
                'When he looked in the mirror,
                        he saw his older brother.'
(21)
e.kwa e-tokwe ispi awa kise-yiniw
and when this oldman
            ka--wa-pamot,
                    look in mirror 3
ka--misi-ma-topayit e-sa.
    greatly burst into tears 3
        'And when this old man looked in the mirror,
        he burst into tears."
As seen above, a clause containing a changed conjunct verb marked with ka.- may occur as the only clause of the sentence, or it may follow a clause containing a changed conjunct verb marked with e•-. (It may also follow a clause containing a verb in the independent order: see, for example, line 27 of the text given as an appendix to chapter 4.) The third example above shows a pair of conjoined clauses, each containing a changed conjunct verb marked with ka・ニ.
```


### 2.2. Inflectional template

The structure of Cree verb inflection may be represented as a flat template, with one prefix position and eight suffix positions. The position class of a given affix is identified not only by what other affixes may precede or follow it, but also paradigmatically, by its being in

```
complementary distribution with other affixes in that
position class.
    In the independent order, inflectional affixes appear
in the prefix position and the first seven suffix positions.
The conjunct order has no inflectional prefixes, but uses
all eight suffix positions. Of these affix positions, the
prefix and suffixes 1, 2, 3, 5, and 7 participate in marking
features of the subject and object, the only grammatical
functions verbs are inflected for. The majority of affixes
belong to suffix positions 2 or 5. For the indicative
paradigms considered here, a position 5 suffix is
obligatory. Transitive verbs also require a position \sum
suffix. The conditions governing the use of affixes in the
other positions will be sovered in the later sections of
this chapter.
    Positions 4, 6, and 8 do not mark features of the
subject or object. Some affixes of these positions will be
briefly illustrated here, but these three affix positions
will not be discussed further; they are listed in the chart
mostly to motivate the division of the other affix
positions. See Wolfart }1973\mathrm{ for a more detailed discussion
of these affix positions. The following examples illustrate
a preterit marker in position 4, the future imperative, also
in position 4, the dubitative in position 6, and the
subjunctive marker in position 8. Dubitative and preterit
forms are rare in Plains Cree, though they are apparently
more common in eastern Cree dialects (see Ellis 1971).
```

```
    (22) preterit [Bloomfield 1934, P.6]
        ni-kost-a--htay anah
        1 fear dir pret that
        ka--wih-kakwe--nipah-a\cdot-ya\cdothk
        intend try kill dir 1p
    'And did I not fear him
        whom we were going to kill?"
(23) subjunctives
        future imperative [Bloomfield 1934, P. 52]
        ke-kway wa-paht-am-an-i,
    something see ts 2 subj
        pe--itohte--hk-an
    hither go imp z
        'If you see anything, come back here."
(24) dubitative [Bloomfield 1934, P. 42]
        a-say wiyawa-w wa-hyaw aya--toke.-nik
        already they far be dub 3p
    "No doubt they are far on their way by now."
The surfix -a.-二, glossed "direct", is a position 2
suffix indicating a non-third person subject acting on a
third person object. The opposition of Transitive Animate
direct and inverse forms is discussed below and in chapter
3. In (23) the morpheme glossed "ts" is a position 2 theme
sign used with Transitive Inanimate verbs. The above
examples also dispiay some forms of person and number
markers not listed in the chart below, e.g. -nik for third
plural in <24:. Only affixes used in the indicative
paradigms of the independent and conjunct order are listed
in the chart below.
```


### 2.3. Affix chart

```
As an overview to the inflectional system, the affixes are listed in the chart below, arranged according to position class. The chart is intended also as a convenient summary which readers may refer back to when reading later chapters. The chart contains some terminology that has not yet been introduced; all terms will be explained in the discussion following the chart.
Qbviation, marked by various suffixes in positions 1 , 3, and 7, will be covered in this chapter mostly from the standpoini of its morphological realization. Chapter 4 discusses the syntactic and discourse conditions which trigger the obviative marking. Likewise, the discussion of the direct/inverse opposition of Transitive Animate verbs will here focus on the distishution of the direct and inverse markers of suffix position 2. \%.The syntax and use of these verb forms will be explored in the following chapters.
In the interest of keeping the chart readable, alternate forms of affixes have not been given in the chart itself, but instead are noted in section 2.4, immediately after the chart. This is followed by a discussion of general murphophonemic processes affecting inflection, in section 2.5. As mentioned in chapter 1 , when describing morphophonemic alternations, it is convenient to distinguish two underlying sources for \(\underline{i}: / i /\) and /e/. The suffixes beginning with i are therefore listed in the chart along with a form in virgules, showing whether the \(i\) represents
```

/i/ or /e/. The distinct morphophonemic behavior of /i/ and /e/ is discussed in section 2.5.

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(25) Inflectional template for verbs

(26) Affix chart

Prefix position
[independent order only]
ni $\quad$ st person
ki 2nd person

## Suffix positions

1. obviative
im /em/
2. theme signs

Transitive Inanimate
Class I stems
e. non-3 subj (indep.)
am elsewhere
Class II stems
a-
Transitive Animate direct theme signs

inverse theme signs
iti /eti/ 1 subj - 2 obj
ikw /ekw/ 3 subj - non-3 obj 3 obv subj - 3 obj
3. obviative
iyi /eyi/
4. preterit; future imperative
5. person and number
independent order: number (for non-third persons) and person (for third person)
ne-n 1pexc
na-naw 1p inc
na-wa-w 2p
$n$ non-3 sing
w 3
conjunct order:
person and number (for non-third persons) person (for third person)

| ya-n | $15 g$ |
| :--- | :--- |
| yan | $2 s g$ |
| ya.hk | $1 p$ exc |
| yahkw | $1 p$ inc |
| ye-kw | $2 p$ anim |
| $t$ | 3 inan |
| k |  |

portmanteau markers:
ak $15 g$ subj - 3 obj
at $2 s g$ subj - 3 obj
it /it/ 3 subj - 159 obj
isk /esk/ 3 subj - 2sg obj
akok 1 sg subj - 2pl obj
6. preterit; dubitative
7. third person plural, ooviative
independent order:

| ak | 3 anim pl |
| :--- | :--- |
| $a$ | 3 anim obv |
| $a$ | 3 inan pl |

conjunct order:

| ik | ik/ | 3 animpl |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $i$ | i/ | 3 inan pl |

8. subjunctive; iterative
[conjunct order only]

### 2.4. Notes on chart

Prefix: There is a third person prefix ou used on preterit verbs. (Cf. the prefix o- marking third person possessors on nouns, illustrated in section 1.) Before most vowel initial stems, the forms of the prefixes are nit-, kit-, and ot-.

Suffix position $2:$ In the examples below, position 2 suffixes on TA verbs will be glossed either "dir" (direct) or "inv" (inverse), referring to the sets presented above. The reader is asked to Ezfer to the chart for the exact features encoded by the position 2 suffix. Transitive Inanimate verbs do not have an opposition of direct and inverse forms, so the position 2 suffix used on these verbs will be glossed only "ts" (theme sign).
-iti= (1st subj - 2na obj) is -it- in the conjunct order.

The inverse marker -ikw- is sometimes realized as -iko-.

A few TI stems (class III) take a $\phi$ theme sign. A $\phi$ theme sign also appears with certain subject-object combinations on TA verbs in the conjunct order.

Suffix position 3: For combinations of obviative subject and non-third plural object, the position 3 suffix is $\phi$ in the indeperdent order, -wa. in the conjunct.

Suffix position 5: The affixes for 1 st person inclusive plural and and person plural in the independent order are realized as -naw and zwa.w, respectively, in

```
certain Transitive Animate forms.
    Those position 5 suffixes of the conjunct order
beginning in }y\mathrm{ drop the }y\mathrm{ following a consonant.
    The marker for 3rd animate in the conjunct order is
ordinarily -t, but after nasals it is -k.
```

2.5. General morphophonemic rules

Besides the special alternations listed above, a number of general morphophonemic rules apply to the inflectional affixes. Underlying /i/ and /e/ are both realized as i, but they have distinct morphophonemic effects. /e/, but not /i/, contracts with a preceding vowel-glide sequence, producing a iong vowel. Compare the following examples.
(27) /ki-pe-htaw-eti-n/ kipe-hta•tin 2 hear inv sg
'I hear you'
(28) /ki-pe-htaw-i-n/ kipe-htawin 2 hear dir sg "You hear me"

In contrest, /i/, but not /e/, palatalizes a preceding t, across a morpheme boundary. $t$ is itself associated with two underlying segments, /t/ and / $/$ /. /t/ palatalizes to $\subseteq$, while $/ \theta /$ palatalizes to 5 . The following examples illustrate, first, that $/ e /$ does not trigger palatalization, second, /i/ causing palatalization of $/ \theta /$, and finally, /i/ palatalizing /t/.

```
    (29) /ki-na-0-eti-n/ kina-titin
        2 fetch inv sg
        "I fetch you"
    (30)
        /ki-na\cdot0-i-n/ kina-sin
        2 fetch dir sg
        "you fetch me"
    (31) /e--api-t-ik/
        e--apicik
        sit 3 3p
    "they are sitting" [conjunct]
    /i/ and /e/ behave alike witi respect to one
morphophonemic rule: both contract with a preceding CW to
form Ee.
    (32) /ni-pakamahw-ekw-w/ nipakamahok
            1 hit inv 3
        "he hits me"
    (33)
        /e.-pakamahw-it/ e.-pakamahot
        Hit 3-1
        'he hits me" [conjunct]
    As illustrated in (32), above, word-final w is also
subject to morphophonemic variation. w is deleted after
consonants if followed by another w, or by word boundary.
Finally, two more morphophonemic rules need to be mentioned:
nasals become h before stops, and suffix-initial short
vowels are deleted after vowels. Both of these rules are
illustrated below.
(34) /e.-wa-pan-k/ e.-wa-pahk
                        be dawn 3
    'it is dawn' [conjunct]
```

```
(35) /nikamo-eyi-w-a/ nikamoyiwa sing obv 3 obv 'he [obv] sang'
The rest of the chapter will be organized as follows. First the inflectional pattern for intransitives will be discussed, followed by Transitive Inanimate inflection. Last of all, the special complications of the Transitive Animate paradigm will be presented. The Transitive Inanimate stems and the intransitives are fully inflected only for subject, while the Transitive Animate stems are inflected for both subject and object. Full paradigms of each of the four verb classes are given in the appendix following this chapter.
```

3. Animate Intransitive

Animate Intransitive stems are those stems specialized for a grammatically animate subject. The verb is inflected for the subject, and for no other argument. In the discussion below, inflection for first and second person will be presented first, followed by third person inflection. The position classes to be discussed are the prefix position, and suffix positions 3, 5, and 7. Suffixes of positions 1 and 2 do not appear on intransitive verbs.
3.1. Non-third person subjects

In the independent order, non-third person subjects are marked for person in the prefix position, and for number in
position 5.
(36) ni-pimipahta.-n 'I run'

1 run sg
(37) ki-pimipahta.-n

2 run sg
(38)
'you sg. run'
'you pl. run'

The first person prefix is ni-, the second person prefix is ki二. ki- is also used with the first person plural inclusive.
(39) ki-pimipahta--na-naw 'we (incl.) run' 2 run 1pine

In the conjunct order, there is no prefix position. Suffixes in position 5 encode both person and number of non-third person arguments.

```
    (40) e--pimipahta--ya•n 'I run'
        run 159
```

    (41) e--pimipahta--yan
        run 2 sg
    (42) e.-pimipahta--ye.k 'you pl.run' run $2 p l$
3.2. Third person subjects

Like the non-third person subjects in the independent order, information about third person subjects of AI verbs is located in two separate positions. A suffix in position 5 indicates third person, while suffixes in position 7 indicate other features such as plurality. This pattern holds in both the independent and the conjunct order.

```
            pimipahta\cdot-w 'he runs"
            run 3
                                    "they run"
        run 3 3p
        e--pimipahta--t 'he runs' [conj]
            run 3
                e.-pimipahta--c-ik "they run' [conj]
            run 3 3p
                            As mentioned above in section 2.5., the conjunct third
plural marker -ik palatalizes a preceding t.
    Throughout the Cree inflectional system, there is a
general division of non-third person versus third, with the
affixes marking number often separate from those marking
person. In position 5, there is an overlap between the
person marker for third persons, and affixes marking
features of non-third person. As will be seen below, this
overlap leads to complications in the Transitive Animate
paradigm, where it is possible to have both a third person
argument and a non-third person argument.
    Amother feature of third persons that may be marked on
verbs is obviation. As will be discussed in more detail in
chapter 4, if there is more than one third person in a
clause, all but one will be marked as obviative. The single
unmarked third person -- called "proximate" -- is typically
the most central to the discourse; tine obviative third
persons are more peripheral. One construction in which
obviative marking is obligatory is when an animate noun is
possessed by a third person possessor. This always triggers
obviative marking on the possessed noun. In the examples
```

```
below illustrating obviative marking on verbs; possessed
animate nouns will be used as subjects.
    The obviative status of the subject of an Animate
Intransitive verb is reflected on the verb by the position 3
suffix -iyi-. In the independent order, obviative subjects
are also marked by a position 7 suffix, -a.
    (47) 0-kosis-a pimipahta--yi-w-a
        3 son obv run obv 3 obv
        'his son [obv] runs"
    (48) o-kosis-a e.-pimipahta--yi-t
        3 son obv run obv 3
        'his son [obv] runs' [conjunct]
    Animate third persons marked obviative are neutralized
for number: the obviative noun ending -a is in
complementary distribution with the plural ending -ak, as
are the homophonous position 7 verbal suffixes which mark
obviation and plurality in the independent order.
```

4. Inanimate Intransitive

Inanimate Intransitive verb stems are specialized for grammatically inanimate subjects, and therefore have no first or second person forms. Inflectional categories found on II verbs are number and obviation. Unlike the other three types of verb stems, Inanimate Intransitive verbs distinguish singular and plural obviative subjects. The following examples illustrate inflected II verbs, first in the independent order, then in the conjunct order.

```
    (49) minkwa-w maskisin
        be red 3 shoe
        "the shoe is red"
    (50) mihkwa--w-a maskisin-a
        be red 3 pl shoe pl
    "the shoes are red"
    (5i) mihkwa--yi-w o-maskisin
        be red obv 3 3 shoe
    "his shoe [obv] is red'
    (52) mihkwa--yi-w-a o-maskisin-a
        be red obv 3 pl 3 shoe pl
    'his shoes [obv] are red"
Conjunct forms:
    (53) e.-mihkwa.-k maskisin
        be red 3 shoe
    "the shoe is red' [conjunct]
    (54)
        e.-mihkwa.-k-i maskisin-a
        be red 3 pl shoe pl
    "the shoes are red" [conjunct]
    (55)
        e.-mihkwa--yi-k o-maskisin
        be red obv 3 3 shoe
    "his shoe [obv] is red" [conjunct]
    (56) e--mihkwa--yi-k-i o-maskisin-a
        be red obv 3 pl 3 shoe pl
    'his shoes [obv] are red' [conjunct]
    The II forms are quite straightforward: -w-, the
position 5 suffix marking third person {animate or
inanimate) appears throughout the independent order forms;
in the conjunct forms, the position 5 suffix for inanimate
third person is used: -k=. Plurality is marked by za in the
independent order, and -i in the conjunct: both are
```

position 7 suffixes. The obviative status of the subject of an Inanimate Intransitive verb is marked in both orders by the position 3 suffix -iyi-. This is the same suffix that is used in the Animate Intransitive forms discussed above, and in the transitive forms below. But, unlike Animate Intransitive verbs, there is no obviative marker in position 7 for the independent order verbs (compare the absence of a neminal obviative suffix for inanimates).

## 5. Transitive Inanimate

The inflection of Transitive Inanimate verbs -- that is, those transitive verbs specialized for an inanimate object -- is very similar to that of Animate Intransitive verbs, discussed above. The major difference between the two paradigms is that the $T I$ inflection includes a position 2 suffix. In general, the suffixes of position 2 , traditionally called "theme signs", contribute information about the features of both subject and object. They play a key role in the inflection of Transitive Animate stems, as will be discussed below. The role of the theme signs in the Transitive Inanimate paradigm, however, is less complicated than their use with Transitive Animate verbs.
5.1. Theme signs

Transitive Inanimate verb stems can be divided into three classes, on the basis of the theme sign required by
the stem (see Bloomfield 1962). Class I TI stems take
-e.- alternating with -am=, Class II stems take -a.-a, and Class III stems, the smallest class, have a null theme sign. The alternation of theme signs in Class I operates as follows: in the independent order, with a first or second person subject, the theme sign is -e.- otherwise zam- is used. The following examples illustrate TI stems in the three classes, with the theme sign in position 2 glossed "ts".

Class I
(57) ni-wa-paht-e-n 'I see it'
(58) wa-paht-am-w-ak 'they see it'
(59) e--wa-paht-am-a-n
'I see it'
see ts $15 g$
[conjunct]
Class II
(60) ni-sa-kiht-a•-n 1 love ts sg
(61)

$$
\begin{array}{cc}
\text { e-sa-kiht-a•-ya•n } & \text { 'I love it' } \\
\text { love ts } 159 & \text { [conjunct] }
\end{array}
$$

Class III
(ここ) ni-mi•ci-ф-n
'I eat it'
1 eat ts 59
(63)

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { e--mi-ci-ф-ya•n } \\
& \text { eat ts } 159
\end{aligned}
$$

'I eat it"
[conjunct]

### 5.2. Subject inflection

The inflectional affixes of the prefix position and suffix positions 3, 5, and 7 are idenicical to those


#### Abstract

presented above for the Animate Intransitive verbs. As noted above in section 2.4., on alternate forms of the inflectional affixes, the position 5 suffixes of the conjunct order that begin in $y$ drop the $y$ if a consonant precedes. This environment often occurs in the conjunct order of Class I Transitive Inanimate verbs, as seen in (59) above, where the position 5 marker for first person singular is -a.n, rather than -ya•n, following the theme sign -am-. Likewise, the conjunct order marker for 3rd person is -k, not -t, when the theme sign -am immediately precedes.

Transitive Inanimate stems are fully inflected only for subject. The presence of the theme sign in position 2 indicates that the verb is transitive, and the shape of the verb stem indicates that the gender of the object must be inanimate. However, the number of the object is not indicated; nor is the status of the object with respect to obviation. In this regard, Transitive Inanimate verbs differ from Transitive Animate verbs, which specify features for both subject and object.


6. Transitive Animate

The last class of verb stems to be discussed is Transitive Animate, the class which presents the greatest number of complications. In this class, the object of the verb is animate, so nearly all possible combinations of person, number, and obviation features for both subject and object are found in the Transitive Animate paradigm. The

```
only exceptions are those combinations representing
reflexive or reciprocal action: reflexives and reciprocals
are formed by derivational suffixes, which turn the TA stem
into an AI stem. This derived intransitive is then
inflected for subject only. Reflexives and reciprocals will
be discussed in chapter 5.
    Following the Algonquianist tradition, Transitive
Animate inflection is discussed in three sets: one set
involving a third person subject acting on a third person
object, another set involving a non-third person subject
acting on a non-third person object, and the "mixed set",
where one argument is third person and the other non-third.
The discussion begins with the mixed set.
```

6.1. Mixed set

The discussion of Transitive Animate inflection will begin by considering verbs inflected for one non-third person argument and one third person argument. The following examples have a first person subject and a third person object.
(64) ni-wa•pam-a-w 'I see him'

1 see dir 3
(65) ni-wa-pam-a.-w-ak 'I see them" 1 see dir 3 3p

Compare the examples above with the following Animate Intransitive forms, repeated here for convenience:

$$
\begin{array}{cc}
\text { ni-pimipahta•-n }  \tag{36}\\
1 & \text { run }
\end{array}
$$

'I run'

(66) ni-wa-pam-a-na-n 'we (excl.) see him'
(67) ni-wa-pam-a-na-n-ak 'we (excl.) see them'
(68) ni-pimipahta-na-n 'we (excl.) run'

Again, the first two examples are Transitive Animate forms; the third is an Animate Intransitive form given for comparison. In (66) and (67), where the subject is plural, the features of the subject are marked in the same fashion as on the Animate Intransitive verb of (68). This is in contrast to (64), where the singular first person subject does not have an overt marker of singularity. In all three examples above, the prefix ni- marks first person, while the position 5 suffix -na-n marks plurality. As in the earlier examples (64) and (65), the theme sign -a.- indicates that the non-third argument is subject and the third person argument is object. Plurality of third person, as in (65), is marked by the position 7 suffix =ak.

What is different about (66) and (67), distinguishing them from all examples seen so far involving a third person, is that -w, the person marker for third person, does not appear in position 5. Instead, in (66) and (67), position 5 is filled by the suffix marking the first person argument as plural.

Leaving the discussion of position 5 for the moment, let us now consider some forms in which the subject is third person and the object is a non-third person. Where morphophonemic processes have deleted inflectional material,

```
the underlying form is given along with the actually
occurring form.
    (69) /ni-wa-pam-ekw-w/
            1 see inv 3
        'he sees me"
(70) /ni-wa-pam-ekw-w-ak/ niwa-pamikwak
        1 see inv 3 3p
        'they see me'
    (71) ni-wa-pam-iko-na\cdotn
        1 see inv 1p
        'he sees us (excl.)'
    (72) ni-wa-pam-iko-na\cdotn-ak
    'they see us (excl.)"
The difference in inflection between (64)-(67) and
(69)-(72), above, is in the choice of the position }2\mathrm{ theme
sign. Whereas -a-- links the non-third person argument to
suiject and third person argument to object, -ikw-, or
-iko-, links the third person argument to subject and the
non-third person argument to object. Dtherwise, the
inflection is exactly the same: the person of the non-third
person argument is marked by the prefix ni=; plurality of
the the third person argument is marked by the position 7
suffix -ak. The position 5 suffixes pattern in the same way
in (69)-(72) as they do in the earlier examples: in (71)
and (72), where the non-third argument is plural, position 5
is filled by -na\cdotn, marking plurality. In (69) and (70),
where the non-third argument is singular, the person marker
for third person, -w, appears.
```

These examples illustrate a property of Cree verb inflection that is somewhat unusual: the shape of the person and number affixes does not vary for subject and object. Nor are the affix positions specialized for encoding a particular grammatical function. In general, the morphemes marking subject and object appear in an invariant form, and it is the theme sign of position 2 that explicitly links one argument to subject, and the other to object.

Some accounts of Algonquian inflection (for example, Jolley 1982 on Cree, or LeSourd 1976 on Fox) have analyzed the inflectional system differently. In these accounts, the theme signs mark a voice opposition, with the direct forms (those verbs with -a.-, - e. - , or $-\overline{-}$ - in position 2 ) being active, and the inverse forms (those in which the position 2 suffix is -ikw- or -iti-) some type of passive. This analysis has the effect of allowing a slightly less complex description of the inflectional system. For example, if (69)-(72) were reanalyzed as passives, the prefix ni- could be described as always marking a first person subject.

There is, however, strong syntactic evidence against analyzing the inverse forms as passives; this evidence will be presented in chapter 3. For the remainder of this description of inflection, it will be assumed that both the direct and the inverse forms of Transitive Animate verbs are active.

If the third person argument is obviative, this may be marked in the verb inflection. (Although in texts, at
least, this explicit marking of obviation is sometimes amitted on verbs of the mixed set.)
(73)
ni-wa-pam-im- a- -w-a o-kosis-a
1 see obv dir 3 obv 3 son obv
"I see his son [obv]"
okosisa, a noun possessed by a third person, is obviative, as discussed in section 1. As in the earlier examples, the first person argument is marked by the prefix ni=, and the position 2 theme sign -a-- indicates a non-tinird person subject acting on a third person object (regardless of the obviation status of the third person). The object is marked by three suffixes. $-w$ in position 5 indicates that the object is third person, and -im- in position 1 is used to mark an obviative object of a direct verb in these forms involving one non-third person argument. In the independent order, the position 7 suffix -a additionally reflecis the obviative status of the third person argument.

If it is the subjert that is otviative, acting on a non-third person object, a different pattern is found, as illustraied below.
(74) ni-wa-pam-iko-yi-w-a o-kosis-a
1 see inv obv 3 obv 3 son cbv
'his son [obv] sees me'
This form differs from (73) in two ways: first, as expected, the theme sign in position 2 is iko, indicating that the third person is subject and the non-third person is object. The other difference is in the marking of
obviation. Where (73) marks the obviative object with suffixes in positions 1, 5, and 7, (74) marks the obviative subject with suffixes in positions 3, 5, and 7. The position 3 suffix -iyi- is used here, rather than the position 1 suffix -im-. -im- and -iyi- are in complementary distribution, and - im- never occurs with inverse verb forms. On direct forms, -im- marks obviative objects. (For its use on passives, see section 6.5 below.) If an obviative subject acts on a plural non-third person object, and the vert is in the independent order, there is no position 3 suffix. The obviative subject is marked only by the position 7 suffix -a.
(75) ni-wa•pam-iko-na•n-a

1 see inv 1p obv 'he (obv.) sees us'

The conjunct order forms for non-third person with third person arguments follow the same patterns seen in the independent order in several respects. For instance, if the non-third person argument is plural, it is encoded by a suffix in position 5. As a result, the presence of the third person argument is registered only by the theme sign, and by the third person plural suffix of position 7, if appropriate.
(76)

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { e.-wa.pam-a.-ya.hk-ik } \\
& \text { see dir 1p 3p } \\
& \text { 'we (excl.) see them' [conjunct] }
\end{aligned}
$$

(77)

'they see us (excl.)' [conjunct]
The inflectional pattern is the same in (76) and (77), except for the position 2 theme sign. The direct theme sign indicates that the non-third person argument is the subject, and the third person argument is the object, while the inverse theme sign links the non-third person argument to object, and the third person to subject. Position 5 is filled with the suffix marking first person plural exclusive, and the third plural argument is marked by the position 7 suffix -ik.

However, conjunct order forms for singular non-third person arguments acting on ihird person display a different pattern. The position 2 theme sign is $\phi$, and the position 5 suffixes encode features of both subject and object.
(78)
(80)
'I see him" [conjunct]
'you 59. see him' [conjunct]
'the sees me"
[conjunct]
(81)
'he sees you 59. . [conjunct]

These suffixes do not appear in any of the other inflectional paradigms, and may therefore be considered portmanteau morphemes encoding the person and number of the non-third person argument, along with the information that the other argument is an animate third person. Plurality of the third person argument is indicated by the usual position

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { e--wa-pam-ф-ak } \\
& \text { see } 15 g-3
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { e--wa-pam-p-it } \\
& \text { see 3-1sg } \\
& \text { e--wa-pam-ф-isk } \\
& \text { see 3-2sg }
\end{aligned}
$$

7 suffix -ik, which palatalizes a preceding t.
(82) e--wa-pam-ф-ak-ik 'I see them' see 1sg-3 3p [conjunct]
(83) e--wa-pam-ф-ic-ik 'they see me' see 3-159 3p [conjunct]

Obviative marking in the conjunct order is similar to that seen in the independent order forms above. An obviative object of a direct verb is marked by the position 1 suffix -im=, and an obviative subject of an inverse verb is marked by a position 3 suffix. (The position 3 suffix is -iyi= if the object iss singular; -wa.- if the object is non-third person plural.) As already seen in the conjunct forms for $A I$, II, and TI verbs with obviative subjects, there is no position 7 suffix marking obviation in the conjunct order.
(84)

e.-wa-pam-im-ф-ak
see obv $15 g-3$
o-kosis-a

$$
3 \text { sen ebv }
$$

'I see his son [obv?'
[conjunct]

- -kosis-a

3 son obv
'we (excl.) see his son [obv]' [conjunct]
(86)

$$
\begin{array}{cl}
\text { e-wa•pam-ф-iyi-sk } & 0-k o s i s-a \\
\text { see obv } 3-2 s g & 3 \text { son obv }
\end{array}
$$

'his son [obv] sees you 5g.' [conjunct]
(87)

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { e--wa-pam-iko-wa--ye.k o-kosis-a } \\
& \text { see inv obv 2p } 3 \text { son obv } \\
& \text { 'his son [obv] sees you pl., [conjunct] }
\end{aligned}
$$

```
6.2. Non-third person set
```

These forms involve a second person subject acting on a first person object, or vice versa. First the pattern found in the independent order will be discussed, then the conjunct order.

In the independent order, the position 2 theme sign for second person subject, first person object is -i-. The following examples list all the independent order forms with this theme sign.
(88) ki-wa•pam-i-na•n
2 see dir 1p 'you (sg. or pl.) see us'
(89) $k i-w a \cdot p a m-i-n a \cdot w a \cdot w$ 2 see dir 2p 'you pl. see me'
(90) ki-wa-pam-i-n 2 see dir sg 'you 5g. see me'

The prefix on all of these forms is ki-. The theme sign -i- is considered direct; it specifies the person features of both subject and object. The theme sign does not provide any information about the number of either the subject or the object. This information must be provided elsewhere in the inflection. However, since both arguments are non-third person, the suffixes indicating number of non-third persons are all position 5 suffixes. Position 5 can be filled by only one suffix.

```
Examination of the above examples reveals that when a second person subject, either singular or plural, acts on a first person plural object, it is the first person plural that is marked in position 5. If a second person plural subject acts on a first person singular object, position 5 is filled with the marker for second person plural. There is an interesting difference in the interpretation of these forms. When position 5 is filled with the marker for first person plural, the number of the second person subject is left vague: it could be either singular or plural. But when the position 5 marker is second person plural, it can be inferred that the number of the first person object is singular. This inference is possible because, if the first person object were plural, the position 5 marker would have been na-n, rather than na-wa.w.
In the form for a second person singular subject acting on a first person singular object, position 5 is filled with -n. This suffix is used in intransitives to mark a singular non-third subject; here, it could be interpreted as reflecting the number of either the subject or the object.
Next, the forms for a first person subject acting on a second person object will be discussed. The theme sign for this combination is -iti二, which is considered inverse.
(91) ki-wa-pam-iti-na-n
2 see inv ip
'we see you (sg. or pl.)’
```

(92)
ki-wa•pam-iti-na-wa•w
2 see inv $2 p$
'I see you pl.'
(93) ki-wa-pam-iti-n 2 see inv sg
'I see you sg.'
Except for the difference in the theme sign, these forms are exactly the same as the forms for second person acting on first. The prefix in all cases is ki=, and the position 5 suffixes display the same pattern as seen above. If the first person subject is plural, it is marked in position 5. Otherwise, if there is a second person plural object, it is marked. If both arguments are singular, position 5 is filled with the marker for a singular non-third person. This pattern results in the same difference of interpretation for the forms with a plural marker in position 5. The form which marks first person plural is vague with respect to the number of the second person argument, while the form marking second person plural can only be interpreted as having a singular first person as its other argument.

The distribution of the prefixes marking person in the independent order is sometimes described as being sensitive to a hierarchy of person, as follows:
(94)

$$
2>1>3
$$

The generalization is that the prefix encodes the person of the argument which ranks highest on the hierarchy. This schema succeeds in describing the paradigmatic relationship

```
holding between the person prefixes. Howevar, the position
5 suffixes found in the non-third person set operate on a
different ranking, as shown below:
    (95) 1 pl > 2 pl > non-3 sg.
    The conjunct order forms also reflect this ranking of
person/number categories. If either the subject or the
object is first person plural, it will be marked in position
5 .
    (96) e-wa-pam-i-ya-hk
            see dir 1p
            'you (sg. or pl.) see us' [conjunct]
    (97)
            e.-wa-pam-it-a-hk
            see inv ip
            "we see you (sg. or pl.)' [conjunct]
    When a second person plural subject acts on a first
person singular object, it is the second person which is
marked for number.
    (98)
            e.-wa-pam-i-ye-k
            'you pl. see me' [conjunct]
    If a first person singular subject acts on a second
person plural object, a special ending is used.
    (99)
            e.-wa-pam-it-akok
                see inv 1sg-2p
            "I see you pl.' [conjunct]
    Since =akok shows up nowhere else in the inflectional
system, it is here considered a portmanteau form marking
features of both arguments.
```

```
    When second person singular acts on first person
singular, it is the second person which is marked.
    (100) e--wa-pam-i-yan
        see dir 2sg
    'you sg. see me' [conjunct]
    When first person singular acts on second person
singular, position }5\mathrm{ is filled with the first person
singular suffix.
    (101) e--wa\cdotpam-it-a\cdotn
        'I see you sg.' [conjunct]
    In other words, when both arguments of a verb in the
conjunct order are singular and non-third person, position 5
encodes the subject. The position 5 suffix found in the
independent order on verbs involving two singular non-third
person arguments may also be thought of as encoding features
of the subject, since it marks singular number.
```

6.3. Third person set

This section examines the forms used to express two third person arguments of a Transitive Animate verb. As mentioned earlier, third persons are either proximate or obviative, with the most central participant in the discourse considered proximate, and all others considered obviative. In the discussion below, the following combinations of third person arguments will be examined: proximate subject and obviative object, obviative subject and proximate object, obviative subject and obviative

```
object, and proximate subject with a "further obviative"
object.
For the cases where a proximate subject acts on an obviative object, a direct form of the Transitive Animate verb is used. The position 2 theme sign is -e-- in the independent order, and -a.- in the conjunct order.
(102) wa.pam-e.-w
            see dir 3
            'he [prox] sees him [obv]'
            (103) e--wa.pam-a.-t
                see dir 3
    'he [prox] sees him [obv]' [conjunct]
    There is no prefix on the independent order verb,
because there is no non-third person argument. Position 5
is filled with the person marker for third person. If the
proximate subject is plural, this is indicated in position
7.
    (104) wa-pam-e.-w-ak
        see dir 3 3p
    'they [prox] see him [obv]'
    (105) e--wa-pam-a.-c-ik
        see dir 3 3p
    "they [prox] see him [obv]" [conjunct]
    Except for the theme sign, there is no explicit marking
of the obviative object on the verb (but see the discussion
of proximate subjects with "further obviative" objects,
below; these forms have a position 1 suffix marking the
obviative object.)
```

```
When an obviative subject acts on a proximate object, the Transitive Animate verb is inverse, with the theme sign -ikw in the independent order, and -iko- in the conjunct. (The independent order sometimes uses -iko-, giving wa-pamikow 'he (obv.) sees him (prox.)'.) In the independent order examples below, the underlying form has been given, to illustrate the pssition 5 marker. Regular morphophonemic processes delete \(\underline{w}\) when preceded by a consonant, and followed by \(\underline{w}\) or word boundary.
(106) /wa-pam-ekw-w/ wa•pamik see inv 3 'he [obv] sees him [prox]'
(107) e--wa-pam-iko-t see inv 3
'he [obv] sees him [prox]" [conjunct]
(108) /wa-pam-ekw-w-ak/ wa•pamikwak see inv 3 3p
'he [obv] sees them [prox]"
(109) e--wa-pam-iko-c-ik see inv 3 3p
'he [obv] sees them [prox]' [conjunct]
If the proximate object is plural, it is marked by a position 7 suffix. Although this marking of object, rather than subject, may suggest that these forms are really passives, the syntactic arguments presented in chapter 4 support the analysis of the inverse forms as ective verbs.
There can be only one proximate third person, but more than one obviative. When an obviative third person acts on another obviative, either direct or inverse forms are
```

```
possible.
    (110) wa-pam-e.-yi-w-a
        see dir obv 3 obv
        'he [obv] sees him [obv]'
    (111) e--wa.pam-a.-yi-t
        see dir obv 3
        "he [obv] sees him [obv]' [conjunct]
    (112) wa-pam-iko-yi-w-a
        see inv obv 3 obv
        'he [obv] sees him [obv]'
        (113) e--wa-pam-iko-yi-t
            see inv obv 3
        'he [obv] sees him [obv]' [conjunct]
The inverse forms involving two obviative arguments are
rare. The textual examples below illustrate the use of
these direct and inverse forms
    (114) [Bloomfield 1934, p. 98]
        o-hi na-pe-wah ka--nipaha-yit
        this.obv man obv kill obv-obv [dir]
            owi-kima-kaniyiwah itohtahe.w.
                obv's wife obv take there 3-obv
            'he (prox) took to that place the man (obv)
            who had killed his (obv) wife (obv).,
    Here, the subject of itohtahe.w "take there" is
proximate, and the object is obviative. The object is
expressed as a relative clause: the head noun, na.pe.weh is
obviative, and is the subject of the verb in the relative
clause. The object of the lower verb is also obviative,
referring to the man's wife. Since the wife is referred to
by a possessed NP, in which the man is the possessor, she is
here more peripheral than he is, and the verb form used is
```

```
direct.
    (115) [Bloomfield 1934, p. 70]
    ki-tahtawe. wa-pame.w iskwe-wah e-h-wayawiyit,
        presently see 3-obv woman obv go out obv
    e.-ki--nipahimiht ona-pe-miyiwah,
        be killed obv her husband obv
    e.-ki.-nipahikowit ka-hka-kiwace-na.
            kill obv-obv [inv] Crow Indian obv
    'Presently he saw a woman come out of her lodge,
        a certain woman whose husband had been killed;
        the Crow Indians had killed him.'
In the last clause of the above example, an inverse
form of 'kill' is used. (Bloomfield often writes w}\mathrm{ for
y after ᄋ.) The inverse form is preferred over the direct
form here because the subject of the verb is more peripheral
than the object. An interesting feature of this sentence is
that the husband is first introduced as the obviative
subject of a passive verb: in the following clause, the
verb is repeated in the active, inverse form to identify the
killers. Passive forms are discussed in section 6.5 below.
    When a proximate and two obviative third persons are
present, it is possible to explicitly mark a proximate
subject acting on a "further" obviative. (See Wolfart 1978
for a discussion of the status of this category.)
    (116) wa-pam-im-e.-w o-kosis-iyiw-a
        see obv dir 3 3 son obv obv
        "he; [prox] saw his; [obv] son, [obv]'
(117) e--wa\cdotpam-im-a--t o-kosis-iyiw-a
        see obv dir 3 3 son obv obv
        'he; [prox] saw his; [obv] son,k [obv]' [conj]
```

The subject is proximate; all other third persons must therefore be marked obviative. okosisiyiwa 'his [obv] son' is marked obviative, by the nominal suffix -a, and the possessor is marked obviative by the suffix -iyiw-. The use of a direct verb form that does not include the position 1 suffix -im- would imply only that a proximate subject is acting on an obviative object. Use of this form in the above context would be ambiguous if no lexical NP object were present. The presence of the position 1 obviative marker therefore specifies that the object is the "further" obviative; that is, the obviative third person identified by reference to the first obviative mentioned.

### 6.4. TA inanimate subject forms

Action by an inanimate subject on an animate object is expressed by inverse forms of Transitive Animate verbs. The theme sign is -iko- (alternating with -ikw-). Position 5 is filled with a suffix encoding the features of the the object. The full paradigm is listed in the appendix to this chapter.

In the conjunct order, inanimate subject paradigm is distinct from the animate subject paradigm in that it does not have the specialized portmanteau morphemes encoding action by an animate third person subject on a non-third person singular object. The inanimate subject form for first person object is given below, followed by the corresponding animate subject inverse form.

```
    (118) e--se-kih-iko-ya-n
            scare inv 15g
(119) e.-se.kih-\phi-it
    scare 3-1sg
'it scares me'
'he scares me'
    [conjunct]
The portmanteau forms are used with a zero theme sign. -it, for example in (119), has the specialized combination of features of animate third person subject and first person singular cibject. The inanimate subject form in (118), on the other hand, displays the inverse theme sign, followed by the regular suffix for first person singular. (118) unambiguously encodes action by an inanimate subject, but the information about the gender of the subject is not a function of the features associated with its component morphemes. Rather, this reading is due to the existence of the more highly marked form, (119), specialized for an animate subject. Since this more highly marked form was not selected, (118) can only be interpreted as having an inanimate subject.
All other conjunct forms with inanimate subjects are identical to the regular \(T A\) inverse paradigm. For example, e--se-kihikoya-hk could mean either 'it scares us' or 'he scares us'.
A pattern similar to that of the relationship between (119) and (118) is seen in the independent order with the second person plural ending -wa.w. -wa-w is used in direct and inverse forms of the mixed set. [3]
(120) ki-se-kih-a.-wa-w 'you pl. scare him' 2 scare dir 2p
```

(121) ki-se.kih-iko-wa.w "he scares you pl." 2 scare inv $2 p$

That is, -wa-w is only used when there is an animate third person appearing as the other argument of the verb. In all other contexts, the second person plural ending is -na-we-w. [4]
(122) kipimipahta-na-wa-w 'you pl. run'
kiwa-pahte-na-wa-w "you pl. see it"
kiwa-pamina-wa-w "you pl. see me"
kiwa-pamitina•wa•w 'I see you pl."
The inanimate subject form also takes the less marked variant -na-wa-w:
(123) kise-kihikona-wa-w 'it scares you pl.' Again, there is no overt morpheme encoding inanimate subject in this form. Its interpretation as having an inanimate subject is a consequence of the existence of the more highly specified form for an animate subject.

Another difference between the inanimate subject paradigm and the animate subject inverse paradigm in the independent order is that the inanimate subject forms display the position 5 suffix $-n$, marking non-third singular, while the animate subject forms fill position 5 with -w, marking third person:
(124) ni-se.kih-iko-n 'it scares me' 1 scare inv sg

The inanimate subject forms are fully inflected for features of their objects. The presence of the inanimate subject is registered only by the inverse theme sign; there is no specification, for example, of the number of the subject. Because of this inflectional pattern, the

```
inanimate subject forms are sometimes compared to passives. It is clear, however, that these forms are not passives. They are fully transitive, having undergone no valence-reduction process. Neither can they be analyzed as transitive passives, as will be seen in chapter 3. The true passive forms of Transitive Animate stems are discussed in the next section.
```

6.5. Passives of TA verbs

Passives may be formed from Transitive Animate verb stems, resulting in a syntactically intransitive verb. [3] The syntax of passives will be discussed in chapter 3 ; here, only the morphology of the passive will be described.

As in other areas of Cree morphology, there is a distinction between third person forms and non-third person forms. Passive verbs with non-third person subjects attach a suffix -ikawi- to the $T A$ stem, resulting in a derived intransitive.
(125) ni-sa-kihikawi-n 1 be loved iI am loved"

This pattern is found in both independent and conjunct orders, for all non-third person subjects.

The forms for passive verbs with third person subjects, on the other hand, do not resemble the non-third person forms; in fact, at first glance, they look like active verbs.

| $\begin{aligned} & \text { (127) sa•kih-a•-w } \\ & \text { love dir? } 3 \end{aligned}$ | 'he is loved' |
| :---: | :---: |
| (128) sa-kih-a.-w-ak love dir? 3 3p | 'they are loved' |
| (129) sa•kih-im-a•-w-a <br> love obv dir? 3 obv | 'he (obv.) is loved' |
| unct forms: |  |
| $\begin{gathered} \text { (130) e•-sa-kih-iht } \\ \text { love 3pass? } \end{gathered}$ | "he is loved" [conjunct] |
| (131) e.-sa.kih-ihc-ik love Зpass? 3p | 'they are loved' [conjunct] |
| (132) e--sa-kih-im-iht love obv 3pass? | ```'he (obv.) is loved' [conjunct]``` |

The derivational suffix -ikawi=, found on passives with non-third person subjects, is absent from the third person forms. In fact, there is no derivational morphology at all attached to the Transitive Animate stem to signal a change in grammatical relations. The conjunct passive forms have a special position 5 suffix -iht, but ihe independent passive forms have no one affix specialized for the passive. Instead, the independent forms display a combination of suffixes that are all used elsewhere in the Transitive Animate paradigm on active verb forms. In particular, the theme sign -a.- is otherwise associated with a non-third person subject acting on a third person object. The position 1 suffix -im- shows up in both independent and conjunct passives marking an obviative subject: elsewhere in the TA paradigm -im- marks obviative objects.

Despite the morphological differences, the passive forms all behave alike, and are syntactically passive, as
will be seen in chapter 3.
7. Departures from Wolfart 1973.

```
    My analysis of Cree verb inflection differs from that
of Wolfart }1973\mathrm{ in a few details, which are made explicit in this section. In general, the points of divergence reflect a methodological difference. Where Wolfart sets up underlying forms resembling Proto-Algonquian reconstructions, I have instead chosen to give a less abstract analysis, based upon synchronic data from Cree only. For example, the third person suffix of the independent order, here identified as -w, is analyzed by Wolfart as /-wa/, corresponding exactly to Proto-Algonquian * -wa. A rule deleting word-final short vowels then applies to give surface -w. While it is clear that in the historical development of Cree from Proto-Algonquian most word-final short vowels were lost, it is an open question whether synchronic descriptions of verb inflection ought to recapitulate historical processes such as this one.
Wolfart sets up ten suffix positions, while my analysis has eight. These are listed below for comparison.
```

```
    (133) Wolfart AD
    1. /em/ obviative 1. (= W's 1)
    2. theme signs 2. (= W's 2)
    3. feyi/ obviative 3. (= W's 3)
    4. preteritg future imperative 4. (= W's 4)
    5. number for non-3 person
    6/7. dubitative; preterit
    8. /wa/ 3 person
    9. /k/ 3 plural
    /h/ obviative
    10. /ih/ subjunctive, iterative
        3. (= W's 3)
        5. non-3 number
        /w/ 3 ferson
    6. (= W's 6/7)
    7. /ak/ 3 plural
    /a/ obviative
    8. /i/ subj., iter.
    One difference between the two analyses is quite
trivial: Wolfart puts the dubitative and p-preterit into a
complex class 6/7. What I have done instead is simply label
this class 6: both paradigms in question are extremely
marginal in the Plains dialect of Cree, and I have seen no
textual examples of combined dubitative/preterit forms.
    The other position class not found in my description is
Wolfart's position 8, filled only by the suffix marking 3rd
person. This reflects a more substantive difference between
Wolfart's analysis of the inflectional system and mine,
involving the third person markers for person, number, and
obviation.
One point of difference concerns the segmentation of
inflectional material, as illustrated by the following
inflected forms of api= 'sit`.
    (134) apiw 'he sits'
        W: /api-wa/ AD: /api-w/
    (135) apiwak 'they sit'
    W: /api-wa-k/ AD: /api-w-ak/
```

(136) apiyiwe 'he [obv.] sits'

W: /api-eyi-wa-h/ AD: /api-eyi-w-a/
obv 3 obv obv 3 obv
As mentioned at the beginning of this section, Wolfart sets up /-wa/ as the underlying form of the third person marker. If no other suffixes follow $/$ wa/, the a is deleted, as in (134). If the plural suffix /-k/ is added, as in (135), the deletion rule fails to apply. In (136), where the stem is inflected for an obviative third person subject, the a of Wolfart's /-wa/ surfaces, despite being in word-final position. For this form, Wolfart posits an obviative suffix /-h:/, which protects the a from being deleted. Word-final h is not phonemic in Cree, so it is not indicated in the surface form apiyiwa. Likewise, in Wolfart's position 10 suffix /-ih/, which marks the subjunctive and iterative modes of the conjunct order, the i is protected from deletion by the $h$.

In contrast, my analysis identifies the marker of third person as -w, third plural -ak, obviative -a, and the subjunctive/iterative marker as -i. [6] For these suffixes, no deletion rules are required. [7]

A related problem is the question of the distribution of the third person suffixes in the inflectional template. First, it should be noted that the dubitative and p-preterit endings of position ó provide no evidence for either the shape or the position of the morpheme under consideration here, the third person marker of the indicative mode of the independent order. In the dubitative paradigm, the marker
of the third person is apparently zero; the placement of the dubitative suffix in position 6 is based on its occurrence after the non-third person suffixes of position 5, and by it being followed by a suffix marking third plural ( -nik, used only with the dubitative). (See Table 15 in Wolfart 1973, p. 44.) The p-preterit forms are even less informative for the purposes of the present discussion.

In the absence of syntagmatic evidence for the position of the third person morpheme, paradigmatic evidence must be considered. Of interest here are the mixed TA forms in which the non-third person is plural. As described in section 6.1 above, these forms do not have a -w suffix marking third person. An example is given below, segmented and glossed according to the analysis presented in this chapter.
(137) ni-wa-pam-a--na-n-ak 'we see them' 1 see dir (1)p (3)p

In my analysis, the absence of -w is attributed to -w and -na.n belonging to the same position class (position 5). The selection of -na-n to mark the number of the first person argument precludes the appearance of $-w$. Such co-occurrence constraints are typical of the paradigmatic relations which hold among members of a single position class. Furthermore, the analysis of the third person marker as belonging to the same position class as the non-third plural markers is supported by parallel distributional facts in the conjunct order (cf. section 6.1 above).

```
    Wolfart gives (137) a different analysis. For him, the
third person marker is /-wa/, and the plural marker is /-k/.
In niwa-pama-na-nak, therefore, the a before the k
to be an allomorph of /-wa/, which shows up when position 5
is filled. Consequently, a separate suffix position is
needed between position 5 and the plural suffix: this is
Wolfart's position 8. As a result of analyzing the third
person marker as /-wa/, Wolfart is obliged to increase the
inventory of suffix positions, and can provide only an ad
hoc account of the absence of w}\mathrm{ when position 5 is filled.
The analysis presented in this chapter, on the other hand,
provides motivation for the absence of w, and supports the
segmentation of -w alone as the third person marker.
```

1 The impersonal II verbs take either proximate singular or obviative singular inflection, as discussed in chapter 4.

2 The division of affixes into position classes largely follows Wolfart 1973, except for the treatment of the third person markers. See the discussion in section 7.

3 -wa.w also marks plurality of second and third person possessors. See section 1.

4 In combinations of first person plural inclusive and animate third person arguments, the position 5 suffix in the independent order is always -naw. Elsewhere in the independent order there is free variation between -naw and -na.naw.

5 There are also indefinite subject forms of AI and TI verbs. These are most frequently found in the conjunct order, where the ending is -hk. The independent order ending is niwiw or na-niwiw.

6 The discussion of person/number morphemes in the text touches only on the independent order, but another difference between Wolfart's analysis and mine pertains to the conjunct order. For the marker of third plural I set up /-ik/; for wolfart; the plural marker is the sama /-k/ found in the independent order, with the í inserted by a general rule of epenthesis. Evidence for preferring /-ik/, however, comes from the endings of the future imperative, where the third plural ending can only be analyzed as /-ik/; all other person/number endings of the future imperative paradigm match those of the conjunct order. For example,

> (i) wi•ce•wa•hkanik 'go with them (later)' /wi•ce•w-a. -hk an -ik/ go with dir fut.imp 2 3p

The third person plural here cannot be analyzed as -k preceded by an epenthetic i: the insertion of i does not occur in the environment $n k$ ccf. e--pimisink 'he lies' [conjunct], from /e--pimisin-k/).

7 This is not to say there are no synchronic deletion rules in Cree. Strong motivation for a rule deleting a word-final short vowel comes from the imperative paradigm, where an ending /-i/ is posited for 2 singular subject acting on an animate 3 singular object. This /-i/ is deleted word-finally unless the verb stem is monosyllabic and contains a short vowel (Wolfart 1973, p. 58; Ahenakew 1984, pp. 173-5): ahi 'place him', but
mo.w "eat him", wi.ci-h 'help him", pakamah 'hit him'. The ending /-i/ palatalizes a preceding / $\theta /:$ isi "say so to him", kosi 'fear him" (< /kose-/, with palatalization followed by simplification of the geminate $s$ ). The palatalizing effects of /-i/ can also be seen in na*s 'fetch him', pakwa•三 'hate him", although the ending itself has been deleted. $/-i /$ is thus motivated not only by its actual occurrence with certain stems, but also by its morphophonemic effects on all stems ending in / $\theta /$. A similar vowel-deletion rule has been proposed for noun inflection (see Wolfart 1973, pp. 29-30), though here the evidence is less compelling.

The phenomenon described above, however, shows only that some word-final short vowels in Cree undergo a synchronic deletion rule. The availability of such a rule is not an argument in favor of Wolfart's derivation of, e.9., apiw from /api-wa/. In particular, evidence comparable to that cited above for the imperative ending is lacking. The stem (or stem + theme sign) to which the third person marker attaches is always polysyllabic; that is, the environment in which the rule deleting the imperative ending is blocked never occurs for the third person marker. There are also no morphophonemic processes triggered by a upon preceding segments that would argue for the presence of an underlying a. This lack of evidence, combined with the distributional facts discussed below, argues against Wolfart's account of the third person marker.

# Appendix to Chapter 2 <br> Sample Verb Paradigms 



| Transitive An (stem: se.ki | mate: direct forms - 'frighten') |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Sub j-Ob j | Independent | Conjunct |
| 2-1 | kise.kinin | e--se-kiniyan |
| $2 p-1$ | kise-kihina-wa-w | e.-se.kihiye.k |
| $2(p)-1 p$ ex | kise-kihina-n | e--se.kihiya.hk |
| 1-3 | nise-kiha-w | e.-se.kihak |
| $1-3 \mathrm{p}$ | nise-kiha-wak | e.-se-kihakik |
| 1-obv | nise-kihima-wa | e--se-kihimak |
| 2-3 | kise.kiha.w | e.-se.kihat |
| 2-3p | kise-kiha-wak | e--se.kihacik |
| 2-obv | kise.kihima.wa | e.-se.kihimat |
| 1p ex-3 | nise-kihe-na-n | e--se.kiha-ya.hk |
| 1 p ex-3p | nise-kiha.na-nak | e--se.kiha-ya-hkik |
| 1p ex-obv | nise-kihima-na-na | e--se-kihima-ya-hk |
| 1 p ine-3 | kise-kiha-naw | e--se-kiha-yahk |
| 1p inc-3p | kise-kiha-nawak | e.-se.kiha-yahkok |
| 1p inc-obv | kise-kihima-nawa | e--se.kihima-yahk |
| $2 p-3$ | kise-kiha-wa-w | e--se.kiha-ye.k |
| $2 p-3 p$ | kise-kiha-wa-wak | e--se-kiha-ye.kok |
| 2p-obv | kise-kihima-wa-wa | e.-se-kihima=ye-k |
| 3-obv | se.kihe.w | e.-se-kiha-t |
| 3p-obv | se.kihe-wak | e--se-kiha-cik |
| obv-obv | se.kihe•yiwa | e.-se-kiha-yit |
| ("further obviative") |  |  |
| 3-obv' | se-kitnime*w | e--se-kihima-t |
| 3p-obv' | se.kihime.wak | e.-se-kihima-cik |

Transitive Animate: inverse forms (stem: se.kih- 'frighten')

| Subj-Ob j | Independent | Conjunct |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1-2 | kise.kihitin | e--se-kihita-n |
| 1-2p | kise-kihitina-wa-w | e.-se.kihitakok |
| 1p ex-2(p) | kise-kihitina-n | e.-se-kihita-hk |
| 3-1 | nise-kihik | e.-se.kihit |
| $3 \mathrm{p}-1$ | nise-kihikwak | e.-se.kihicik |
| obv-1 | nise-kihikoyiwa | e.-se.kihiyit |
| inan-1 | nise-kihikon | e--se-kihikoya-n |
| 3-2 | kise-kihik | e.-se.kihisk |
| $3 \mathrm{p}-2$ | kise-kihikwak | e.-se.kihiskik |
| obv-2 | kise-kihikoyiwa | e--se-kihiyisk |
| inan-2 | kise-kihikon | e--se-kihikoyan |
| 3-1p ex | nise-kihikona-n | e.-se-kihikoya-hk |
| 3p-1p ex | nise-kihikona-nak | e--se-kihikoya-hkik |
| obv-1p ex | nise-kihikona-na | e--se-kihikowa-ya-hk |
| inan-1p ex | nise-kihikona-n | e--se-kihikoya-hk |
|  | kise-kihikonaw | e.-se.kihikoyahk |
| $3 p-1 p$ inc obv-1p inc | kise-kihikonawak <br> kise-kihikonawa | e.-se-kihikoyahkok |
| inan-1p ine | kise-kihikona-naw | e.-se.ke.kihikoyahk |
| 3-2p | kise-kihikowa-w | e--se.kihikoye.k |
| $3 p-2 p$ | kise-kihikowa-wak | e.-se.kihikoye.kok |
| obv-2p | kise-kihikowa-wa | e--se-kihikowa.ye.k |
| inan-2p | kise-kihikona-wa-w | e--se-kihikoye.k |
| obv-3 | se-kihik, se.kihikow | e--5e.kihikot |
| obv-3p | se-kihikwak | e--se.kihikocik |
| obv-obv | se-kihikoyiwa | e--5e.kihikoyit |
| inan-3 | se.kihikow, se.kihik | e.-se-kihikot |
| inan-3p | se.kihikowak, | e--se-kihikocik |
| Passive (TA | m) se-kihikwak |  |
| 1 | nise-kihikawin | e--se-kihikawiya.n |
| 2 | kise-kihikawin | e--se.kihikawiyan |
| 1p ex | nise-kihikawina-n | e.-se-kihikawiya-hk |
| 1p inc | kise-kihikawina-naw | e--se.kihikawiyahk |
| $2 p$ | kise-kihikawina-wa-w | e-me.kihikawiye-k |
| 3 | se-kiha-w | e.-se.kihiht |
| 3p | se.kiha-wak | e--se-kihihcik |
| obv | se-kihima-wa | e.-se.kihimiht |
| Indefinite Subject (AI, TI stem) |  |  |


#### Abstract

Chapter 3 Direct, inverse, and passive verbs

This chapter presents an analysis of the direct forms, inverse forms, and passive forms of Transitive Animate verbs. [1] (Their morphology is described in chapter 2, section 6.) The inverse forms and passive forms have provoked much controversy in Algonquian linguistics: one goal of this chapter is to present clear syntactic evidence that the inverse forms are active, while the passive forms are indeed passive.

A second, broader, goal is to establish for Cree the existence of a syntactic level of grammatical relations distinct, on the one hand, from the representation of thematic roles such as agent and patient, and, on the other hand, from the discourse-based opposition of proximate and obviative third persons. The proximatalobviative opposition and the discourse factors conditioning it are the subject of the following chapter. The role this opposition plays in the choice of direct or inverse verbs is briefly sketched below.

For the subset of Transitive Animate verbs in which both arguments are third person an opposition between direct and inverse forms exists, and is tied to the proximate/obviative distinction within third person. The proximate form is used to refer to the third person most central to the discourse, while more peripheral third


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persons are referred to by obviative forms. \A more
explicit account of this opposition is given in the next
chapter.) When a transitive verb has two third person
arguments, either a direct form or an inverse form may be
used. The direct form is by far the more frequent, and may
be considered the unmarked choice. It signals that the
subject of the verb is proximate, and thus more central,
while the object is obviative, or more peripheral. The use
of the inverse verb, on the other hand, indicates that the
subject of the verb is obviative, and the object is
proximate. In other words, the more central third person is
here not the subject of the verb.
    Inverse forms display certain discourse-functional
similarities with passive in languages like English. [1]
As Jespersen observed regarding the use of passive, "As a
rule the person or thing that is the centre of the interest
at the moment is made the subject, and therefore the verb
must in some cases be put in the active, in others in the
passive." (1965, p. 167). A similar characterization may
be formulated for the use of inverse verbs involving two
third person arguments. The third person that is the center
of interest is made proximate, and it determines the form
the verb will take. If the proximate third person is the
agent, the verb is direct; if it is the patient, the verb is
inverse. The terminology of agent and patient is used here
to draw a parallel with English: in English, if the subject
is the agent, the verb is active, and if it is the patient,
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the verb is passive.
Inverse verbs in Cree and passive verbs in English are not, however, syntactically equivalent. In Cree, the proximate patient of an inverse verb is the object, not the subject, as will be seen in this chapter.

At this point, some alternative analyses offered for Algonquian inverse verbs and passives should be mentioned. While the position adopted here on inverse verbs -- that they are active -- follows the approach taken by most Algonquianists (see, for example, Wolfart 1973 on Cree, Bloomfield 1962 on Menomini, or Goddard 1979 on Delaware), others have analyzed the inverse forms as passive. For examples of the latter approach, see Jolley 1982 on Cree, LeSourd 1976 on Fox, or Rhodes 1976 on Ojibwa. Jolley and LeSourd present analyses in which the inverse is the familiar sort of derived intransitive passive. Rhodes, on the other hand, gives an account in which the inverse is, in effect, a transitive passive: not only does the patient argument become the subject, but also the agent argument is made the object of the inverse verb.

The passive forms in Cree, and the corresponding constructions in other Algonquian languages, have also received varying analyses. The analysis of these forms in Cree as passives agrees, for example, with that given in Goddard 1979 for Delaware. On the other hand, the forms which are here analyzed as passives have also been described as active, transitive verbs, with the subject obligatorily

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non-specific. For an example of this view, see Hockett's
comments in the preface to Bloomfield 1958. The motivation
for the latter analysis seems to rest on the form of the
third person passives: as discussed in chapter 2, section
6.5, their morphology resembles that of active, transitive
verbs.
    In short, for both inverse forms and passive forms
there is disagreement regarding the valence and grammatical
relations associated with each construction. Only the
direct forms of Transitive Animate verbs are
uncontroversial: here all Algonquianists agree in
describing the direct verbs as active and transitive.
    The analyses presented in this chapter for Cree direct,
inverse, and pessive forms are represented schematically
below, showing the mapping between thematic roles,
grammatical relations, and levels of discourse status
(assuming third person arguments throughout).
    (1)
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline & thematic roles & & grammatic relation & & discourse status \\
\hline Direct: & agent patient & \[
\begin{aligned}
& = \\
& =
\end{aligned}
\] & subject object & \[
\begin{aligned}
& = \\
& =
\end{aligned}
\] & proximate obviative \\
\hline Inverse: & agent patient & \[
\begin{aligned}
& = \\
& =
\end{aligned}
\] & subject object & \[
\begin{aligned}
& = \\
& =
\end{aligned}
\] & obviative proximate \\
\hline Passive: & patient & \(=\) & subject & \(=\) & proximate \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
    The chart represents the syntactic claims to be
defended here. Both the inverse form and the direct form
are transitive and active: that is, both map agent onto
subject and patient onto object. The passive in Cree is a
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#### Abstract

derived intransitive passive, where the patient has been mapped onto subject.

The chart also reflects the claim that there is a level of grammatical relations distinct both from thematic roles, and from the levels of discourse status signalled by proximate and obviative. Indeed, it is the analysis of inverse forms as active that demonstrates that grammatical relations cannot be equated with discourse status, while the passive construction shows that grammatical releiions do not reduce to thematic roles. These analyses of the inverse forms and the passive forms will be supported by the syntactic evidence presented in this chapter.

This syntactic evidence is of three types. The first type of evidence to be discussed concerns valence: it is shown that direct and inverse verbs are both transitive. This argues against an analysis of the inverse verbs as derived intransitive passives.

The second type of evidence to be considered is a test for subjecthood: with respect to this test, the agents of direct and inverse verbs, and the patient of the passive, are all shown to be subjects. Again, this argues against a passive analysis for the inverse verbs <either an intransitive or a transitive passive analysis), and it also argues against an unspecified subject analysis of the Cree passive. Evidence in this section comes from a construction called copying to object.


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The third type of evidence tests for objecthood. The patient argument of direct and inverse verbs alike is shown to be an object by these tests. The evidence here comes both from the copying to object construction and from floated quantifiers.
Each section describes the constructions appealed to as syntactic tests. It will be demonstrated that these constructions cannot be seen as operating on the level of thematic roles; rather, they must be analyzed with reference to the grammatical relations of subject and object.
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## 1. Valence

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    The direct and inverse forms of TA verbs are
transitive. Third person arguments may be expressed with
lexical NPs; in the absence of lexical subjects and objects
the inflection on the vert functions pronominally. This is
true for both subject and object of both direct and inverse
forms. All possible combinations of pronominal and lexical
subjects and objects are attested in texts for both direct
and inverse forms. Below are examples of direct and inverse
forms where both arguments are expressed as lexical NPs ((2)
may be seen in the appendix to chapter 4, line 362).
    (2) [Bloomfield 1934, p. 98]
    aya-heiyiniwah nisto e-h-nipaha-t
    Blackfoot obv three kill 3-obv [dir]
        awa na.pe.sis
        this boy
    "this boy had killed three Blackfoot"
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    (3) [Bloomfield 1934, p. 58]
        0sa.m e.-sa.kihikot ohta-wiyah
        too much love obv-3 [inv] his father obv
    aw o.skini-kiw.
    this young man
    'for his father too much cherished
    this young man,"
    The suffix -a (or -ah, as Bloomfield often writes it)
marks obviative nouns. It is not a case marker, or
otherwise indicative of grammatical relations: the marking
of third persons as proximate and ooviative reflects instead
their discourse status. The following example, in which
both subject and object are obviaiive, makes it clear that
the obviative ending cannot be considered a marker of
grammatical relations.
    (4) [Bloomfield 1934, p. 96; appendix, line 313]
        e.-pe.-si.hkitisahwa-yit
            hither drive on obv-obv [dir]
        o.hi na-pe.sisah misatimwah.
        o.hi na*pe.sisah misatimwah.
        'the boy drove on the horses.'
    When a direct or inverse form is used without a lexical
NP argument, the inflection on the verb functions
pronominally. The pronominal reading is always specific:
the referent must be identifiable.
    The passive forms, on the other hand, always have the
reading of a non-specific agent. Arguments other than the
agent, however, may be expressed as lexical NPs.
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    (5) [Bloomfield 1934, p. 96; appendix, line 330]
        awa na-pe.sis e.kwah aw o.skini.kiw
        this boy and this young man
        mawi-hka-ta-wak
        be mourned 3p
        "this boy and this young man
        were being mourned"
    It is not possible to express the agent of a passive
verb with a lexical NP.
    (6) awi.na e.-sa-kihiht? "Who is loved?"
        who be loved 3
    * awi-na e--sa-kihiht oma-ma-wa?
    ('Who is loved by his mother?')
    If a speaker does want to identify the agent of a
passive verb, one strategy is to first use the passive verb;
and then repeat the verb stem in the inverse form, which
allows the agent to be expressed as a lexical NP. This is
illustrated below, and also in example (115) of chapter 2.
    (8) [Bloomfield 1934, p. 60]
    namoya nipaha-w; ki-we-htaha-t,
    not be killed 3 be taken home 3
    e--ki-we-htahikot ayahciyiniwah.
        take home obv-3 [inv] Blackfoot obv
        'He was not killed; he was taken back;
        the Blackfoot took him home with them."
    In summary, both direct and inverse verbs are clearly
transitive, each subcategorized for a subject amd an object.
The valence patterns here are evidence against an analysis
of the inverse as a derived intransitive passive. However,
the fact that the inverse forms are transitive does not on
its own entail that they are active verbs. To argue against
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an analysis of the inverse forms as transitive passives, where the patient is subject and the agent is object, tests for subject and object are required. Such tests are discussed in the following sections. With respect to the passive forms, the valence facts presented above are consistent with an analysis of these forms as passive, but are equally consistent with the alternative analysis, where the construction is seen as a transitive verb with an obligatorily pronominal subject. Tests for grammatical relations are needed to establish whether the patient argument of this construction is a subject or an object.


2. A test for subject

In this section, the copying to object construction is described, and then applied as a test for subjecthood to the arguments of direct, inverse, and passive forms. [3] According to this test, the agent argument in both direct and inverse forms is the subject, as is the patient argument of the passive.

Certain pairs of Transitive Animate and Transitive Inanimate verb stems may be used with clausal complements. While the Transitive Inanimate stem is subcategorized only for a subject and the complement clause, the Transitive Animate stem is additionally inflected for an animate object. There is a syntactic constraint on the construction using the Transitive Animate stem: the object of the matrix

```
verb must be coreferential with the subject of the
complement clause. This phenomenon is something like
raising to object in English.
    The examples below illustrate a pair of stems,
kiske-yiht- "know', and kiske-yim- 'know (about)',
Transitive Inanimate and Transitive Animate respectively,
that may take clausal complements.
    (7) nikiske.yihte-n e.-no.hte--sipwe.hte.t
        know TI 1-inan want leave 3
        'I knaw he wants to leave'
    (10) nikiske.yima-w e--no-hte--sipwe-hte.t
        know TA 1-3 went leave 3
        [dir]
    'I know he wants to leave'
    For the purposes of this section, the class of the
matrix verb stem will be indicated in the interlinear
glosses, either Transitive Inanimate (TI) or Transitive
Animate (TA). The features of subject and object indicated
by the verbal inflection are given following the gloss of
the stem, and TA verbs will be labelled as direct or
inverse. In the examples above, nikiske-yihte.n has a
Transitive Inanimate stem, and is inflected for a first
person singular subjeci and an inanimate object.
nikiske-yima\cdotw has a Transitive Animate stem, and is
inflected for a first person singular subject and an animate
third person singular object, which is direct. In both
examples, the lower verb is in the conjunct order, as are
all verbs in subordinate clauses (see chapter 2, section
2.1), and is inflected for an animate third person singular
```

sub ject.
(10), above, is an example of the copying to object construction. The Transitive Animate stem used in the matrix verb is inflected for an object which agrees in features with the subject of the lower verb. In contrast, the Transitive Inanimate stem of (9) is inflected for an inanimate object.

The following textual examples fur ther illustrate the use of kiske-viht- and kiske-yim- as complement-taking predicates.
(11) [Bloomfield 1934, p. 84] namoya nikiske.yihtern ta.nte. e.y-ohtohte.t aw a-yahciyiniw ka•-nipahiht. this Blackfoot be killed 3
'I do not know where he came from, that Blackfoot who has been killed.'
(12) [Bloomfield 1934, p. 84] ka-kiske-yima-nawak ta•nte. wi-kitwa-wi know TA 1p.inc-3p where dwell 3p/subjnct [dir]
'We shall know where they have their camp'
(11) has the Transitive Inanimate form of the matrix verb 'know', inflected for an inamimate cbject. In (12), the Transitive Animate form of the matrix verb has been chosen, and the object of the verb agrees with the subject of the complement clause.

The opposition of (9) and (10), and (11) and (12), above, is reminiscent of the raising to object construction found in English and other languages. The two constructions, however, are not identical. As illustrated

```
in the pair of sentences below, the raising to object
construction is associated with a non-finite verb in the
lower clause.
    (13) I believe that he is sick.
    (14) I believe him to be sick.
    In Cree, the choice of matrix verb stem, whether
Transitive Inanimate or Transitive Animate, has no effect on
the properties of the lower clause. In both cases, the
lower verb is finite, and inflected for a subject.
    In the English opposition, the person believed to be
sick may be expressed either as the su'ject of the finite
lower verb, taking nominative case, or as object of the
matrix verb, taking objective case. It cannot be expressed
simultaneously as object of the matrix verb and subject of
the lower verb.
    (15) * I believe him that he is sick.
                        (ungrammatical on the reading:
                        'I believe that he is sick')
In the corresponding Cree construction, though, the person believed to be sick would be referred to twice: as object of the matrix verb, and as subject of the lower verb. For this reason, the Cree construction will be labelled "copying to object", rather than raising to object.
Calling this construction copying to object informally expresses the coreference relation between the object of the Transitive Animate matrix verb and the subject of the complement clause. However, the term "copying" is not meant to be taken literally. We are not claiming here that the
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Transitive Animate matrix verb is the result of a
transformation (or lexical rule), which operates upon a
Transitive Inanimate verb with a complement clause, and
turns it into a Transitive Animate verb, where the animate
object has been copied from the subject of the complement
clause. Evidence against such an analysis comes from the
fact that the Transitive Animate stem may be used with only
an object, and no complement clauss.
    (16) [Bloomfield 1934, p. 92]
        namoya kiske-yime-wak
        not know TA 3p-obv
                        [dir]
            'The latter [the Cree, prox.] did not know of
            their [the Blackfoot, obv.] presence."
    This sentence is from the story given as an appendix to
chapter 4 (line 79). The context is the following: the
Cree have shot a buffalo, and the shot is heard by Blackfoot
nearby. The Blackfoot sneak up on the Cree; then the
narrator says (16), above. Although when kiske-yim- is used
only with an animate object and no complement clause it
often means 'be acquainted with', it is clear that in this
context the sentence means "The Cree did not know about the
Blackfoot," rather than, "The Cree were not acquainted with
the Blackfoot".
    This use of kiske-yim- to mean "know about" is similar
to the use of this verb with a complement clause: "know
about X that [ X ...]'. If the object in the latter
construction were derived as a copy of the subject of the
complement, it should be impossible to get the "know about"
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reading without a complement clause. (16), above, is
therefore counterevidence to a copying account.
    Although we are not claiming that a syntactic
transformation or lexical rule derives the Transitive
Animate form of the complement-taking verb from the
Transitive Inanimate form, we do want to say that there is a
syntactic constraint operating on the Transitive Animate
form: the object and the complement's subject must be
coreferential.
The semantic differences between the Transitive Animate
and Transitive Inanimate stem forms of complement-taking
verbs are not fully understood. In certain cases, speakers
report an evidential distinction between the two
constructions. For example, (10) nikiske-yima.w
e.-no\cdothte.-sipwe-hte\cdott, ("I know he wants to leave', with
the TA stem for "know" inflected for an object coreferential
with the subject of the complement) would be appropriate if
the subject had inferred that this person wanted to leave
from the way he looked or the way he was acting. The
corresponding construction using a Transitive Inanimate
matrix verb (i.e., (9)), seems to be best analyzed as
neutral with respect to the source of the knowledge, though
for some speakers the TI construction implies that the
subject of (9) has been told that this person wants to
leave. A similar distinction is felt in the pair of
examples below.
```

(17)

'I know John saw you"
(18) nikiske•yima-w John e.-ki.-wa-pamisk know TA 1-3 pf see 3-2 [dir] [inv]
"I know John saw you"
In (17), the subject may have been told that John saw the addressee, while (18) might better be glossed "I have the feeling that John saw you". The evidential use of the copying to object construction is not restricted to first person subjects, as illustrated in the next pair of examples.
(19) Mary kiske-yihtam George-a e--a-hkosiyit know TI 3-inan obv be sick obv
'Mary knows George is sick'
(20) Mary kiske•yime.w George-a e--a-hkosiyit know TA 3-obv obv be sick obv [dir]
'Mary knows George is sick'
Again, the copying to object construction in (20) is more appropriate if Mary is inferring that George is sick. However, this evidential opposition of the two forms apparently cannot be extended to cover all cases of both Transitive Animate and Transitive Inanimate forms of complement-taking predicates. For example, consider the use of wa-paht- and wa-pam- 'see' in the examples below.

```
    (21) [Bloomfield 1934, P. 80]
        ..., ka--wa-pahtahk e-h-ka-h-ki.skicihce.yit.
        see TI 3-inan have severed hand obv
        "he [prox] saw that
        he [obv] had some fingers cut off."
    (2己) [Bloomfield 1934, P. 80]
        ..., ka--wa-pama-t e.h-kito-we-hkwa-miyit.
        see TA 3-obv snore obv
                        [dir]
            "he [prox] saw that
            he [obv] was sound asleep and snoring."
    With verbs meaning 'see", there is less opportunity for
an evidential opposition; in general, constructions
involving 'see" with a complement involve semantic
distinctions that are hard to tease out. Consider the
differences between the following English constructions.
    (23) I saw that he was sleeping.
    I saw him sleeping.
    I saw him as he was sleeping.
    We will ieave the question of the semantic difference
between (21) and (22), above, unresolved, and concentrate
instead on examples with the matrix verbs kiske-yiht- and
kiske-yim- "know", since these appear frequently in texts,
and speakers have clearer intuitions about this opposition.
    Whatever the semantics of the construction may be, the
copying to object construction in Cree is subject to a
syntactic constraint. The object of the Transitive Animate
matrix verb must be coreferential with the subject of the
complement clause; it cannot be coreferential with the
object of the complement clause. (10), (12), (20), and
(22), above, are examples of the copying to object
construction where the lower verb is intransitive; (18),
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above, is an example involving a transitive verb.
    The copying to object construction will now be applied
to direct, inverse, and passive forms of Transitive Animate
verbs as a test for subjects. In all the following
examples, the verb form under investigation will be in the
complement of a matrix verb allowing copying to object.
    The examples below contain direct verbs in the
complement clause, and show that only the subject of the
complement, not the object, may be coreferential to the
object of the matrix verb.
    (24) nikiske-yima-w George e--sa-kiha-t okosisa
        know TA 1-3 love 3-obv 3 son obv
                        [dir]
                            [dir]
        'I know George lGves his sons'
    (25) * nikiskeyimima-wa George e.-sa-kiha-t okosisa
        know TA 1-obv love 3-obv 3 son obv
                                    [dir]
                                    [dir]
        ("I know George loves his sons')
    (24) has the matrix verb inflected for an animate
proximate singular object, agreeing with George, the subject
of the lower direct verb. (25), on the other hand, is
ungrammatical; here the matrix verb kiske.yim- "know" TA is
inflected for a third person obviative object, agreeing in
features with the object of the lower verb okosisa *his
son(s)'. (An NP possessed by a third person possessor is
obligatorily obviative.)
    If the lower verb is in the inverse form, and the
assignment of proximate status to George and obviative
status to okosisa 'his son(s)" is maintained, then a
```

```
different reading results: the obviative third person is
the one doing the loving, and the proximate third person is
the one who is loved. The copying to object construction
demonstrates that here it is the obviative experiencer
argument which is the subject of the inverse verb, while the
proximate goal argument is the object.
    (26) nikiske\cdotyimima-wa George e--sa\cdotkihikot okosisa
        know TA 1-obv love obv-3 3 son obv
                        [dir] [inv]
        *I know that his sons love George'
    (27) * nikiske-yima-w George e--sa-kinikot okosisa
        know TA 1-3 love obv-3 3 son obv
            [dir] [inv]
        ('I know that his sons love George")
    In the pair of examples above, the first has the matrix
verb nikiske-yimima-wa, where the stem kiske-yim- 'know" TA
is inflected for an obviative third person object. The
object thus matches the features of okosisa 'his son(s)',
the obviative subject of the inverse verb in the lower
clause. The second example shows that the matrix verb
cannot be inflected for an object coreferential with the
proximate object of the lower inverse verb.
    The behavior of passive verbs in the complement of
copying to object verbs shows that the non-agent argument is
indeed the subject.
    (28) nikiske-yima-wak e.-ki.-se-kihihcik
        know TA 1-3p pf be scared 3p
                                    [dir]
```

    'I know they were scared"
    ```
    Here the object of the matrix verb is coreferential
with the subject of the lower passive verb. In this respect
the subject of the passive behaves exactly the same as the
subjects of direct and inverse forms.
    The behavior of passive verbs is also evidence that the
condition of coreference between matrix object and lower
subject cannot be stated in terms of thematic roles. In the
above example, the subject of the passive verb 'be scared"
has the thematic role of experiencer. In the following
example, an object with the same thematic role fails to
undergo copying to object.
    (29) * nikiske\cdotyima-wak anima a-tayo-hkan-a-cimowin
                                    [dir]
        awa-sisak e--ki--se.kihikocik
        ('I know that the story scared the kids")
    The thematic role of the people who are scared is
exacily the same in both (28) and (29). What is different
is the grammatical relations associated with these
arguments.
    It is clear that the copying to object constraint must
be stated as a syntactic constraint, mentioning the
grammatical functions of subject and object. First of all,
while there may be a semantic or pragmatic requirement that
the clausal complement of a verb glossed 'know (about)' be
somehow related to the object of 'know (about)', there is no
semantic reason why the object of 'know (about)" couid not
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#### Abstract

be coreferential to the object of its complement, as in "I know about George that his kids really love him". However, it is ungrammatical to express this with the copying to object construction in Cree. Furthermore, the behavior of passive verbs shows that this constraint cannot be stated in terms of thematic roles.

In this section, the copying to object construction has been described. Using the direct forms of Transitive Animate verbs, which are uncontroversially active, it has been demonstrated that this construction is sensitive to grammatical relations. Given this, the construction can then be used as a syntactic test for the inverse forms and the passive forms. The results of this test showed that the agent argument of both direct and inverse forms is the subject, as is the non-agent argument of the passive. The copying to object construction also provides evidence for objects, as will be seen in the following section.

Further evidence for subjecthood comes from the contral of secondary predicates. Discussion of this evidence, however, will be postponed until chapter 5, after certain theoretical points have been developed. For now, it will just be pointed out that the control phenomena support the analysis of inverse verbs as active.


3. Tests for object

In the first part of this section, another piece of syntactic evidence provided by the copying to object
construction will be presented. The major part of this section will take up another test for objecthood, based upon floating quantifiers. These quantifiers appear within a $V^{\prime}$ constituent; as part of the discussion, motivation for this $V$ ' constituent will be provided.

In the previous section, the copying to object construction was used as a test for subject, applied to the various arguments appearing in the complement clause of copying to object verbs. This construction also makes reference to object, of course, since it is the object of the matrix verb that must be coreferential to the lower verb's subject. All the examples in the previous section involved direct forms of the matrix Transitive Animate verb. It is also possible, however, to have the matrix verb in the inverse form, as illustrated below.
(30) [Bloomfield 1934, p. 92; appendix, lines 36-7] namoya kiske-yimik o-hte-wiya e-sipwe-hte-t not know obv-3 3 father obv leave 3 [inv]
'His father [obv] did not know that he [prox] had gone off"

Here the inverse matrix verb is inflected for an obviative subject acting on a proximate object: in other words, it is the proximate object that matches the features of the subject of the lower verb. This argues for the proximate argument being the object, and consequently, for the inverse verb being active.

Another test for objecthood involves a constraint on possible construals between a quantifier preceding the verb

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and the verb's arguments. Such quantifiers may be construed
as modifying the object, but not the subject, of a
transitive verb. These quantifiers are here analyzed as
being within a }V\mathrm{ ' constituent. Before discussing the
quantifier construction, therefore, the existence of a }V\mathrm{ '
constituent must be motivated for Cree.
    The motivation for a }V\mathrm{ ' constituent comes from locative
relative clauses containing the particles ita or ite. These
relative clauses may be headless, with the reading of "the
place where ..., ita is used to indicate stationary
location, while ite. is used both for motion to or from a
place, and for stationary locations in the sense 'around
there, near there'.
    (31) [Bloomfield 1934, p. 32]
        ite. ka.-pe-y-ohtohe\cdotyit,
        loc hither come from obv
        e-kote. misiwe. nipahe.yiwah mostoswah.
        there all over kill obv-obv buffalo obv
            "Everywhere in yon direction whence they had
            come, the others had killed buffalo.'
    (32) [Bloomfield 1934, p. 34]
        e.kotah aya-wak,
        there be 3p
        owi-ce-wa-kanah itah e.h-miskawa-t
        3 companion obv loc find 3-obv
        'They stayed there where he found his comrades.'
```



Though the effect of ita is similar to that of "where" in the lower clause of the English gloss in (32), ita is not fronted within its clause. Instead, it always occurs immediately to the left of the veri. The clause containing ita, or ite., is often associated with e-kota, or e-kote., in the higher clause, as in the above examples. As seen in (32), however, the clause containing ita need not be adjacent to e.kota.

The following example show ita occuring without e-kota in the higher clause, and also shows that ita may be used with a lower verb that is not subcategorized for a locative argument.
(34) [Bloomfield 1934, p. 92; appendix, lines 57-58] it e-tipiska•yik, kape-siwak. loc be night inan.obv camp 3p
'Where they were by dark, they camped.' [or better: "where night fell, ..."]

Saying that ita or ite. is part of a $V^{\prime}$ constituent represents the dependency between the particle and the lower verb: the particle always occurs immediately to the verb's left. This dependency is brought out by comparing the

```
locative headless relatives with ita with headless relatives
of manner. The latter are formed with the preverb isi- on
the lower verb.
    (35) [Bloomfield 1934, p. 34]
        e.kwah a.cimo.w oma k-e-si-wa-pahtank,
        and tell story 3 this how see 3-inan
        k-e.si-otina.t o.hi misatimwah.
            how take 3-obv this.obv horse obv
        'Then he told of what he had experienced,
        and of how he had taken the horses."
    Here the relationship between isi- and the verb is
plain: isi- is a preverb within a compound verb stem
(compound stems are discussed further in chapter 5), and is
itself preceded by another preverb (the preverb is ka.-=:
k-e.si- < ka.-isi~).
Though the locative construction with ita functions in the same way as the headless relatives of manner containing isi-, ita is not itself part of the verb stem. Rather, it is a separate word, immediately to the left of the verb. Evidence for this comes from the ablaut rule which applies in the changed conjunct and in the iterative; this rule affects the first vowel in the verb stem, including any preverbs that may be present. This rule never applies to ita Likewise, the inflectional prefixes of the independent srder appear to the left of all preverbs used with compound verbs. These preverbs are never placed to the left of ita.
On the other hand, although ita is a separate word, it does not have the syntactic freedom of most particles. For instance, e.kota "there" may appear anywhere in a clause, as
```

illustrated by the two occurences of e-kota in the following example.
(36) [Bloomfield 1934, p. 44]
wa-tihke-wak e.kota saka-hk,
dig a hole 3p there woods loc
e-kotah awa kise-yiniw e.h-wi.h-apit
there this old man intend sit 3
wa-tihka-nihk, e-kweh pe-yak oskini-kiw.
hole loc and one young man
"They dug a pit there in the woods, for the old man to stay in, and the one young man."

Representing ita as the left branch of a $V$ ' constituent expresses its syntactic status, intermediate between a bound preverb and a toially free adverb. It is a separate word, yet is associated with the verb.

It should be emphasized, however, that this $V$, construction is not equivalent to the constituent usually labelled UP in configurational languages. In a UP, the verb and its NP object form a constituent, excluding the subject. As stated in chapter 1 , there is no evidence for a UP constituent in Cree.

Now that the existence of a $V$ ' constituent has been motivated, the discussion will turn to the behavior of quantifiers within $V^{\prime}$.

In Cree, numerals and quantifiers like kahkiyaw 'all" or mihce.t "many" may occur either within NPs, or within $V$ ". [4] If the quantifier occurs within NP, it is construed as modifying the head of that NP. The quantifier may either precede or follow the head noun.

```
    (37) [Bloomfield 1934, p. 32]
        piyisk miya.skawe-w,
        finally pass 3-obv
        mihce\cdott ayi-siyiniwah e.-ki-h-miya-skawa.t.
        many person obv pf pass 3-obv
        'At last he passed them;
        he passed a great many people.,
    (38) [Bloomfield 1934, p. 40]
        kotakak ni-so na-pe-wak mi-n
        other pl 2 man pl also
        e-wakonik namoya tapasi-wak
        those not flee 3p
        'Two other men also did not flee.'
(39) [Bloomfield 1934, p. 104]
    nka-ntaw-a-ta-ma-w atimwah pe\cdotyak
    fut go to buy from 1-3 dog obv one
    o.h o.hci ni.pisisah,
    these.inan from arrow pl
    "I shall buy a dog from him with these arrows,"
(40) [Bloomfield 1934, p. 40]
    otine-wak misatimwah e-h-miyosiyit
    take 3p-obv horse obv be beautiful obv
    ni-sitanaw pe\cdotyakosa\cdotp
        twenty-one
    'They took twenty-one handsome horses.'
In the NP of (37), mihce.t ayi-siyiniwah 'many people',
the quantifier precedes the head noun, as does ni.so "two"
in (38). (39) and (40) illustrate postnominal quantifiers.
Quantifiers may also appear apart from any NP, before
the verb. The position of the quantifier will be
represented here as the left branch of a }V\mathrm{ ' constituent,
parallel to ita and ite. in the locative relative clause
construction. It is not clear what semantic effects are
associated with the various quantifier positions, though
```

quantifiers in $V^{\prime}$ seem to be dispreferred if the verb contains the perfective preverb ki•二.
(41) kahkiyaw pimipahta•wak awa•sisak all run 3p childpl
'All the kids are running'
(42) [Bloomfield 1934, p. 44]
piyisk mihce-t nipahe-wak ya-hciyiniwah finally many kill 3p-obv Blackfoot obv 'At last they had killed many Blackfoot."
(43)


In (42), mihce-t "many" modifies the object
ya-hciyiniwah 'Blackfoot', although the quantifier does not form a constituent with the noun.

Since a quantifier in $V$ ' does not form a constituent with the noun it is modifying, the potential for ambiguity arises when it is used with a transitive verb. Does tive quantifier modify the subject, or the object? In Cree, there is a syntactic constraint on the interpretation of a quantifier in $V^{\prime}:$ it cannot be construed as modifying the subject of a transitive verb. A $V$ ' quantifier may, however, modify objects and second objects of transitive and ditransitive verbs. If the verb in question is intransitive, a $V$ ' quantifier may modify the subject of the intransitive verb. In texts, the majority of $V$ ' quantifiers

```
modify objects; the use of this construction with
intransitive verbs is less frequent.
    In both clauses of the following example, a }V\mathrm{ '
quantifier niya-nan 'five' modifies misatimwah 'horse(s)'.
In the first clause, misatimwah is the second object of
miye.w 'give'; in the second clause, misatimwah is the
object of aya.we.w "have".
    (44) [Bloomfield 1934, p. 98; appendix, line 332]
        awa na-pe.sis o.hih ka.-kaskatahomiht
        this boy this.obv be wounded 3
            niya-nan miye-w misatimwah;
            5 give 3-obv horse obv
                        [dir]
        wiya mi-na niya\cdotnan aya\cdotwe.w misatimwah.
        "The boy gave the man who had been wounded five
        horses; he himself also had five horses.?
    In (44), the conjunction mi-na 'also' appears in second
position within its clause; this is common for conjunctions
in general, and especially for mi*na.
    The following example illustrates a quantifier in V'
modifying the object of a Transitive Inanimate verb. The
quantifier is kahkiyaw 'all'; the object is otaya\cdotna 'his
possessions'.
    (45) [Bloomfield 1934, p. 78]
        piyisk kahkiyaw me-stinam otaya-na; ...
        finally all use up 3-inan 3 possession pl
        "At last he had spent all his belongings"
    In the next example, kahkiyaw 'all' modifies the
subject of an intransitive verb, e.h-takohte.cik 'arrive'.
```

(46) [Bloomfield 1934, P. 86]
..., kahkiyaw e-h-takohte•cik o.ki ne-hiyawak all arrive $3 p$ these Cree pl
mina opwa-si-mo-wak mi-na nahkawiyiniwak. also Assiniboine pl also Saulteaux pl
'all the Cree and Assiniboine and Saulteaux having come there."

In the following example, nisto "three' is in
censtruction with a transitive verb. The verb is followed by two lexical NPs: mo.swa 'moose' and na.pe.wak 'men'. nisto can only be construed as modifying the object, mo-swe; it cannot modify the subject, na-pe-wak.
(47) nisto nipahe-wak mo-swa na-pe-wak
3
kilil 3-obv moose obv man pl [dir]
"the men killed three moose"

* 'three men killed moose"
(48)


Although in all the above examples the NP modified by a V' quantifier immediately follows the verb, the NP may appear in any other position relative to the verb. The only constraint is that a quantifier in $V$ ' may not modify a subject of a transitive verb. The following examples illustrate OSV and VSO orders, in which a quantifier in $V^{\prime}$ modifies the object.

```
(49) [Eloomfield 1934, p. 110]
    e.kwah awah ote.mah atimwah aw o-pwa.simo.w
        and this 3 dog obv dog obv this Assiniboine
    aye-na-niw kahkiyaw ota-pahe-w, ...
        eight all hitch up 3-obv
                                    [dir]
```

    "In addition, the Assiniboine hitched up
    all his eight dogs,'
    (50) [Bloomfield 1934, p. 112]
ni-sosa.p e.kwah osihta.w aw i.skwe.w
12 and make 3 -inan this woman
pahke.kinwah; ...
tanned hide obv
'Then the woman prepared twelve hides;'

In (50), the conjunction e.kwah 'and' is in second position, here intervening between the quantifier and the verb. Compare the position of mi-na 'also' in (44).

Logically, a quantifier in $V$ should also be able to modify an object which immediately precedes the verb. It is not ciear, however, whether quantifiers in examples such as the following should be analyzed as being in $V$, or in NP, since, as seen in (39) and (40), quantifiers may also appear postnominally in NP.
(51) [Bloomfield 1934, p. 32]
e.kosi aniki iya-hciyiniwak mihee-t thus those Blackfoot pl many
pe--sipwe-payiwak
hither ride off $3 p$
'In this way those Blackfoot started off in a crowd.,

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(52) [Bloomfield 1934; p. 32]

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text {...; ote-miyiwah ni-so otine-w; ... } \\
& \text { obv horse obv two take } 3-o b v \\
& {[d i r]}
\end{aligned}
$$

'he [prox] took his [obv] two horses [obv];"
(53)

(54)


Since it is not clear how sentences such as those above should be analyzed, we will avoid the use of examples in which the quantifier immediately follows the NP it modifies, and is in turn immediately followed by the verb. However, there is one example of this type that deserves some discussion.

In examining the use of quantifiers in texts, I have found only one potential counterexample to the claim that quantifiers in $V^{\prime}$ may not modify subjects of transitive verbs. The quantifier in question is the second instance of mince-t 'many' in the following example.
(55) [Bloomfield 1934, p. 32]

```
ki-tahtawe. wa-pame.w e.h-pe--sa\cdotke.we-payiyit
    presently see 3-obv hither come into view obv
        mostoswah mihce-t,
        buffalo obv many
```

ka--wa-pama-t aya-hciyiniwah mihce.t
see 3-obv Blackfoot obv many
e-h-pe.-nawaswa-ta-yit mostoswah....
hither chase obv-obv buffalo obv
[dir]
'Then he [prox] saw a great herd of buffalo
come forth, and saw a large band of Blackfoot
coming in pursuit of the buffalo ..."

The second mihce-t occurs between the subject aya-hciyiniwah 'Blackfoot' and the transitive verb e.h-pe.-nawaswa.ta-yit 'come chasing'. Like (51) and (52), the quantifier may be analyzed either as a postnominal quantifier in $N P$, or as a quantifier in $V^{\prime}$. It is only the analysis of mihce.t being in $V$ ' that is problematic for the syntactic claim made here.

As in (51) and (52), it is difficult to find evidence supporting one analysis over the other. A possible motivation for preferring the analysis of the second mihce.t as postnominal within NP is that it would then parallel the structure of the first clause of (55). The first instance of mihce-t in (55) is clearly a postnominal quantifier, following its head noun mostoswah 'buffalo'. This NP is the subject of the preceding intransitive verb, and there is no possibility of analyzing the first mihce.t as a quantifier in $V$ '. In texts, conjoined clauses often display parallel constructions; cf. the two clauses of
(44).

In any event, in the absence of other examples which constitute unambiguous counterexamples, (55) will not be considered problematic for the present analysis.

The examples above, demonstrating that a quantifier in $V$ ' may not be construed as modifying the subject of a transitive verb, all contained direct forms of Transitive Animate verbs. As previously stated, the syntactic analysis of the direct forms is unconiroversial: all agree that the direct forms are active verbs. With the syntactic constraint motivated with data from the direct forms, we can turn our attention to the inverse forms of Transitive Animate verbs.

With respect to this test for objects, the proximate patient of inverse verbs is shown to be an object.
(56) [Bloomfield 1934, p. 44] pe-yak pikoh nipahikwak e-wakonik o.ki one only kill obv-3p those these 'They (obv) killed only one of them (prox.)"

In (56) the obviative agent is expressed only by the inflection on the verb, not by an NP. The verb is followed by two demonstratives e-wakonik "those [very ones]" and o-ki 'these'. Since both are explicitly plural, they can only refer to the proximate patient argument: as discussed in chapter 2, obviative NPs are not marked for number. The V' quantifier is construed as modifying the proximate object of the inverse verb, not the obviative subject.

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To see whether the same constraint blocking construal of a \(V\) ' quantifier with the subject of a transitive verb holds for the inverse verbs, we need the negative data of ungrammatical sentences, or ungrammatical readings. The following example demonstrates that the \(V\) ' quantifier kankiyaw "all" may be construed with the goal argument of the inverse verb sa-kihikwak "love", but not with the experiencer argument. Again, this is consistent only with the analysis of the inverse forms as active.
(57) kahkiyaw sa-kihikwak ota-nisiwa-wa iskwe-wak
all love obv-3p 3p dghtr obv woman pl
'their daughters love all women' (all women are loved by their daughters) * 'all their daughters love the women'
The English gloss of (57) results in an ungrammatical weak crossover sentence. A passive version of the gloss has therefore been supplied for the reader's convenience.
The constraint on quantifiers is evidence for the patient argument of an inverse verb being the object of a transitive. Unfortunately, it does not provide evidence either way regarding the analysis of passive verbs. Since subjects of intransitive varbs may also be construed with \(v\) ', quantifiers, the behavior of quantifiers with passive verbs is consistent both with the passive analysis given here, and with the analysis of these forms as transitive verbs with non-specific subjects.
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(58) [Bloomfield 1934, p. 86]
..., mi-na a-say mihce.t e•h-nipahihcik also already many be killed 3p ayahciyiniwak Blackfoot pl
'and that already many Blackfoot had been slain.'

## 4. Summary

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    The evidence presented above supports the analysis of
direct and inverse forms of Transitive Animate verbs as
active and transitive. The evidence comes from the valence
of these verbs, from the copying to object construction, and
from floated quantifiers. Further evidence for this
analysis of the direct and inverse forms comes from their
control of secondary predicates, to be discussed in chapter
5. The analysis of passive verbs given here also receives
support, though less clearly. It is only the copying to
object construction that can be applied to the passives as a
syntactic test. Though not as strong as the evidence
regarding inverse verbs, it appears that the passives are
indeed passive.
    The broader goai of this chapter is to motivate a level
of grammatical relations distinct frem both thematic roles
and from the levels of discourse status signalled by
proximate and obviative third person. The unambiguously
syntactic nature of the constructions described here, and
the evidence they provide for the analysis of inverse verbs
and passives, support this claim regarding the grammar of
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## Cree.

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    Furthermore, the evidence in this chapter demonstrates
that it is risky to rely on morphological or discourse
properties as tests for syntactic status. Though the the
morphological and discourse-functional resemblance between
inverse verbs and passive verbs in other languages may be
suggestive, a syntactic analysis cannot be motivated solely
by inflectional patterns and contexts of use. The analysis
of inverse verbs must rest instead on syntactic evidence.
The passive verbs show even more clearly the hazards of
relying solely on morphology as an indicator of syntactic
relations. Although the third person passive forms
superficially resemble active, transitive verbs,
syntactically they appear to indeed be passive.
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Notes to chapter 3

1 The term inverse verb for these forms in Algonquian languages dates from Howse 1844.

2 Strictly speaking, it is only passives in which the agent is expressed that can be compared to Cree inverse verbs. Agentless passives correspond exactly to the Cree passive, which never expresses an agent.

3 The term copying to object was first used, to my knowledge, by Frantz 1978, regarding Blackfoot.

4 The discussion in the text does not exhaust the ways in which quantifier notions may be expressed in Cree. There are verbal forms of the lower numerals and of some quantifiers, which are inflected as regular intransitives. Numerals and quantifiers may also appear within the verb stem, as preverbs on compound stems. These alternate strategies are illustrated below, but will not be discussed here.
(i) [Bloomfield 1934, p. 94; also in appendix to chapter 4, line 165-66] ka-wa-pama-t e-h-niya-naniyit ayi-siyiniwah see 3-obv be five obv person obv
e-h-pe-c-a-stamohte-yit.
hither come toward obv
"he saw five men coming toward them.'
(ii) [Bloomfield 1934s P. 90; and appendix, line 8-9] ki-h-ni-so-tipiska-kih ka-sipwe-hta-na-naw pf 2 be night subjnct fut leave $1 p l$ inc
'Two nights from now we shall set out.'

## Chapter 4

Obviation


#### Abstract

Obviation is a grammatical opposition found in the Algonquian languages which distinguishes one third person (or group of third persons) from all others. The one singled out is called proximate, and the other third persons are obviative. [1] The proximate third person may be the topic of the discourse, similar to what Karmiloff-Smith 1980 calls thematic subject. The proximate third person is also usually the focus of the speaker's empathy (cf. Kuno and Kaburaki 1977); in narratives, proximate often corresponds to the character whose point of view is being represented.

Obviative animate nouns bear a suffix -a, while the proximate third person is conspicuous by being the only one morphologically unmarked. Obviative is also the marked term of the opposition: in contexts of neutralization it is the proximate form that appears. Obviation is obligatory only within a fairly narrow syntactic domain, discussed in section 1. Here it has the consequence of disambiguating reference, something like a switch reference system operating with respect to the proximate third person. [2] Qutside this syntactic domain, however, obviation is optional and may be employed with varying stylistic effect, often without regard to strict disambiguation of third person reference.


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The following examples illustrate the opposition between proximate and obviative. Both are taken from the text given as an appendix to this chapter. In each, a single third person is proximate, and all others are obviative. The proximate third person of the first example is the boy; his father and the horses are obviative. (This example is lines 23-26 in the appendix.) The boy is introduced with ョ relative clause as a topic NP: he is the subject of the main clause verb aya-w "be there" in the fourth line.
(1) awa pe-yak na-pe•sis
this one boy
o-hta-wiya e-h-okima-wiyit, his father obv be chief obv misatimwah ite-h e.y-aya-yit, horse obv loc be obv e.kote.h aya-w; there be 3
'A certain boy (prox) whose father (obv) was chief, where the horses (obv) were, there he (prox) was;'
The distinction between proximate and obviative is reflected in noun and verb inflection and in the form of demonstrative pronouns. 'obv' indicates obviative forms in the interlinear glosses, while proximate inflection is indicated by 3 or \(3 p\) on verbs, and 'his' or 'their' on possessed nouns. (Obviative animate third persons are not specified for number.) Nouns and demonstratives not glossed "obv" are proximate.
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In the next example (lines 311-313 in the appendix), the proximate third person is the man, with the boy and the horses obviative. As will be seen below, the appearance of the boy as obviative here is an example of the optional use of obviation: the syntax of the sentence does not demand that this noun be obviative. Here the effect of obviation is to present the scene from the man's point of view.
(2) mistahi miywe-yihtam aw o-skini-kiw, greatly be glad 3 -inan this young man
e-kwah e--sipwe--te-htapit, and leave ride 3
e.-pe--si-hkitisahwa-yit
hither drive ahead obv-obv
o-hi na-pe-sisah misatimwah.
this.obv boy obv horse obv
'The young man (prox) was very glad,
and rode away,
while the boy (obv) drove on the horses (obv)."

The various consequences of optional marking of obviation in narratives are discussed in the second part of this chapter.

Clauses involving two third person arguments require at least one argument to be marked obviative. The appearance of direct or inverse forms is governed by which argument is proximate and which obviative: if the subject is proximate and the object obviative, then the verb is direct. An inverse form is required if the subject is obviative and the object proximate. The influence of this discourse-based opposition between third persons was noted in chapter 3, where a comparison was drawn between inverse verbs and

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passive verbs in English. Both constructions may be used to
indicate that the patient of the verb is more prominent in
the discourse than the agent is. (The terminology of agent
and patient is used here since the two constructions are not
equivalent at the level of grammatical relations.)
    The following pair of examples from the text provides a
minimal pair, showing that both direct and inverse forms are
available for transitive verbs involving third person
arguments. The forms of interest are onily the underlined
verbs of speaking following the quotes. [3] In each of the
(b) sentences below, the man is speaking to the boy. In
(3b) the verb is inverse, while in (4b.) the verb is direct.
The (a) sentences are given for context.
(3) a) "nisto ninipaha-wak,"
    three kill 1-3p
                    ite.w.
    say to 3-obv [dir]
""I killed three of them,"
    he [the boy-prox] said to him [the man-obv]'
b) "ta-pwe., we.skini-kiyin,
        truly young man vocative
        namoya kikosta.wak!"
            not fear 2-3p
                itik.
        say to obv-3 [inv]
""Really, young man, you are not afraid of them!"
    he [the man-obv] said to him [the boy-prox]'
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    (4) a) "a-, nimiske-n itah t-ay-aya-yahk,"
            find 1-inan loc fut be 1p inc
                    ite-w.
            say to 3-obv [dir]
            ""Come, I have found a place where we can stay,"
                        he [the boy-prox] said to him [the man-obv]."
            b) "a-, namoya, na-pe-sis! ki-we. kiya-m!"
                        no boy go home rather
            ite\cdotw
            ""oh, no, my boy! Do go home!"
        he [the man-prox] said to the boy [obv]"
    The immediate context for both of the (b) sentences is
the same: the boy has just addressed his wounded companion.
In both (3a) and (4a) the boy, as the hero of the siory, is
proximate and the man is obviative. Consequently, in both
(3a) and (4a), the verb of speaking is in the direct form.
    The (b) sentences illustrate the opposition of direct
and inverse forms. In (3b), as in (3a), the boy is
proximate and the man obviative. Since the subject of (3b)
is obviative, and the object proximate, the verb of (3b)
must be inverse.
(4b) illustrates the other alternative. In (4b) the
man is proximate and the boy obviative: just the reverse of
the sentence in (4a). As a consequence, the verb of (4b) is
direct.
There is thus an apparent similarity between the third person direct and inverse forms and the active/passive voice opposition in languages like English. The direct and inverse forms of (3b) and (4b) are truth-conditionally
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equivalent: they are alternative ways of expressing the
same proposition. The difference between them is at the
level of discourse pragmatics: (3b) and (4b) single out
different arguments as proximate. As these examples show, a
given third person may be maintained as proximate across
sentence boundaries, or a new third person may become
proximate. Like passive, the use of inverse verbs is
restricted: in the fairly lengthy text given in the
appendix, only eleven of the transitive verios involving
third person arguments are inverse, while about seven times
that mariy ETE むireご.
    However, the opposition of direct and inverse is just
one aspect of the larger phenomenon of obviation. The
apparent similarity between inverse and passive in this
context should not be taken to imply that the discourse
functions of proximate in Cree and subject in English are
everyuhere equivalent. Proximate is not a clause-level
relation, as subject is: the distinction between proximate
and obviative third persons may range over a sentence or a
paragraph-sized episode. As a result, the opposition
between proximate and obviative is reflected not only in the
arguments of transitive verbs, but also in the subjects of
intransitives, and on possessed nouns. This may be seen in
examples (1) and (2) above.
    Nor can proximate be equated with sentence level
discourse functions such as sentence topic. Although it is
common for there to be one proximate third person in a given
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sentence, some sentences may have no proximate third person
at all, while others have more than one proximate. The
example below has only obviative third persons, and no
proximate (lines 163-64 in the appendix).
    (5) ta-pwe. minihkwe-yiwa, e-kwah e.h-mi.cisoyit.
        truly drink obv and eat obv
        'So he (obv) drank and ate.'
    If proximate were the same thing as sentence topic,
this sentence would have to be analyzed as topicless. But
it does have a topic: the man who is drinking and eating,
here referred to pronominally by obviative verb inflection.
The following sentence, on the other kand, would be analyzed
as having more than one topic, since both subjects are
proximate, and are disjoint in reference.
    (6) e.h-takohte.cik e.kotah,
                arrive 3p there
        a.say o.ma ka.-pa.skiswa.t mostoswah.
        already this.inan shoot 3-obv buffalo obv
            'When they (prox) arrived there,
            he (prox) had already shot the buffalo.'
            The above example also shows that the primary function
of obviation is not that of a switch reference system, since
both of the both third persons are proximate even though
they are not coreferential.
    The discussion below will look at the use of obviation
in narrative texts, with the examples drawn from a single
text which is given in full as an appendix to this chapter.
Various patterns of obviation can be identified within
narrative, affecting the use of direct and inverse verbs.
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#### Abstract

The apparent opposition of inverse and direct verbs in i3b) and (4b) reflect different ways of using obviation within narrative.

Before turning to the uses of obviation in narrative, however, the sentence level factors at play in the marking of obviation are discussed. Where possible, the examples in this first section will also be drawn from the text given as an appendix.


1. Syntactic conditions

Within certain syntactic contexts, obviation is obligatory: that is, one of two third persons must be marked as obviative. The other third person may remain unmarked, and is proximate. In contexts conteining only one third person the opposition is neutralized, and the form used is always the unmarked proximate one.

The discussion in this section will outline the contexts in which obviation is obligatory. Some of the contexts in which the marking of obviation is optional will also be illustrated, to demonstrate the limits of the syntactic factors conditioning obviation. The various purposes to which the optional marking of obviation may be put are the subject of the second section of this chapter.

One environment in which obviation is obligatory is found when a noun is possessed by a third person. The possessed noun is obligatorily obviative. If the noun is enimate, it takes the obviative suffix -a; if it is

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inanimate, the noun itself has no suffix, but Inanimate
Intransitive verbs used with the noun reveal that it is
obviative. [4] {See the discussion of Inanimate
Intransitive verbs in chapter 2, section 4.) The first
example below is line 24 in the appendix, and the second is
line 167.
    (7)
            o-hta-wiya e.h-okima-wiyit,
            his father obv be chief obv
            'his (prox) father (obv) was chief"
    (8) o.ma ka--pi-kopayiyik oska.t
        this.inan break inan.obv his leg
            'his (prox) broken leg (obv)'
    Both possessor and possessed noun may be obviative:
for example, okosisiviwa 'his (obv) son' in line 352, and
oske\cdottiviw 'his (obv) leg' in line 168. There is, however,
no way to express an obviative possessor and proximate
possessed noun, or a proximate possessor and proximate
possessed noun.
    When two or more third persons appear in the same
clause, only one may be proximate. Examples are given
below.
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(9)

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awa na-pe.sis o.hih ka--kaskatahomiht
    this boy this.obv be wounded obv
        niya-nan miye.w misatimwah;
            5 \mp@code { g i v e ~ 3 - o b v ~ h o r s e ~ o b v }
            'the boy (prox) gave the man (obv)
            five horses (obv)"
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    (10) ta-pwe. pe--na-ciyo-sta.kwak ayahciyinwah.
    truly hither creep to obv-3p Blackfoot obv
    'Accordingly the Blackfoot (obv)
    crept up on them (prox)'
    (11) ma-ka a-say mita-taht ote.miwa-wa
    but already ten their horse obv
    o-tah nipesi-ma-wa!
    here bring 1-obv
    'but I have already brought
        ten of their (prox) horses (obv) here!"
    In the first example (line 358), tine subject of a
ditransitive verb is proximate, and the first and second
objects are obviative. The verb is direct. In the second
example (line 85) the subject, the Blackfoot, is obviative,
while the object is proximate. The object here is the Cree,
referred to pronominally by inflection on the verb. The
verb in this example is inverse. In the third example lime
290), the object of the verb is a possessed noun. Since the
object is possessed, it is obviative, and this is reflected
on the verb inflection.
    Both arguments of a transitive verb may be obviative,
as illustrated in line 186 of the text, given below:
    (12) ta-pisko-c wa-skahikan e-h-itaha-yit
                            like house put thus obv-obv
                mistikwah
                            tree obv
"they (obv) placed trees (obv) in the
    shape of a wooden house"
The obviative subject here is the Blackfont, and mistikwah 'tree' is the obviative object, marked by the ending -a because it is animate. This clause occurs within
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a sentence in which the proximate third person, the boy, is
observing the Blackfoot who are camping nearby.
    The preceding example illustrates the use of a direct
verb with an obviative subject and and an obviative object:
the verb is direct because the subject is human, and thus
more salient than the object. An example of an inverse verb
involving an obviative subject and an obviative object was
given in chapter 2, (115). In that example, the Crow
Indians had killed a woman's husband. Both subject and
object are obviative, but the object, the woman's husband,
is the one with whom the speaker is more sympathetic.
    Proximate and obviative NPs may appear in any order
with respect to the verb and to each other. This was
demonstrated in chapter 1, where the examples illustrating
the six possible permutation of subject, object, and verb
all involved direct verbs with a proximate subject and an
obviative object. Two of those examples are repeated below.
    (13) [Bioomfield 1930, p.36]
        nakate.w mahke-si.sah wi-sahke.ca.hk.
        leave 3-obv fox obv W.
        "Wisahkechahk (prox) left Fox (obv) behind"
    (14) [Bloomfield 1934, P. 74]
        e.kosi na-te.w awa iskwe.w
            so fetch 3-obv this woman
            o-hi kaskite.wastimwa.
            this.obv black horse obv
        *So then the woman (prox) went and
        got that black horse (obv)."
    In (13) the obviative NP precedes the proximate, and in
(14) the proximate NP precedes the obviative. In both
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examples the proximate third person is subject.
    A proximate NP and proximate possessor corefer
regardless of whether the NP is subject or object:
    (15) kahkiyaw iskwe-wak sa-kihe-wak ota-nisiwa-wa
        all woman pl love 3p=obv their dght obv
    'All women (prox) love their (prox) daughters (obv)'
    (16) kahkiyaw iskwe-wak sa-kihikwak ota-nisiwa-wa
        all woman pl love obv-3p their dght obv
    'Their (prox) daughters (obv) love all women (prox)"
    [i.e., all women are loved by their daughters]
(17) namo-ya awiyak wanikiskisitotawe.w otawa.simisa
                        no one forget 3-obv his Ehild obv
        'No one (prox) forgets his (prox) children (obv)'
    (18) namo-ya awiyak wanikiskisitota-k otawa-simisa
        no one forget obv-3 his child obv
        'His (prox) children (obv) forget no one (prox)'
        [i.e., No one is forgotten by his chilldren]
    As a result, Cree does not show the weak crossover
effects found in English and other languages, in which, for
example, a quantified object does not have scope over the
possessor of the subject. Again, the relative order of
proximate and obviative NPs does not affect grammaticality:
    (19) ota-nisiwa-wa sa\cdotkihikwak kahkiyaw iskwe.wak
        their dghtr obv love obv-3p all woman pl
    'Their (prox) daughters (obv) love all women (prox)"
    (20) otawa-simisa wanikiskisitota\cdotk namo-ya awiyak
        his child obv forget obv-3 no one
        'His (prox) children (obv) forget no one (prox)"
    Impersonal Inanimate Intransitive verbs are inflected
for proximate or obviative subjects, even though these verbs
never occur with lexical NP subjects. When these verbs are
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used in contexts in which non-third persons only are
present, they appear with proximate inflection. All
instances of Inanimate Intransitive verbs occuring in the
direct quotes of the text are proximate, as illustrated by
lines 11-12, below.
    (21) ki-h-ni-so-tipiska\cdotkih
        perf two be night inan [prox]/subjunctive
        ka-sipwe-hta-na-naw.
        fut leave 1p inc
            'After two nights (prox),
            we shall leave."
    If a third person is present in the context, the
impersonal Inanimate Intransitive verts are almost always
inflected for an obviative subject, as seen in the following
example (lines 21-22)=
    (22) ta-pwe. e.h-ki•h-ni•so-tipiska\cdotyik
        truly perf two be night inan.obv
        sipwe.hte.wak.
            leave 3p
        'Accordingly, after two nights (obv),
        twice, they (prox) left."
    In the text given in the appendix, all but two of the
Inanimate Intransitive verbs occurring in the narrative
sections are obviative. The exceptions occur at lines 55
and 199, and it is not clear why these verbs are proximate.
Line 199, for example, is structurally no different from
line 174:
    (23) a-say tipiska-w.
        already be night inan [prox]
        *It (prox) was already dark."
```

(24) piyis tipiska•yiw. finally be night inan.obv 'At last it (obv) grew dark.'

The syntactic context in which obviation is obligatory seems to extend also into sentential complements of a matrix verb. In the following example, the subject of the matrix verb is proximate, while the object and the conjoined subjects of the complement verb are obviative. The example is lines 351-353 in the appendix.
(25)

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e-h-ntawi-wi-htamawa-t o.h o.kima-wa
                        go to tell to 3-obv this.obv chief obv
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e-h-takosiniyit okosisiyiwa
arrive obv obv's son obv
mi-n o-hi ka.-ki-h-kaskatahomiht,
also this.obv perf be wounded obv
'he (prox) went to tell the chief (obv)
that his (obv) son (obv) and the one (obv)
who had been wounded were arriving,'

The following sentence, however, is an unusual example of both the subject of the matrix verb and the subject of the complement verb appearing as proximate, although they are non-coreferential.
(26) [Bloomfield $1934, \mathrm{p} .82-84]$
namoya kiske-yime-wak ta-nte.
not know 3p-obv where
e-y-ohtohte•t aw a-yahciyiniw.
come from this Blackfoot
'they (prox) did not know where this Blackfoot (prox) had come from'

For this example, it is probably significant that the Blackfoot had been the proximate third person two sentences before in the text.

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    NPs appearing to the left of the sentence in topic
position are apparently always proximate:
    (27) [Bloomfield 1934, P.44]
    e-wakonik o.ki oskini-kiwak,
    the very ones these youth pl
    ki-spin e-ka-h e-h-kostikocik iya-hciyiniwah,
    e-yakoni e.h-nipaha-cik.
    the very one.obv kill 3p-obv
    *These same young men (prox),
    if a Blackfoot (obv) dion't fear them (prox),
    they (prox) killed him (obv).'
Not all NPs appearing in preverbal position are topics; the
NP here is analyzed as being in topic position because it is
followed by ki.spin 'if', a clause-initial particle. The
following example is from the text in the appendix {lines
109-112), and also appears to have a topic NP.
    (28) e-kwah awa ka.-kaskatahoht
        and this be wounded 3
        e.wako simatapiw,
        the very one sit up 3
        wi.stah e.h-pa.skiswa.t,
        he too shoot 3-obv
        wi.stah e.h-no-tinike.t;
        he too fight 3
            'And the one (prox) who was wounded
        he (prox) sat up, he (prox) also fired at them,
        he (prox) also fought;*
Other examples of topic NPs in the text may be found in
lines 23-24, 120, and 245.
    The use of these topic NPs may be related to that of
the series of contrastive independent personal pronouns.
This series contains no obviative pronoun.
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    (29) e.kwah wiyawa-w e.-ki.si-wiyanihta-ke.cik,
        and they.contr finish cut up game 3p
        'But, as for them, when they had cleaned
        their game,'
    (30) wiya mi-na niya-nan aya-we.w misatimwa.
        he.contr also five have 3-obv horse obv
        'he himself also had five horses'
    The extension of the domain of obviation into
complement clauses of a matrix verb, and the correlation
between preposed topics and proximate, may suggest that the
syntactic conditions on obviation make the third person
which occurs highest in syntactic structure proximate, and
all other third persons obviative. However, the following
discussion will show that obviative third persons may be
arguments of main clause verbs, while the proximate third
person occurs lower in the sentence.
Demonstrative pronouns and conjunct verbs used as
modifiers agree with the head in obviation, as seen in line
231 of the appendix:
    (31) 0.hih ka--kaskatahomiht wi-ce-wa-kanah
    this.obv be wounded obv companion obv
    "the wounded companion (oov)"
    In relative clauses, the head must have the same
obviation value within the relative clause as it does in the
higher clause. The following example is taken from another
one of Bloomfield's texts.
    (32) [Bloomfield 1930, p.280]
        e.kwah kisiwa-he.w o.hih ka.-kimotamawa.t.
        and anger 3-obv this.obv steal from 3-obv
            'He (prox) angered the ones (obv) he stole from.'
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    In this example, the relative clause o.hih
ka.-kimotamawa.t. "the ones he stole from" is the object of
the higher verb. Since the subject of the higher verb is
proximate, this object must be obviative. The head of the
relative clause is also the object of the verb within the
relative clause, and must be obviative there too. In other
words, there can be no switch of proximate and obviative
marking on third person arguments within a relative clause:
the head must either be proximate in both the relative
clause and the higher clause, or obviative in both clauses.
    In the next example, from the text in the appendix
(1ines 268-269), the higher verb of the sentence must be
inflected for an obviative subject because the head of the
relative clause is obviative within the lower clause.
    (33)
        e-kwah pe--na-tima-wa
        and hither be fetched obv
        o-hi ka--ki--nipaha.t,
        this.obv perf kill 3-obv
            'And the ones (obv) whom he (prox) had killed
                were fetched,?
If the higher verb were inflected for a proximate subject
the sentence would read, 'the one (prox) who had killed them
(obv) was fetched'.
    The following examples show that other types of verbs
marked with proximate or obviative inflection may occur in
either order with respect to each other, and either may be
higher than the other in constituent structure. The
inflection on the verbs for proximate or obviative arguments
functions pronominally in the absence of lexical subjects or
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objects.
    (34) ite.h e.h-ota-kosiniyik,
            loc be evening inan.obv
        e--wi-h-minahoyit,
    intend kill game obv
        wistah e.kote. takohte.w.
        he too there arrive 3
        "Where [they were by] evening,
        as they (obv) were about to kill game,
        he too (prox) arrived.'
    In the above example, the verb of the main clause,
takohte-w 'arrive' is inflected for a proximate subject. It
is preceded by intransitive verbs in subordinate clauses
inflected for obviative subjects.
    (35) mwe-hci nikotwa-sikwa-w e-h-ki-h-nipa-cik,
    just then six times perf sleep 3p
    mo-hkiciwanipe.k itah e.h-aya-yik,
        spring loc be inan.obv
    ci.k e.kotah mostoswah aya.yiwa.
    near there buffalo obv be obv
    'When they (prox) had slept six times,
        where there was a spring of water (obv),
        near there were buffalos (obv)."
In this example, the verb of the highest clause,
aya-yiwa "be there" is inflected for an obviative subject.
It is preceded by two subordinate clauses: the first
contains an intransitive verb inflected for a proximate
plural subject, and the second contains an Inanimate
Intransitive verb inflected for an obviative subject.
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    (36) mistahi ma-maska\cdottamiyiwa,
    greatly be surprised obv-inan
"ta-ntah e.h-ohtinaman?"
        where get from 2-inan
    e.h-itikot.
                say to obv-3
'He (obv) was greatly surprised,
    "Where did you get it?"
    he (obv) asked him (prox).'
In the preceding example (lines 234-236 in the
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appendix), the highest verb is ma\cdotmaska\cdottamiyiwa "be
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appendix), the highest verb is ma\cdotmaska\cdottamiyiwa "be
surprised', inflected for an obviative subject and inanimate
object. The proximate third person is referred to only as
the object of the inverse verb in the final clause.
(37) [Bloomfield 1934, P. 44]
ke.ka-c e.h-tipiska\cdotyik,
almost be night inan.obv
e.koyikohk poyo-yiwah o.h iya-hciyiniwah,
just then cease obv this.obv B.foot obv
e.h-tapasiyit,
flee obv
e-h-se.kiha-cik.
frighten 3p-obv
'When it (obv) was almost night
the Blackfoot (obv) quit,
running away because they (prox) had
frightened them (obv).,
In this example, taken from another of Bloomfield's
texts, the proximate third person is the subject of
e-h-se.kiha-cik "frighten', the direct verb in the final
clause. This clause is a subordinate one, and is preceded
by two clauses in which the obviative third person is
subject, and by a clause containing an impersonal Inanimate
Intransitive verb inflected for an obviative subject.

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The preceding examples show that obviative arguments may be indicated pronominally in clauses that both precede and command clauses containing proximate arguments. Example (5) at the beginning of this chapter showed that subjects may be marked obviative even when there is no proximate third person in the sentence at all.
Despite the examples in which NPs in topic position are proximate, and the extension of obligatory obviation into sentential complements of a matrix verb, the examples of obviative inflection on main clause intransitives show that obviative marking cannot be predicted with a structural condition like c-command. It is also not possible to predict obviative marking on the basis of linear order of arguments. [5]
2. Uses of obviation in narrative
The discussion in this section covers a variety of ways that obviation is used in narrative discourse, and is based upon examination of about thirty texts in Bloomfield 1930 and 1934. One of these texts, which exhibits a typical range of obviation patterns, is given in full as an appendix to this chapter. All the examples in this section will be drawn from this text, to illustraie the role obviation plays in discourse organization.
The text is 'A Brave Boy' (Bloomfield 1934, pp. 90-99), and the plot is as follows. Seven Cree men go out in search of Blackfoot, and are joined by the young son of their

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chief. Even though the boy is really too young, the men let Kim stay. The Cree are surprised by the Blackfoot, and one man is wounded. All the other men run away, but the boy stays with the wounded man, and they repel the Blackfoot attack. The boy builds a shelter and cares for the wounded man. More Blackfoot camp nearby; the boy attacks them, killing three, and driving the rest away. The Blackfoot later return for their dead, but the boy steals their horses and he and the wounded man return home. The chief and the rest of the band are over joyed to see them, because they had thought the boy and the man must have been killed.

Most uses of obviation distinguish a single proximate third person from all others. Another pattern, however, may be seen when there is more than one proximate third person, all relatively prominent in the discourses but no one proximate more salient than the others. Using a term from Goddard 1984, this use of obviation is labelled multiple proximates, and is discussed in section 2.2. Section 2.1. discusses obviation of the single proximate type.

\subsection*{2.1. Single proximate}

The discussion of obviation will look at the text in episodes about the size of a paragraph. In general, this is the range of a given pattern of obviation. In some episodes, a single third person is maintained as proximate for the duration of the episode. In other cases, the effect of other obviation patterns can most easily be seen by
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considering the episode as a whole.
To take the first episode of this text as an example,
the episode begins on line 2, with a sentence beginning with
ki-tahtawe. 'presently, soon; suddenly', which is frequently
used at the beginning of episodes. (Line 1 has not been
counted here: it is a formulaic opening.)
(38) ki-tahtawe 0.mis i-twe.w pe-yak na-pe\cdotw;
presently thus speak one man
'Once a certain man (prox) spoke as follows;'
The first episode ends with the sentence in lines
21-22:
(39) ta-pwe. e.h-ki-h-ni-so-tipiska-yik
truly perf two be night inan.obv
sipwe-hte-wak.
leave 3p
'Accordingly, after two nights, they set out.'
The particle ta-pwe: 'truly' is frequently associated with
sentences closing an episode.
In this first episodes the Cree men are planning to go
out in search of the Blackfoot. The proximate third person
in this episode is the leader of the group; his friend, who
speaks only to agree with him, is obviative. In line 22 the
verb is inflected for proximate plural: this refers to the
men as a group, including both the leader and his companion.
The second episode begins on line 23, lasting until
line 37, which is given below.
(40) ta-pwe. pimitisahwe.w
truly follow 3-obv
'Accordingly he followed them'

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Again, a sentence beginning with ta-pwe- is used to end the episode.

In the second episode, the proximate third person is the boy. The group of men, who were proximate in the previous episode, are now obviative, along with the boy's father, and the horses. The episode begins with the boy introduced as a topic NP in lines 23-24 (see also example (1) at the beginning of this chapter). The events of this episode are presented from the boy's point of view: he sees the men who are going out after Blackfoot, and decides to go with them.

The third episode takes place that evening, at the place where the men are camping for the night. Just as they are about to kill some game for supper, the boy arrives at their camp. At this point, a little ways into the third episode, the men become proximate, and the boy becomes obviative. At the beginning of the episode the boy was proximate and the men were obviative, just as in the second episode. The effect of the men being proximate is to represent their reactions to the boy joining them: they recognize him as the chief's son, and decide to let him stay.

The change from the boy being proximate to the men being proximate, with a corresponding shift in point of view, is accomplished by repeating two verb stems, as seen in the two examples below (lines 38-40; 43-46).
```

    (41) ite.h e.h-ota-kosiniyik,
        loc be evening inan.obv
        e.-wi•h-minahoyit,
            intend kill game obv
        wistah e.kote. takohte.w.
        he too there arrive 3
    'Where [they were by] evening,
        as they (obv) were about to kiill game,
        he (prox) also arrived."
    (42)
        e.kwah o.ki na-pe.wak ka-h-minahocik,
        ka.-takohte-yit o-hi na-pe-sisah,
        arrive obv this.obv boy obv
    nisitawe-yime.wak
    recognize 3p-obv
        o.hta-wiyiwa e.h-okima-wiyit.
    obv's father obv be chief obv
    'And when those men (prox) had killed game,
        and the boy (obv) arrived,
        they (prox) recognized him (obv)
        as the chief's (obv) son."
    In (41), the boy is proximate, so takohte.w 'he
    arrived' is inflected for a proximate subject. The men are
obviative in (41), and e--wi-h-minahoyit *intending to kill
game' is inflecied for an obviative subject.
In the sentence beginning in line 43, the verb stems
are repeated, reflecting the change in proximate and
obviative. ka-h-minahocik 'when they killed game' has a
proximate plural subject, while ka--takohte.yit "when he
arrived' has an obviative subject. Both verbs bear the
preverb ka.-,, here used in its perfective sense. Though it
would be clear from the repetition of the verb stems alone
that the men are the subject of the first verb in (42), and

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the boy the subject of the second, this is made even more explicit by the use of lexical NP subjects with botin verbs.

A similar pattern may be seen in an episode later in the text (lines 256-261). In this episode the Blackfoot who escaped the boy's attack return home and tell about it. The first line has the Blackfoot as obviative:

'It seems they (obv) didn't live far away.'
The use of obviative verb inflection is enough to pick out the Blackfoot without using a lexical subject. In the next line the two specific Blackfoot who escaped from the boy are proximate, and referred to by a preverbal NP.
(44) o.ki ka-tapasi-cik ayahciyiniwak these flee 3p Blackfoot pl
takosinwak wi-kiwa-hk; arrive \(3 p\) their house loc
'Those Blackfoot (prox) who had fled arrived at their camp;'

These Blackfoot remain proximate for the rest of this brief episode. In the next episodes the boy is again proximate, and the episode begins with an impersonal Inanimate Intransitive verb with a perfective preverb, indicating elapsed time. It is followed by a transitive direct verb inflected for a proximate singular subject. Again, no lexical subject is needed to indicate that it is the boy who is the new proximate here.

Several instances have now been seen of obviation being used to express the point of view of the proximate third
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person. Examples are found in the second and third
episodes. In the second episode, the boy sees the men go
off, and in the third episode, the men become proximate, as
the boy's arrival at their camp is told from their point of
view. It is generally the case that perception verbs or
verbs expressing feelings have proximate subjects. Examples
are nisitawe\cdotvime.wak "recognize" in (42), and the several
points in the story where the man is described as being
glad, all with proximate subjects:
(45) miywe-yihtam awa na-pe.w.
be glad 3-inan this man
'The man (prox) was glad.,
The next example, however, is slightly different from
what has been seen so far. In part of this episode the
character whose viewpoint is expressed is referred to by
proximate forms, but this is not true throughout the
episode. Lines 75-81 of the text are reproduced below.
(46) 75. pe•htamiyiwa ayahciyiniwah
hear obv-inan Blackfoot obv
76. namoya нa-hyaw e-h-aya-yit,
not far be obv
77. mita-taht e-y-ihtasiyit,
ten be so many obv
73. mi-n e.yakonik ne-hiyawah e\cdoth-ntonawa-cik.
also the very ones Cree obv seek 3p-obv
79. e-kwah e-yakonik wi-h-kakwe--wa-pame-wak
and the very ones intend try see 3p-obv
o.hi ne-hiyawa.
this.obv Cree obv
80. po.tih wa-pamikok ne.hiyawak o.ki
[surprise] see obv-3p Cree pl these

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81. ka--wiyinihta-ke-cik
cut up game 3p
'Ten Blackfoot (obv) who were not far away heard it, and they (prox) also were seeking Cree (obv). They (prox) decided to try to see the Cree (obv). And there they sobv) saw the Cree (prox) who were cutting up their game ..."

The enemy Blackfoot are introduced in line 75 as obviative: what they have heard is a gunshoi fired by the Cree. In lines 78 and 79 the Blackfoot become proximate, then the Cree reappear as proximate in line 80. Several questions arise with respect to this example. What is the effect of making the Blackfoot proximate, and why does it occur at line 78? Likewise, why are the Cree again proximate at line 80 ?

One effect of the change in proximate is to focus upon the Blackfoot, highlighting their nearness to the cree, and creating suspense in the narrative. Viewpoint is also involved: the occurrence of the shift at line 78 coincides with a verb describing the intentions of the Blackfoot. They are out seeking Cree, just as the Cree men are out after Blackfoot. The obviative noun ne-hiyawah 'Cree (obv.)' in line 78 is of particular interest. It occurs without a determiner, which favors a non-specific reading of this noun, the object of nitonaw- "seek". In other words, the Blackfoot are seeking Cree in general; they do not have in mind any particular Cree, such as the group of seven men and one boy.

There is, therefore, a subtle difference between the use of obviation at this point in the text and that seen in
the description of the boy's arrival at the men's camp. The obviative noun ne-hiyawah "Cree (obv.)" in line 78 is not, strictly speaking, coreferential with the earlier references to the group of Cree men and the boy. In fact, ne-hiyawah 'Cree (obv.)' in line 78 is nonreferential. It identifies that which the Blackfoot are searching for. Although, as it turns out, the group of Cree men and the boy does satisfy the object of the Blackfoot's search, at the moment recounted in line 78 the Blackfoot have not yet seen these Cree. In line 78, therefore, the Blackfoot gain proximate status, but it cannot be said that the group of Cree men and the boy is here relegated to obviative status. In the earlier episode, on the other hand, there was a complete reversal of proximate and obviative between two third person referents. The boy and the group of men in the sentence beginning with line 43 are the same boy and group of men as in the previous sentences. Only the forms used to refer to these characters shift.

The Blackfoot continue to be proximate in line 79, and here the object of the verb is o-hi ne-hiyawa "these Cree (obv.)'. Unlike the object in line 78 , this obviative NP is definite: the Blackfoot have heard the gunshot and surmise that it was Cree who fired the gun. Although this NP seems different from the nonreferential object of nitonaw- "seek' in 1 ine 78 , the verb of 1 ine 79 again expresses the intentions of the Blackfoot: they want to see the Cree who they guess must be nearby. They still have not seen any
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specific Cree.
In line 80 the boy who is the hero and the seven Cree
men come back into the story when the Blackfoot catch sight
of them. This is the point at which the Blackfoot become
obviative: the proximate third person in line 80 and the
following lines is the Cree. It should be noted, however,
that the switch back to the Cree as proximate in line 80
does not coincide with a shift in viewpoint. The viewpoint
represented is still that of the Blackfoot, as evidenced by
the initial particle po-tih of line 80, which expresses
surprise. Here it must be the Blackfoot's surprise at
seeing the Cree, because the Cree are at tinis time unaware
of the presence of the Blackfoot (cf. line 86).

* Although obviation is frequently used to represent
viewpoint, this example shows that this is not its only
function. The switch back to the Cree as proximate in line
80 shows a preference for using proximate forms to refer to
the character the narrator and tne audience are most
sympathetic to.
Lines 78 and 79 are striking not only in having the Blackfoot as proximate, but also in the parallel occurrences of the demonstrative pronoun e-vakonik 'those very ones'. The functions of the series of demonstrative pronouns which includes e-yakonik are not well understood, but they surely play a role here in the proximate shift to the Blackfoot.
The Blackfoot are introduced as obviative, and remain obviative for three lines before becoming proximate. This

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may be another example of the pattern seen in the episode
recounting the boy's arrival at the men's camp, and the
brief episode at the Blackfoot's camp, described above. The
Blackfoot start out as obviative, and later become
proximate. This is true also of the men in the episode of
the boy's arrival, and of the Blackfoot in the other
episode. The pattern here differs in some respects from
that of the earlier examples, however. When the boy arrives
at the men's camp, the men are the subject of a subordinate
clavse verb in line 39 ((41)):
(47) e.-wi-h-minahoyit,
intend kill game obv
as they (obv) were about to kill game,
In line 75, on the other hand, the verb is a main clause
verb, expressing an important turn of events. The initial
appearance of the Blackfoot as obviative thus does not seem
to be a device for making the transition between two single
proximate episodes.
This episode is atypical in another respect: the shift
to the Blackfoot as proximate, and then back to the Cree as
proximate, coincides with the use of transitive verbs. It
is more common for such switches to occur with intransitive
verbs, as seen in (42).

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Multiple proximates

The examples discussed so far have focused on a single proximate third person, expressing other third persons with
obviative forms. A variation on this pattern is to express more than one third person with proximate forms. The term multiple proximate is taken from Goddard 1984.
(48) e.h-takohte.cik e.kotah, arrive 3p there a.say o.ma ka.-pa.skiswa.t mostoswah. already this.inan shoot 3-obv buffalo obv
'When they (prox) arrived there, he (prox) had already shot the buffalo (obv)."

The example above (lines 73-74) is typical of the multiple proximate strategy. Although the plural subject of the first verb is disjoint in reference from the singular subject of the second verb, both are proximate. In this case, both proximate third persons belong to the group of Cree out looking for Blackfoot. Neither is more prominent than the other, so they share proximate status.

At the end of the story, when the boy and man return to their band, the multiple proximate strategy is used for all members of the band. (lines 360-363)
(49) mi-na aya-hciyiniwah nisto also Blackfoot oby 3 e-h-nipaha-t awa na-pe-sis, kill 3-obv this boy
miywe-yihtamwak o.k a-yisiniyiwak. be glad \(3 p-i n a n\) these person \(p l\)
'Also the people (prox) were glad that the boy (prox) killed three Blackfoot (obv)?

As pointed out in Goddard 1984, cases of conjoined NPs agreeing in proximate status can be subsumed under the larger phenomenon of multiple proximates. The following example is line 330 in the appendix.
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    (50)
        ...awa na-pe.sis e.kwah aw o.skini.kiw
        this boy and this youth
            mawi-hka-ta-wak.
            be mourned 3p
        'This boy (prox) and this young man (prox)
        were being mourned"
    Not all conjoined NPs agree in obviation: it is also
    possible to conjoin an obviative NP to a proximate NP, as
seen in the following example.
(51) [Bloomfield 1934, ₹.98]
wa-pam
see 2/imperative
e.si-miyosicik nisi.m o.h i.skwe.wah.
how be good 3p my y.sib. this.obv woman obv
'Look how beautiful are my Lrother (prox) and
this woman (obv)"
Though there is no overt conjunction, the plural marking on
the verb confirms that the two nouns are conjoined.
During a multiple proximate episode, it sometimes
happens that one proximate acts on another. That is, each
of the arguments of a transitive verb is coreferential to a
proximate subject of an intransitive verb in the immediately
preceding context. When a transitive verb is employed,
however, one of the two arguments must be obviative for the
duration of the clause. Afterwards, that argument is again
proximate.
The episode consisting of lines 165-175 has an exemple
of this. The boy and the man are equally salient at this
point in the story, and are both referred to by proximate
forms when subject of intransitive verbs. There is one
transitive verb in this episode involving the boy as subject

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and the man as object. Here the man appears as obviative.
This is seen in the example below, containing the first
sentence of the episode, which ends with the transitive
verb.
(52) 165. e.h-ki.si-mi-cisot,
finish eat 3
166. Q-kwah miscikosah ka-h-ki-skataham
then stick dim pl redup cut 3-inan
e-h-apisa-siniyikih,
be little inan.obv.pl
167. 0.ma ka.-pi-kopayiyik oska.t,
this.inan breaik inan.obv his leg
168. e-kotah e.-tahkopitamwa-t
there tie 3-obv
o.m o.ska-tiyiw.
this.inan obv's leg
'When he (prox) finished eating,
he (prox) cut some little sticks,
for [?] his (prox) broken leg,
there he (prox) tied him (obv) on his (obv) leg'
The proximate subject of the verbs in 165 and 166 is
the man. The man is also the proximate possessor in line
167. The proximate subject of }168\mathrm{ is the boy, while the man
is the obviative object and obviative possessor. The verb
of }168\mathrm{ is ditransitive, and the second object of the verb is
the man's leg. This verb is here functioning something like
object possessor raising (Munro 1984), in that the object of
the verb must be coreferential to the possessor of the
second object.
In the sentence following 168, both the boy and man are
again proximate.

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    (53) 169. e.kosi e.h-ki-si-tahkopitahk,
        so finish tie 3-inan
    170. e-kwah osi-hta\cdotw wi.kiwa.w ni-piyah ohci,
        then make 3-inan their house leaf pl from
    171. e.kotah e.h-aya-t,
        there be 3
    172. e.kwah e-w-osi.hta.t ka-hke.wakwah
        and make 3-inan dried meat pl
        ana na-pe-w,
        that man
        173. e-kwah awah na-pe-sis tahkih e-h-asawa-pit.
            and this boy always look out 3
    'When he (prox) finished tying it,
he (prox) built their (prox) house with leaves,
where the man (prox) stayed,
preparing dried meat,
while the boy (prox) always kept a lookout.'
Here the boy is the proximate subject of the verbs in
169, 170, and 173, while the man is the proximate subject in
171 and 172. The episode closes in line }175\mathrm{ with a verb
inflected for proximate plural, referring to the two of
them.
The brief use of obviative morphology to refer to the man in line 168 is not a departure from the multiple proximate pattern. It reflects a morphosyntactic requirement of the language, rather than a sharp shift in the discourse status associated with the man in this episode. It is thus different from switching to the boy as a new single proximate. The effect of such a single proximate strategy would have been to refer to the man with obviative forms in 171 and 172. Instead, the boy and the man both continue as proximate, reflecting their equal

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status within this episode.
In (52), when a transitive verb brought the two
proximates together in a single clause, the object was made
obviative, resulting in a direct form of the verb. This is
characteristic of multiple proximate episodes: when two of
the multiple proximates are to be arguments of a transitive
verb, it is always the object that is made obviative, and
not the subject. As a result, inverse verbs are not used in
these episodes.
Inverse verbs are instead used in single proximate
episodes, to continue tracking the one salient third person
through the episode. The distinct uses of inverse verbs in
single proximate and multiple proximate episodes is the
factor governing the oppositon between direct and inverse
forms seen in the minimal pair of (3) and (4) at the
beginning of this chapter. The two lines of those examples
that form a minimal pair are repeated below.
(54) Line 253: itik 'he (obv) said to him (prox)'
Line 138: ite.w na\cdotpe\cdotsisah
'he (prox) said to the boy (obv)'
Both of these forms are used in the text for the man
speaking to the boy. In the first example, the man is
obviative and the boy is proximate; in the second, the man
is proximate and the boy is obviative. The inverse form is
used in a single proximate episode focusing upon the boy.
The boy has attacked the Blackfoot, collected their
possessions, and brought them back to the wounded man.

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Other reflexes of the focus on the boy as single proximate may be seen in the use of obviative inflection referring to the man in 234, and the inverse verb in 236.

The direct form in line 138 , on the other hand, reflects the multiple proximate pattern. It is used in an episode which occurs earlier in the text: the boy and man have been fighting the Blackfoot together; when the Blackfoot retreat, the boy finds a place to stay. He then comes back to the man, and they argue about whether the boy should stay with the man. The two are equally salient at this point, and each of the verbs of speaking in this dialogue is in the direct form.

It was seen above that a given third person tended to remain proximate throughout an episode of text. The same is true for the single and multiple proximate patterns. A Given episode may exhibit one or the other pattern.

For example, in the episode immediately preceding example (52), in which the man and boy are both proximate, the pattern of obviation is a single proximate one, in which the boy is proximate and the man is obviative. This is seen by the following sentence, in which the man is subject of both verbs. The inflection is for an obviative subject, even though the proximate third person is not even mentioned in the sentence.

'So he drank and ate.'
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Again, ta-pwe* 'truly' is used as a sign that the episode is concluded. The next episode repeats the verb stem mi-ciso- 'eat', this time with proximate inflection. This is parallel to the repetition of verb stems seen in example (42), describing the boy's arrival at the men's camp.

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            This section has illustrated some of the uses that the
    grammatical opposition of obviation may be put to in
narrative. It often represents viewpoint, and is likely to
pick out the character the speaker and audience find mosi
sympathetic. Ubviation may either pick out a singie, highly
salient proximate, or it may be used with more than one
proximate, all of whom have roughly the same status in the
discourse. The inverse verbs are one device used to
maintain a given character as proximate; when multiple
proximates are involved as arguments of the same transitive
verb, the form of the verb is always direct.

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\section*{Notes to chapter 4}

1 The term "obviatif" was coined by Cuoq 1866 for this Algonquian grammatical category.

2 Contexts in which obviation disambiguates reference have received considerable attention (see, for example, Foley and Van Valin 1984, pp. 333-338). This function of obviation seems to be the motivation behind the term "obviation" used as a synonym for obligatory disjoint reference in Government and Binding theory and Lexical-Functional Grammar (Chomsky 1981, p. 61; Bresnan 1982a; p. 33i).

3 I have abbreviated the quoted material to save space. The full versions may be found in the appendix to this chapter: lines 237-253 for the first example, and lines 128-138 for the second.

4 In the Moose Cree dialect, both animate and inanimate nouns take obviative suffixes (cf. Ellis 1983).

5 See Grafstein 1981 for a proposal involving linear precedence, and a discussion of a proposal involving c-command.

\author{
Appendix to Chapter 4 Notes on the text
}

This appendix contains one of the texts from Bloomfield 1934: 'A Brave Boy' (pp. 90-99). This story was told to Bloomfield by Coming-Day, ka--ki-sika-w-pi-htoke-w, at Sweet Grass Reserve, Saskatchewan, sometime in the summer of 1925. Coming-Day is credited with more texts than any of the other Cree speakers who worked with Bloomfield, and the introduction to Bloomfield 1930 makes it clear that he was an accomplished story teller. This story displays a number of complicated syntactic constructions and a range of stylistic devices; the discussion in the present chapter does not exhaust the interesting features of this text, nor of the other texts in Bloomfield's collections. Clearly much more could be done with this textual material; one motivation for presenting this text here is to make it more accessitle. These introductory remarks explain the format used for this text, and discuss certain points which could not be adequately conveyed in the interlinear glosses.

To make the text easier to examine, I have presented it here in a series of short lines, following a rough formula of one verb (plus its arguments and adjuncts) per line. This format throws into relief a number of syntactic features, including the order of arguments with respert to the verb and to each other, the use of lexical NPs versus zero anaphora, the scope and placement of adverbs, and the
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role of clause-initial and clause-second particles. Some
sentence-initial elements that seem to be introducing new
topics appear on a separate line: for example, line 245
e.kwah pe:yak 'And one,'. In this case, the intuition that
pe-yak occupies a special topic position is reinforced by
the following line: osa.m e.toke. e.-se.kisit, "I guess
he was too frightened', where e.toke. 'I guess' is an
evidential particle which appears in second position within
clauses. If pe-yak 'one' were taken to be part of the
clause in line 246, then the position of e.toke. would be
problematic. Only a few sentence-initial constituents have
been given separate lines; probably more divisions of this
sort could be made than I have indicated here.
As a result of the widespread use of zero anaphora,
most lines are quite short. The clauses with more than one
lexical NP argument stand out (for example, line 358), as do
certain other clauses containing complex syntactic
constructions {an example is line 237). The longer ines,
therefore, are of particular interest both syntactically,
and from the point of view of discourse structure as well.
The lines of Cree text, along with my interlinear
glosses, form the lefthand column of each page. The Cree
lines are paired with Bloomfield's English transiaiion in
the righthand column. The Cree text, English translation,
and interlinear glosses all deserve some comment. Aspects
of the Cree text will be discussed first.

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The Cree text
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The Cree text is exactly as given in Bloomfield 1934, except for the orthographic substitutions described in chapter 1. Bloomfield writes word final h, extermal sandhi, and syncopation of short vowels. He is inconsistent in recording vowel length, especially before glides and $\underline{h}$, and sometimes writes $\underset{\text { i for }}{ }$ a. All these features of Bloomfield's text have been preserved here, since it is impossible to decide for all cases of, say, anomalous vowel length whether the transcription represents what the speaker actually said, a mishearing by Bloomfield, or a typographical error. However, a few items which almost certainly represent typographical errors are listed below. nipahe. (line 215) is presumatly nipahe-w 'he killed him (obv.)', nika-pa.skiswe-w (1ine 195) should be nika-pa-skiswa.w 'I will shoot him', and te-pwe. (line 70) should be ta-pwe. 'truly'. The latter two items have e. for a-, which is not a surprising typographical error: Bloomfield wrote long a as $\underline{\underline{a}}$ and long e as $\underline{a}$.
Somewhat different is the use of the plural suffix -ak on the verb in line 62, ta-nitawi-pa.skiswe.wak, literally, "they (prox) will go to shoot him/them (obv.)', but used for 'he will go to shoot them'. This may represent a slip of the tongue on the part of the speaker. From the context it is clear that it is the obviative object that is plural, while the proximate subject should be singular. -ak indicates proximate plural, and therefore is not

```
appropriate in line 62. There is no way to indicate number of an obviative object on the verb. However, since in this case the object is in fact plural, this may have led the speaker to use -ak on this verb, despite the mismatch of obviation features.

\section*{Bloomfield's English translation}

In general, Bloomfield's translation is faithful to the Cree. An exception is line 301, which should be 'his companion crawled outside', not 'he dragged out his companion'. Also, line 207 is probably best analyzed as the complement of the verb in line 206, 'he picked out which ones were well dressed', not separate from line 206, as Bloomfield has it. (Thanks to Ives Goddard for pointing this out.)

Interlinear glosses

Bloomfield gives only the Cree and English texts; I have supplied interlinear glosses, indicating both stems and inflectional categories. For example, the verb in line 14 is glossed as follows:
```

        (i) miskawa-yahkwa.wi "when we find them"
            find 1pine-3p/sub junctive
        The stem of this verb, miskaw-, is glossed "find"; it
    is inflected for a first person plural inclusive subject and
an animate third person plural object. The final suffix

```
```

-i indicates that the verb is subjunctive (as does the use
of -wa.w, rather than -ik, to mark third person plural).
The categories of subject and object are indicated for
each verb immediately following the stem gloss. As in the
above example, a hyphen separates the subject and object.
The abbreviations used are mostly self-explanatory:

```
```

    1 = 1 singular
    2 = 2 singular
    1p = 1 plural exclusive
    1p inc = 1 plural inclusive
    2p = 2 plural
    3 = 3 animate proximate singular
    3p = 3 animate proximate plural
    obv = 3 animate obviative
    inan = inanimate
    On Inanimate Intransitive verbs:
inan = inanimate proximate singular
inan.obv = inanimate obviative singular
inan.pl = inanimate proximate plural
inan.obv.pl = inanimate obviative plural
Inanimate Intransitive verbs require slightly more
complicated glosses, since they distinguish number and
obviation of inamimate subjects. This results in a slight
overlap of terminology that could be confusing. The
category "inan.obv", used for subjects of Inanimate
Intransitive verbs, is distinct from the subject-object
combinations of "obv-inan" (3 animate obviative subject and
inanimate oiject) and "inan-obv" (inanimate subject and 3
animate obviative object). The hyphen is used only with
combinations of subject and object categories.
In this text, all subject-object combinations belonging
to the inverse set have been explicitly marked.

```
```

As discussed in chapter 2 , section 2 , verbs may be inflected in one of three orders: independent, imperative, or conjunct. All three orders are found in this text; within the conjunct order, there are examples of the simple conjunct indicative, the changed conjunct indicative, future imperative, subjunctive, and iterative. The vast majority of verbs belong either to the independent indicative or to the changed conjunct indicative. All other verb forms have been identified following the subject-object gloss, as in line 14, given as example (i) above, which has a subjunctive verb. All verbs beginning with the preverbs e.(h)-, ke-(h)-, or ke.(h)-, which are set off from the verb with hyphens, belong to the changed conjunct. (When ka.- is attached to stems beginning in $i$, the combination is written k-e.; before o., ka•-appears as k-) All other verbs which do not begin with one of these three preverbs, and which are not otherwise identified, belong to the independent indicative. The appendix to chapter 2 gives full paradigms of the independent indicative and changed conjunct indicative.
Of the preverbs associated with the changed conjunct, ke.- marks future tense, and has been so glossed in the text. The other two preverbs, e-- and ka.-, have a variety of uses, and have not been given interlinear glosses. See chapter 2, section 2, for some discussion of their functions.

```
```

Other grammatical categories indicated in the glosses include future tense and perfective aspect. The perfective preverb ki.- is homophonous with the preverb meaning "be able to'. There are two types of productive reduplication in Cree (Ahenakew and Wolfart 1983), and examples of both are found in the text. Ongoing action is indicat by Ca-, and intermittent action by Ca•h-.
There are two examples of relational verbs in this text, on lines 168 and line 228. This construction sometimes behaves like possessor raising (Munro 1984): often, as in the examples here, the relational verb is inflected for an object agreeing with the possessor of the patient or theme argument.
Grammatical categories for nouns include number, obviation, vocative, locative case, diminutive, and possession.
The dependent locative particles, glossed "loc", form relative clauses with locative heads (i.e., "[the place] where ..."; see line 25 for an example). This construction is discussed in chapter 3 , section 3.

```
"A Brave Boy" [Bloomfield 1934, pp. 90-99]
```

1. ki.tahtawe. ayi.siniyiwak e.h-wi.kicik, 'Once upon a time, as some
presently person pl live 3p people dwelt somewhere,
2. ki.tahtawe. o.mis i.twe.w pe.yak na\cdotpe.w;
presently thus speak 3 one man
3. o.hih owi.ce.wa.kanah, "a.y,"
this.obv his companion obv
ite\cdotw,
say to 3-obv
4. "nawac sipwe\cdothte\cdotta\cdotn,"
better leave lpinc/imperative
b. ite.w,
say to 3-obv
5. "ka-wi.htamo-wacik a.tiht ayi\cdotsiyiniwak; you may tell a few people;
fut tell to 2-3p/simple conj some person pl
B. te.pakohp kik-e\cdothtasina-naw,"
seven fut be so many Ipinc
6. ite.w.
say to 3-obv
7. "a\cdotha?."
yes
8. "ki\cdoth-ni\cdotso-tipiska\cdotkih
perf two be night inan/subjunctive
seven of us shall go,"
he told him.
"Very well."
"Two nights from now
```
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|}
\hline 12. & ka-sipwe-hta•na•naw. fut leave lpinc & we shall set out. \\
\hline 13. & \begin{tabular}{l}
ayahciyiniwak ka-ntonawa•nawak, \\
Blackfoot pl fut seek 1pinc-3p
\end{tabular} & We shall look for Blackfoot, \\
\hline 14. & \begin{tabular}{l}
miskawa-yahkwa-wi \\
find \(1 p\) inc- \(3 p /\) subjunctive
\end{tabular} & to steal their horses when we find them. \\
\hline 15. & \begin{tabular}{l}
ote-miwa-wa ka-kimotamawa-yahk. \\
their horse obv fut steal from 1pinc-3/simplec
\end{tabular} & junct \\
\hline 16. & ```
ma\cdotka wa-pamikoyahkwa-wi,
but see Gp-1pinc/subjunctive [inverse]
``` & And if they catch sight of 45 \\
\hline 17. & \begin{tabular}{l}
wi-h-kakwe.-nipahikoyahkwa•wi, \\
intend try kill 3p-1pinc/subjunctive [inverse]
\end{tabular} & and try to kill us, \\
\hline 18. & kiya-na mi-na ka-kakwe.-nipaha•nawak," we also fut try kill ipinc-3p & we shall try to kill them," \\
\hline 19. & \[
\begin{gathered}
\text { ite.w. } \\
\text { say to } 3-o b v
\end{gathered}
\] & he told him. \\
\hline 20. & \[
\begin{gathered}
\text { "e-ha?." } \\
\text { yes }
\end{gathered}
\] & "Very well." \\
\hline 21. & ta•pwe. e.h-ki•h-ni•so-tipiska•yik truly perf two be night inan.obv & Accordingly, after two nights \\
\hline 22. & sipwe-hte.wak. leave 3p & they set out. \\
\hline 23. & awa peryak na.pe.sis this one boy & A certain young boy, \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|}
\hline 36. & o.mis i.te.yihtam. thus think 3-inan & That was his thought. \\
\hline 37. & \begin{tabular}{l}
ta-pwe. pimitisahwe.w. \\
truly follow 3-obv
\end{tabular} & Accordingly he followed them. \\
\hline 38. & \[
\begin{aligned}
& \text { ite.h e.h-ota-kosiniyik, } \\
& \text { loc be evening inan.obv }
\end{aligned}
\] & At the place they reached toward evening, \\
\hline 39. & \begin{tabular}{l}
e--wi-h-minahoyit, \\
intend kill game obv
\end{tabular} & as they were about to kill game, \\
\hline 40. & wistah e-kote. takohte.w.
he too there arrive 3 & he too arrived. \\
\hline 41. & ```
namoya kiske•yimik o.hta\cdotwiya
    not know obv-3 [inverse] his father obv
``` & His father did not know \\
\hline 42. & \[
\begin{gathered}
\text { e-sipwe-hte.t. } \\
\text { leave }
\end{gathered}
\] & that he had gone off. \\
\hline 43. & \[
\begin{array}{lccc}
\text { e.kwah ooki na•pe•wak ka•h-minahocik, } \\
\text { and these man pl kill game } 3 p
\end{array}
\] & And those men, when they had killed game, \\
\hline 44. & ka.-takohte.yit o.hi na•pe.sisah, arrive obv this.obv boy obv & and the boy arrived, \\
\hline 45. & nisitawe.yime.wak recognize 3p-obv & recognized him \\
\hline 46. & o•hta-wiyiwa e•h-okima-wiyit.
obv's father obv be chief obv & as the chief's son. \\
\hline 47. & \begin{tabular}{cc} 
namoya na-nitaw & wi-h-ite.wak. \\
not & anything intend say to \(3 p-o b v\)
\end{tabular} & They did not care to say anything to him. \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|}
\hline 48. & \[
\begin{aligned}
& \text { e•kos e•h-ki•site•pocik, } \\
& \text { so } \\
& \text { cook }
\end{aligned}
\] & So, when they cooked their meal \\
\hline 49. & \begin{tabular}{l}
e--wi-h-mi-cisocik, \\
intend eat 3p
\end{tabular} & and were about to eat, \\
\hline 50. & miyw-asame.wak o.hi na-pe-sisah. well feed 3p-obv this.abv boy obv & they gave the boy plenty of food. \\
\hline 51. & \begin{tabular}{l}
"ha.w, kitima.ka.yima.tan. \\
take pity on 1 pinc- \(3 / i m p e r a t i v e\)
\end{tabular} & "Well, let us treat him kindly. \\
\hline 52. & kito•kima•minaw okosisah," our (ine) chief his son obv & He is our chief's son," \\
\hline 53. & \[
\begin{aligned}
& \text { itwe wak. } \\
& \text { speak } 3 p
\end{aligned}
\] & they said. \\
\hline 54. & ta.pwe e.kotah nipa-wak. truly there sleep 3p & Then they slept there. \\
\hline 55. & \begin{tabular}{l}
e-h-wa-pahk \\
be dawn inan
\end{tabular} & The next morning \\
\hline 56. & \[
\begin{aligned}
& \text { sipwe•hte•wak. } \\
& \text { leave } \quad 3 p
\end{aligned}
\] & they went on. \\
\hline 57. & \[
\begin{aligned}
& \text { it e.-tipiska•yik } \\
& \text { loc be night inan.obv }
\end{aligned}
\] & Where they were by dark, \\
\hline 58. & kape-siwak. camp 3p & they camped for the night. \\
\hline 59. & mwe.hci nikotwa•sikwa-w e•h-ki•h-nipa•cik, just then six times perf sleep 3 p & When they had slept six times on the way, \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|}
\hline 60. & \[
\begin{array}{ccc}
\text { mo-hkiciwanipe.k itah e•h-aya-yik, } \\
\text { spring } & \text { loc be inan.obv }
\end{array}
\] & near a spring of water \\
\hline 61. & ci.k e.kotah mostoswah aya•yiwa. near there buffalo obv be obv & were some buffalos. \\
\hline 62. & "ha.w, pe•yak ta-nitawi-pa•skiswe•wak. one fut go to shoot 3p-obv & "Now then, let one man go shoot them. \\
\hline 63. & \begin{tabular}{l}
nipaha-cih, \\
kill 3-obv/subjunctive
\end{tabular} & If he kills any, \\
\hline 64. & e.kotah ka-kape-sina-naw, there fut camp lpine & we shall camp there. \\
\hline 65. & \begin{tabular}{l}
kik-o.si•hta•yahk \\
fut make lpinc-inan/simple conjunct
\end{tabular} & and prepare \\
\hline 66. & ```
    ta-ni-ma-yahk,"
fut carry food 1pinc/simple conjunct
``` & provisions for the march," \\
\hline 67. & \[
\begin{gathered}
\text { ite.w. } \\
\text { say to } 3-o b v
\end{gathered}
\] & the leader told them. \\
\hline 68. & ta.pwe. peryak sipwe.hte.w,
truly one leave & Accordingly one set out \\
\hline 69. & e.-wih-kakwe--nipaha.t mostoswah. intend try kill 3-obv buffalo obv & to kill butfalos. \\
\hline 70. & te•pwe nipahe.w peryak. truly kill 3-obv one & He killed one. \\
\hline
\end{tabular}


```

93. oska\cdottihk e\cdoth-iawahoht,
his leg loc be pierced by shot 3
94. e\cdoth-na\cdottwa\cdotpayiyik oska\cdott
break in two inan.obv his leg
95. o.ki ka.-misikiticik na-pe.wak tapasi.wak. The grown men fled.
these bebig 3p man pl flee 3p
96. awa na.pe.sis naki.w,
this boy stop 3
97. e.-kisa.ta.t o.hi ka.-kaska.tahomiht,
stay with 3-obv this.obv be wounded obv
9E. e\cdoth-te\cdotpwe.t,
shout 3
98. "aha., nito.te.mitik,
friend vocativepl
99. wi-htamawa-hke.k no-hta\cdotwiy:
tell to 2p-3/future imperative my father
100. namoya niwi,h-nakata\cdotw awa.
not intend leave 1-3 this
101. kiya.m nistah nika-nipahikawin,"
never mind I too fut be killed 1
102. 
    ite.w,
    say to 3-obv
    104. e\cdoth-te.pwe.t.
shout 3
his leg pierced by a
bullet
and broken.
The boy stopped,
and stayed by the wounded
man,
crying,
"Hey, friends,
tell my father when you
see him:
I shall not leave this
man.
I don't care if I too am
killed,"
he told them,
calling to them.
```
127. o.hi ka.-kaskatahomiht. this.obv be wounded obv
128. "a., nimiske.n find 1-inan
129. itah t-ay-aya.yahk," loc fut redup be \(1 p i n c . / s i m p l e\) conjunct
130. ite.w. say to 3-obv
131. "a•, namoya, na•pe•sis!
no boy
132. ki.we. kiya•m! go home 2/imperative rather
133. ko-hta-wiy okima-wiw; your faliher be chief 3
134. ta-kaske.yihtam. fut be lonesome 3 -inan.
135. konitah ka-kakwa-takihta•n o.tah. just fut be miserable 2 -inan Mere
136. namoya mayaw nik-e.yiniwin niska.t. not soon fut recover 1 my leg
137. ki•we.!"
go home 2/imperative
138. say to 3-obv
the wounded man.
"Come, I have found
a place where we can stay,"
he tols him.
"Oh, no,' my boy!

Do go home!

Your father is chief;
he will grieve.

You will only suffer here.

My leg will not get well so very soon.

Go home!"
he told the boy.
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|}
\hline 139. & "a., namoya! no & "Oh, no! \\
\hline 140. & \[
\begin{aligned}
& \text { iyikohk miyw-aya•yani, } \\
& \text { when well be } 2 / \text { subjunctive }
\end{aligned}
\] & When you are well \\
\hline 141. & ki-we•yini, go home \(2 /\) subjunctive & and go home, \\
\hline 142. & e.koyikohk nika-ki•wa•n. just then fut go home 1 & then I shall go home. \\
\hline 143. & \begin{tabular}{l}
no-nta-wiy iya-cimocih, \\
my father tell story \(3 / i t e r a t i v e\)
\end{tabular} & ```
Whenever my father tells stories,None
``` \\
\hline 144. & 'so-hke.yihta.kosiw awiyak, be thought brave 3 someone & 'One iss counted a brave man, \\
\hline 145. & \begin{tabular}{l}
ka•-nakatisimimiht ke.sa•ta•cih,' \\
be deserted obv stay with 3-obv/iterative
\end{tabular} & if one stays with those who have been left behind.' \\
\hline 146. & e.h-itwe.t ma•na speak 3 always & \\
\hline 147. & \begin{tabular}{l}
nipe-htawa.w; \\
hear 1-3
\end{tabular} & \\
\hline 148. & e-wako ohci k-o--wi-h-kisa-tita•n,"
that.inan from from intend stay with l-e [inv] & That is why I mean to stay with you," \\
\hline 149. & \begin{tabular}{l}
ite.w. \\
say to 3-obv
\end{tabular} & he told him. \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|}
\hline 150. & e-kosi itohte.w awa na-pe.sis o.hi wiya.sah; so go to 3 this boy these meatipl & Thereupon the boy went to where the meat was; \\
\hline 151. & aske.kin otinam,
fresh hide take 3 -inan & he took the hide, \\
\hline 152. & e.kotah e.h-ota.pe.t o.h o.skini.kiwa, there haul 3 this.obv youth obv & and on it dragged the young man \\
\hline 153. & saka.hk e.h-itohtaha.t. woods loc take to 3-obv & to the grove of trees. \\
\hline 154. & om \(\quad\) itah ka-tipinawaryik
this.inan loc te sheltered inan. obv & When he had brought him to the sheltered place, \\
\hline 155. & e--ki.h-pe.siwa.t, perf bring 3-obv & \\
\hline 156. & e.kwah wiya'sah awata•w.
then meat pl carry 3-inan & he fetched the meats. \\
\hline 157. & me-stinam wiya-sah.
take all 3 -inan meat pl & He took all the meat. \\
\hline 158. & e.kwals kotawe.w, then build fire 3 & Then he built a fire \\
\hline 159. & \[
\begin{array}{cc}
\text { e-kwah e.-ki-site.pot } \\
\text { and } & \text { cook }
\end{array}
\] & and cooked, \\
\hline 160. & \[
\begin{aligned}
& \text { ta-mi-cisocik, } \\
& \text { fut eat } 3 p / \text { simple conjunct }
\end{aligned}
\] & that they might eat, \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
161. e.kwah mi-nah nipiy e•h-otinahk wi-na-stakaye.picikanihk, take 3 -inan

```

171. e.kotah e.h-ayazt, where the man stayed,
there be 3
172. e.kwah e-w-osi*hta-t ka-hke.wakwah ana na-pe.w, preparing dried meat,
and make 3-inan dried meat pl that man
173. e-kwah awah na.pe.sis tahkih e.h-asawa.pit. while the boy always kept
and this boy
always
look out 3
a lookout.
174. piyis tipiska.yiw.
finally be night inan.obv
175. e.kotah ay-aya.wak. They stayed there.
176. ki-tahtawe., Presently,
presently
177. aye.na\cdotniw e.y-itanto-tipiska-yik
eight so many times be night inan.obv
when they had been there
eight nights,
178. e.kotah e.h-aya-cik,
there be Эp
179. ka.-wa-pama.t e.h-niya\cdotnaniyit ayi.siyiniwah he saw five men
see 3-obv be five obv person obv
180. e.h-pe.c-a.stamohte\cdotyit.
hither come toward obv
181. e.h-ka-kita-pama-t,
redup watch 3-obv
1日e. a.say ma.ka e.h-ota.kosiniyik,
already but be evening inan.obv
```

194. o.tah kisiwa.k mahiohkan e.h-aya.t, \(\begin{array}{cc}\text { here } & \text { near } \\ \text { bolf } & \text { be }\end{array}\)
195. nika-pa•skiswe.w,"
fut shoot 1-3
196. ite.w.
say to 3-obv
197. e.kwah e.h-miyikot,
then give obv-3 [inverse]
198. e.kwah itohte.w.
then go there 3
199. a.say tipiska.w. already be night inan
```

200. e.kwah e.h-po.namiyit,
then put fuel on fire obv-inan
```
2O1. pi-hca•yink e.h-apiyit
    inside loc sit obv
202. na•ciyostawe.w.
        creep to 3-obv
203. e.kwah e-h-otihta.t,
            then reach 3-obv
204. isi-niya.naniyiwa,
    thus be five obv
205. e•h-na•h-nawaciyit.
            redup roast obv

I want to shoot a wolf that is close by here."

When the other gave it to him,
he went there.

It was dark by this time.

The others had made a fire
and were sitting indoors;
he crept up to them.

When he got near them,
they were five,
a-roasting of meat.
```

206. nawasawa-pamo.w; He took careful aim;
pick out 3
207. ta.nihi e.h-miyohoyit,
which obv dress well obv
208. e.wakoni pa.skiswe.w,
that very one obv shoot 3-obv
209. e.-5a.kowe.t.
whoop 3
210. ni-soyawe.w.
shoot two 3-obv
211. e.h-tapasiyit ni.so,
212. e.h-ta-h-tawikisiniyit
redup bump into something obv
mistikohk,
tree loc
213. osa-m e.-se.kiha.t,
too much frighten 3-obv
214. e.yakonih mi.na pimwe.w;
and gave a whoop.
He hit two of them.
While two fled,
one kept bumping into
things,
so much had he frightened
him;
this one too he shot;
the best clothes,
215. nipahe. mina. he killed him too.
kill 3-obv also
216. e.kosi nistoh nipahe.w. So he had killed three.

* [Bloomfield:] Evidently I here missed the word pe:yak 'one (of them)'.

```
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|}
\hline 217. & ni．s o．ki tapasi•wak． two these flee \(3 p\) & The other two fled． \\
\hline 218. & \[
\begin{gathered}
\text { e•h-kiske•yihtahk } \\
\text { know } 3 \text {-inan }
\end{gathered}
\] & When he saw \\
\hline 219. & \begin{tabular}{l}
e－h－tapasiyit； \\
flee obv
\end{tabular} & that they had fled， \\
\hline 220． & pi－htoke．w， enter 3 & he went inside \\
\hline 2e1． & otayo－winisiyiwa e•h－otinahk， obv＇s clothes take 3－inan & and took their garments， \\
\hline 2е2． & mi．na pa•skisikan pe•yak， also gun one & and a gun， \\
\hline 223． & \[
\begin{aligned}
& \text { pe•yak acosisah, } \\
& \text { one arrow pl }
\end{aligned}
\] & a set of arrows， \\
\hline 224. & \begin{tabular}{l}
pe•yak ci．kahikani－pakama．kan， one \\
axe \\
club
\end{tabular} & a tomahawk， \\
\hline 225. & e．kwah peryak ca•pi－hcicikanis， and one lance & and a lance， \\
\hline 226. & mo－hkoma－nah ne．wo， knife pl four & and four knives， \\
\hline 227. & mi－na ostikwa•niyihk o．tah also obv＇s head loc here & and he cut off this， \\
\hline 22日． & o－ma e•h－manisamwa•t．
this \(\quad\) cutelational］3－obv & on their heads here． \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

he told him;
"I suppose you heard
"That was when I shot
two of them.
I suppose because the was
frightened,
bumped into things,
and I shot him too;
I killed him.
That makes three."
"Really, young man,
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|}
\hline 240. & ```
    ite.w.
say to 3-obv
``` \\
\hline 241. & "kipe.hte.n e.toke. hear 2-inan I guess \\
\hline 242. & e.h-matwe.we.k." be sound of gunfire inan \\
\hline 243. & \[
\begin{gathered}
\text { "e.ha?." } \\
\text { yes }
\end{gathered}
\] \\
\hline 244. & "e.kotah nini-soyawa-wak. there shoot two 1-3p \\
\hline 245. & \[
\begin{aligned}
& \text { e.kwah pe.yak } \\
& \text { and one }
\end{aligned}
\] \\
\hline 246. & osa.m e.toke. e.-se.kisit, too much I guess be frightened 3 \\
\hline 247. & e.h-ta.h-tawikisihk, redup bump into something 3 \\
\hline 248. & \begin{tabular}{l}
mi•n e.wako nipinwa•w; \\
also that very one shoot \(1-3\)
\end{tabular} \\
\hline 249. & ninipaha-w.
\[
\text { kill } 1-3
\] \\
\hline 250. & \[
\begin{array}{cl}
\text { e.kosi nistoh." } \\
\text { so } & \text { three }
\end{array}
\] \\
\hline 251. & "ta.pwe., we.skini-kiyin, really young man vocative \\
\hline
\end{tabular} really young man vocative
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|}
\hline 252. & \[
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { namoya kikosta•wak!" } \\
\text { not } & \text { fear } 2-3 p
\end{array}
\] \\
\hline 253. & ```
    itik.
say to obv-3 [inverse]
``` \\
\hline 254. & miyweryihtam awa na•pe•w. be glad 3 -inan this man \\
\hline 255. & piyis e.kotah ay-aya.wak. finally there redup be 3 p \\
\hline 256. & namoya e.s o.ma wa-hyaw e.h-wi-kiyit. not apparently this.inan far dwell obv \\
\hline 257. & o.ki ka-tapasi.cik ayahciyiniwak
these flee \(3 p\) Blackfoot pl \\
\hline 258. & \(\begin{array}{rc}\text { takosinwak } & \text { wi-kiwa•hk; } \\ \text { arrive } 3 p & \text { their house loc }\end{array}\) \\
\hline 259. & \[
\begin{aligned}
& \text { a.cimowak } \\
& \text { tell story 3p }
\end{aligned}
\] \\
\hline 260. & e•h-nipahiheik, be killed 3p \\
\hline 261. & \begin{tabular}{ccc} 
wiyawa-w piko e-h-pima-tisicik. \\
they only & be alive \(3 p\)
\end{tabular} \\
\hline 262. & e.-ki•h-ne-wo-tipska•yik, perf four be night inan.obv \\
\hline 263. & ki-tahtawe. ka.-pe-tisa•pama.t presently see come 3-obv \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
you do not seem to be
afraid of them!"
the other said to him.
The man was glad.
Then they stayed there.
Now, it seems that those
others had their camp not
far from there.
Those Blackfoot who had
fled
arrived at their camp;
they told
now their comrades had
been slain,
and that only they were
alive.
After four nights, there,
the boy saw the Blackfoot
coming,
the boy saw the Blackfoot coming,
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|}
\hline 264. & e•h-pa•piciyit ayahciyiniwah.
come travelling obv Blackfoot obv & moving up their camp. \\
\hline 265. & e.kwah e.kotah ohci ka-kita.pame.w,
and there from redup watch 3-obv & From where he was, he watched them, \\
\hline 266. & \begin{tabular}{ccc} 
kisiwa•k e.kotah ka•-pe•-kape.siyit, \\
near & there & hither camp obv
\end{tabular} & as they came to pitch camp close by, \\
\hline 267. & e-h-mihce:tiyit. be many obv & a great number of them. \\
\hline 268. & e.kwah pe--na•tima-wa and hither be fetched obv & And those whom he had killed were fetched \\
\hline 269. & \(\begin{array}{lr}\text { o-hi ka--ki•h-nipaha•t, } \\ \text { this.obv } & \text { perf kill 3-obv }\end{array}\) & \\
\hline 270. & e•h-ki we•htayimiht. be taken home obv & and taken back. \\
\hline 271. & ka-kita•pame•w. redup watch 3-abv & He continued to watch them. \\
\hline 272. & \begin{tabular}{l}
piyisk t-ati-tipiska•yiw. \\
finally fut become night inan.obv
\end{tabular} & At last darkness came on. \\
\hline 273. & iyikohk mistah e-h-tipiska-yik, when greatly be night inan.obv & When it was quite dark, \\
\hline 274 & \begin{tabular}{l}
itohte.w owi-ce.wa.kanah. \\
go to 3 his companion obv
\end{tabular} & he went to where his companion was. \\
\hline 275. & \begin{tabular}{l}
"mahtih e.ka-ya pa-h-po-nah. \\
let not redup put fuel on fire
\end{tabular} & "You had better not light any fire. \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
I see something;
but I do not know what it
is.
I think I shall try to go
hear what it is,"
he told him.
With that he went off
again,
and went to the camp.
They had not tied up the
horses;
he took ten horses,
stealing them from the
Blackfoot.
He came back to his
companion.
"Now then, comrade,
what shall we do?
0
0
0
3
3
20
\(\frac{10}{10}\)
+10
\(\frac{1}{3}\)
ke.kway niwa-parte.n; something see 1-inan
\begin{tabular}{l} 
ma.ka namoya nikiske•yihte•n ke.kway. \\
but not \\
know l-inan \\
what
\end{tabular}
\begin{tabular}{c} 
mahtih nika-kakwe•-nisitawihte•n," \\
let fut try hear \& recognize l-inan \\
ite.w. \\
say to 3-obv
\end{tabular}
namoya e-saka•hpita•yit misatimwah; not tether obv-obv horse obv

\footnotetext{
misatimwa otine \(w\),
horse obv take 3 -obv
ten horse obv
}
e-h-kimotamawa•t iyahciyiniwah. steal from 3-obv Blackfoot obv
otihte.w owi-ce-wa-kanah.
reach 3-obv his companion obv
how fut do 1 pinc-inan
276.
277.
278.
279.
280.
281.
282.
293.
284.
285.
\[
\begin{gathered}
\text { e.kosi min e.h-sipwe•hte•t, } \\
\text { so leave } 3
\end{gathered}
\]
\[
\begin{array}{rrr}
-k i w a \cdot h p i h k & e \cdot h-i t o h t e \cdot t . \\
\text { tent } & \text { loc } & \text { go to } 3
\end{array}
\]
mi-kiwa.hpihk e.h-itohte.t.
"ha.w, niwi-ce.wa.kan,
my companion
kerotamat?

It seems that Blackfoot
298. iyahciyiniwak e.s apparently indeed
Blackfoot pl api
289. kisiwa-k kape•siwak;
near camp \(3 p\)
"iuey.em.aコ.ṭṬu \([=\) make glad \(2-1]\)
\[
\begin{aligned}
& \text { 291. "hay hay!" } \\
& \text { 292. itwe.yiwa; }
\end{aligned}
\]
293.
\[
10
\]
\[
\begin{array}{cc}
\text { "ta-pwe. kitatamihin, } \\
\text { trulv } & \text { thank vou }
\end{array}
\]
truly my companion fut go home 1 pine
 fut flee ipinc

"namoya ka-ki•h-pimitisahokonawak namoya mihce.t misatimwak,"
said he;
"truly, you delight me, comrade!"

\section*{"We shall go home,}
making our escape,"
he said to him;
"They will not be able to
the horses are not many,"  
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline 299. & \multicolumn{4}{|l|}{e.h-ita.t. say to 3-obv} & \multicolumn{3}{|r|}{he told him.} \\
\hline 300. & \begin{tabular}{l}
ta.pwe. \\
truly
\end{tabular} & pe-yak one & \begin{tabular}{l}
pe*-t \\
hither
\end{tabular} & takohtahe•w bring 3-obv & wi-kiwa-hk their house & \[
100
\] & Accordingly he brought one of the horses to their hut, \\
\hline 301. & e.kwah and & e•h-way craw & \begin{tabular}{l}
awi •ta \\
l outsi
\end{tabular} & cimoyit owi ide obv his & ce.wa kanah companion ob & & dragged out his companion \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

 your leg this.inan fut be careful of 2 -inan/simple conj leg,"
310. ite.w. \(\begin{aligned} & \text { say to 3-obv }\end{aligned}\)
he told him.
The young man was very
glad,
and rode away,
misatimwah.
horse obv
while tha boy drove on
the horsips.
They rode all night.
When day came
and the young man saw
the horses,
"Really, they are fine
ones!"
he thought.
They fled all day,
and again all night.
For two nights they did
not sleep.
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline 311. & mistahi greatly & miyweryihtam be glad 3-inan & aw this & o.skini youth & kiw, \\
\hline 312. & \[
\begin{aligned}
& \text { e.kwah } \\
& \text { and }
\end{aligned}
\] & e.-sipwe.-te•htap leave ride & it, & & \\
\hline 313. & \begin{tabular}{l}
e•-pe•- \\
hither
\end{tabular} & i•hkitisahwa-yit rive ahead obv-ob & & \[
\begin{gathered}
0 . h i \\
\text { this.obv }
\end{gathered}
\] &  \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|}
\hline 333. & o.hin ka-ki-h-nakatisimikocik this.obv perf desert obv-3p [inverse] & in accordance with the story of those who had abandoned them. \\
\hline 334. & \begin{tabular}{l}
e.h-ita.cimowit. \\
tell story thus obv
\end{tabular} & \\
\hline 335. & tahkih ma•to-yiwa o.hta-wiya awa na•pe.sis always ery obv his father obv this boy & The boy's father, the chief, wept incessantly. \\
\hline 336. & k-o.kima-wiyit ohta-wiya. be chief obv his father obv & \\
\hline 337. & e.kwah wiyawa.w e.-kisi-wiyanihta.ke•cik, then they finish skin \& cut up game ヨp & But, as for them, when they had cleaned their game, \\
\hline 338. & e.kwah e.h-ki.site-pocik, and cook 3p & and cookwd their meal, \\
\hline 339. & e•h-paminawasocik, cook 3p & \\
\hline 340. & e.yikohk e.h-ki-si-mi-cisocik,
when finish eat \(3 p\) & and eater, \\
\hline 341. & mi-na sipwe.hte-wak. also leave 3p & they went on. \\
\hline 342. & \begin{tabular}{cc} 
ni.swa.w e•h-nipa.cik, \\
twice & sleep• \(3 p\)
\end{tabular} & After two nights on the way, \\
\hline 343. & \begin{tabular}{lr} 
ki-tahtawe & ka-wa•pahtahkik \\
presently & see \(3 p-i n a n\) their house pl
\end{tabular} & presently they came in sight of their camp. \\
\hline 344. & miywe.yihtam awa ka.-kih-kaskatahoht. be glad 3 -inan this perf be wounded 3 & The one who had been wounded was glad. \\
\hline
\end{tabular}


\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|}
\hline 366. & awaw ohei na•pe.sis
this from boy & \\
\hline 367. & osa.m e.-so.hke.yimiht, because be thought brave 3 & thinking that boy very brave, \\
\hline 368. & \begin{tabular}{l}
"ta•pwe. na•pe•hka•so•w!" \\
truly be a brave 3
\end{tabular} & thinking of him, "Truly he is a brave warrior!" \\
\hline 369. & e•y-ite.yimiht, be thought of thus 3 & \\
\hline 370. & o.hi mi.na na.pe.wa e.h-kaskatahomiht this.obv also man obv be wounded obv & especially because he had refused to abandon the wounded man, \\
\hline 371. & e.ka. ka.-wi-h-nakata.t, not intend leave 3-obv & \\
\hline 372. & \(\begin{array}{lcccc}\text { osa.m namoya ce.gkwa mitoni e.h-oskini-kit. } \\ \text { because not } & \text { yet really } & \text { be youth } 3\end{array}\) & even though he was not yet full-grown. \\
\hline 373. & e.yakw a•nima ohci k-o•h-miywe.yihtahkik that.inan that.inan.from from be glad 3p-inan & \begin{tabular}{l}
ayi.siyiniwak. \\
person pl
\end{tabular} \\
\hline & & That was why those people were glad. \\
\hline 374. & e.koyikohk e.skwa.k a.cimowin. that far go so far inan/changed conj story & This is where the story ends. \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

\section*{Chapter 5 \\ Lexical processes}

This chapter examines the syntactic role of the lexicon in Cree, including subcategorization requirements, the syntactic role of inflection, and lexical processes which increase or decrease valence. The framework of Lexical-Functional Grammar has been chosen as an appropriate means to describe the effects of these processes. (For background on LFG see the papers in Bresnan 1982b; also Sells 1985, Simpson 1983, and Ishikawa 1985.) As mentioned in chapter 1, Cree is a non-configurational language, and the description of its syntax cannot be dependent on constituent structure relations. LFG represents grammatical relations at a level of functional structure, distinct from constituent structure. Syntactic operations take place within the lexicon; for Cree, this assumption is consistent with the many derivational processes that have syntactic consequences.

The discussion in the first section illustrating some principles of LFG is highly informal, and very incomplete. The use of technical notation has been kept to a minimum. [1] The second section suggests an extension of some LFG concepts to the representation of inflectional morphology. The last section is a brief survey of word formation processes which affect grammatical relations.
1. Overview of Lexical-Functional Grammar
```

    Lexical-Functional Grammar represents grammatical
    relations at a level of functional structure (f-structure),
distinct from constituent structure (c-structure). Only a
single level of c-structure is assumed to exist, and only a
single level of f-structure. That is, there are no
transformations deriving constituent structure from an
underlying level of deep structure, as in Government and
Binding theory (Chomsky 1981), nor is there a distinction
between "initial subject" and "final subject" as there is in
Relational Grammar (Perlmutter 1982). Syntactic rules which
alter grammatical relations instead take place in the
lexicon.
The information contained in the functional structure of a given sentence is contributed by the lexical entries of the words and morphemes occurring in the sentence. The organization of functional structure and of the lexicon is assumed tu te similar across languages. where languages differ is in the mapping of information from the lexical entries to particular grammatical funciions. Languages in which subject is identified by word order relations, or by its relationship to a UP node, are configurational languages; English is an example of such a language. In the LFG analysis of configurational languages, the phrase structure rules which generate constituent structure also annotate particular positions as containing specific grammatical functions.

```
```

In non-configurational languages, however, there is no position in the constituent structure that can be identified as subject position or object position. Instead, non-configurational languages typically encode grammatical relations morphologically, by case marking on nouns, or by inflection on verbs.
In Cree, grammatical relations are encoded by the verb inflection, combined with the system of obviation which distinguishes third person arguments. An example of a functional structure for a Cree sentence will be given here to illustrate the mechanisms of the LFG framework.
The example will be one of the sentences given in chapter 1 to illustrate varieties of word order:
(1)
e-kosi na-te.w awa iskwe.w o.hi kaskite.wastimwa. so fetch 3-obv this woman this.obv black horse obv
"So then the woman went and got that black horse."
The initial adverb e-kosi will not be represented in this example, as it does not enter into the encoding of grammatical relations. The grammatical information contained in (1) may be represented at functional structure as follows:

```
(2)
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|}
\hline SUBJ &  & 'woman' \({ }^{3}\) \\
\hline OBJ & PRED
PERS
GEND
CEV
DEF & \(\left.\begin{array}{l}\text { 'black horse' } \\ 3 \\ \text { anim } \\ + \\ +\end{array}\right]\) \\
\hline PRED ORDER & 'fetch indep & UBJ OBJ>' \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

\begin{abstract}
The functional structure represents the glosses of the nouns and the verb as "PRED" values, or the semantic value associated with that lexical item. The PRED value of the sentence is the verb, including its subcategorization requirements. The semantic value of the nouns is listed as the PRED value for the subject and object. The array of features associated with subjeci and object constitutes a sub-f-structure, embedded within the fi-structure of the entire clause. Each f-structure or sub-f-structure must contain a PRED value for the grammatical features to be associated with. In (1) kaskite-wastimwa "black horse’ is a compound noun, so 'black' is indicated here as part of the PRED value, and not as a separate modifier.

Within the sub-f-structures associated with subject and object the grammatical features relevant to Cree are listed. The inflectional system of Cree marks person, number, gender, and obviation: all these features are listed in the
\end{abstract}
```

f-structure above. The subject is third person, animate,
singular, and proximate, while the object is thira person,
animate, and obviative. Obviative animate third persons are
not specified for number, so no entry for singular or plural
is given for the object.
The subject and object also have been specified as
definite in (2), reflecting the use of the demonstrative
pronouns awa and o-hi in (1). The information that the verb
is inflected in the independent order is listed at the
highest level of f-structure, along with the PRED value of
the verb. This listing is parallel to the representation of
tense in the functional structures given for English
sentences. It is necessary to represent information about
order in the f-structure: for instance, the form of
negative particles varies according to the order of the verb
in the clause. The negative particle used with independent
order verbs is nama (or namo-ya), and that used with
conjunct and imperative order verbs is e.ka. (or e.ka-wiya).
By representing the order of the verb in functional
structure, the selection of the proper form of the negative
particle can be handled as agreement.
The information contained in (2) is contributed by the
lexical entries of the words occurring in (1). These
lexical entries are given below.
(3) iskwe.w, N
PRED = 'woman'
PERS = 3
GEND = anim
NUM = Sg
OBV = -

```
(4) kaskite-wastimwa, \(N\)

PRED \(=\) 'black horse'
PERS \(=3\)
GEND \(=\) anim
OBV \(=+\)
(5) awa, Det

DEF \(=+\)
OBV \(=\) -
(6) o.hi, Det

DEF \(=+\)
ORV \(=\div\)
The verb contributes two types of information. The verb stem is associated with the PRED value, including the subcategorization recuirements of the verb, and it additionally specifies the gender of one of its arguments. na.te.w is a Transitive Animate verb (chapter 2 , section 2 ), and consequently the lexical entry contains the information that the gender of the object must be animate.
```

na-t-,* stem
PRED = 'fetch <agent goal>'
SUBJ OBJ
OBJ GEND = anim

```
The lexical entry specifies the thematic roles of the
arguments of the verb, and links the arguments to
grammatical functions.

The verb also carries information about the person, number, gender, and obviation value of its arguments. This information is associated with the inflectional morphemes. For the purposes of the discussion in this section, the inflectional morphemes will be taken as a single unit, associated with a bundle of features. The possibility of breaking down the morphemes into components is discussed in the following section.
(8)
\begin{tabular}{rl}
-e•w \\
SUBJ PERS & \(=3\) \\
SUBT GEND & \(=3 n i m\) \\
SUBJ NUM & \(=59\) \\
SUBJ OBU & \(=-\) \\
OBJ PERS & \(=3\) \\
OBJ GEND & \(=\) anim \\
OBJ OBU & \(=+\) \\
ORDER & \(=\) independent
\end{tabular}

The highly specified nature of the lexical entries, especially that of the verb inflection, is consistent with the lack of specification of constituent structure positions as encoding grammatical functions. In LFG, non-configurational languages are described as having the most general rule possible associating elements in constituent structure with grammatical functions: that is, "Assign GF freely", where GF stands for any grammatical function found in the language. (See Simpson 1983, for the operation of this rule in warlpiri.) The grammatical information contained in the lexical entries, plus general conditions in the grammar, work together to rule out ungrammatical associations of grammatical functions to constituent structure positions. Kaplan and Bresnan 1982 gives a thorough account of these well formedness conditions on functional structure. They will be illustrated informally here.

For example, if awa iskwe-w had been assigned the grammatical function object in (1), and o-hi kaskite-wastimwa were assigned subject, there would be a mismatch of features betweer, those associated with the verb, and those provided by the noun. This is seen in the
ill-formed functional structure below.
(9)
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|}
\hline SUBJ &  & 'black
3
sg
anim
+
+
- \\
\hline OBJ & \(\left[\begin{array}{l}\text { PRED } \\ \text { PERS } \\ \text { GEND } \\ \text { DEF } \\ \text { OBV } \\ \text { OBV }\end{array}\right.\) & \(\left.\begin{array}{c}\text { 'woman' } \\ 3 \\ \text { anim } \\ + \\ - \\ +\end{array}\right]\) \\
\hline \begin{tabular}{l}
PRED \\
GRDER
\end{tabular} & 'fetch indep & UBJ OB ent \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

The result of assigning the grammatical function subject to o-hi kaskite-wastimwe and object to awa iskwe-w is represented above. The PRED values and gremmatical information of each NP is listed as subject or object. The verb inriection, however, also contributes features to the sub-f-structures associated with subject and object, and the inflection specifies a proximate subject and an obviative object. These features clash with the features contributed by the nouns, resulting in two values for obviation for both subject and object. The functional structure above is ruled out by a condition requiring f-structures to be consistent: mismatches of features like those seen above are not allowed.

Another constraint on possible annotations of constituent strutture produced by "Assign GF freely" relies
```

on the subcategorization requirements of the verb. If the NPs in $\{1\rangle$ had teen assigned the grammatical functions of say, second object and oblique, rather than subject and object, this too would produce an ill-formed functional structure:
(10)

| OBJ2 | $\left[\begin{array}{l}\text { PRED } \\ \text { PERS } \\ \text { NUM } \\ \text { GEND } \\ \text { QBV } \\ \text { DEF }\end{array}\right.$ | 'woman' ${ }^{3} \mathrm{C}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| OBL | $\left[\begin{array}{l}\text { PRED } \\ \text { PERS } \\ \text { GEND } \\ \text { OBV } \\ \text { DEF }\end{array}\right.$ | 'black horse' 3 anim + + |
| PRED ORDER | 'fetch indep | $\begin{aligned} & \text { suBJ QBJ>' } \\ & \text { lent } \end{aligned}$ |

The grammatical information associated with awa iskwe.w is found linked to the grammatical function of second object in this functional structure, while that of o-hi kaskite.wastimwa is linked to an oblique function. This is an impossible interpretation of (1), of course, and this functional structure may be ruled out by a condition of coherence applying to f-structures. That is, if a verb is not subcàegorized for a particular grammatical function, thet GF may not appear in the functional structure. [2]
Another condition on well formed functional structures is that of completeness: every grammatical function subcategorized for by the verb must be satisfied at

```
functional structure. In Cree, the subcategorization requirements of subjeci and object may be satisfied either by lexical NPs, as in (1), or pronominally. In the absence of lexical subjects and objects, the inflection on the verb functions pronominally. Some types of oblique arguments, on the other hand, can only be satisfied by a lexical NP occurring with the vert. For example, the compound verb stem ohci-nipah- "kill with" requires a subject, object, and oblique argument. If the verb occurs alone, the subject and object requirements are satisfied by the inflection on the verb, but the requirement of an oblique argument is not met. The resulting functional structure thus violates the condition on completeness. (11)


The verb is subcategorized for a subject, an object, and an oblique, but only the subject and object requirements are satisfied. Since the oblique requirement is not satisfied, the f-structure is incomplete.
```

In the above f-structure, the entry 'pro' as the PRED value of subject and object indicates that these arguments have a pronominal interpretation: they are available for deictic or anaphoric reference.
The final condition on well formed f-structures is one of PRED uniqueness: a single grammatical function cannot be associated with more than one PRED value. This condition plays a role in the interpretation of the verb inflection as pronominal if there is no lexical subject, or lexical object. This is the unmarked strategy for expressing pronominal reference in Cree: independent pronouns are used contrastively.
Languages such as Cree, in which verb inflection functions as agreement if a lexical argument is used with the verb, and as an incorforated pronominal element when lexical arguments are omitted, are said to include an optional equation of $\operatorname{PRED}=$ 'pro' in the lexical entry of the inflectional material. The option of having the PRED of the subject or object be 'pro'is constrained by the requirements that every f-structure (including the sub-f-structures) contain one, and no more than one, PRED value. If the option of PRED $=$ "pro" in the inflection for subject is chosen, and the verb occurs in a context where a lexical NP also provides a PRED value for subject, the f-structure is ruled out by the PRED uniqueness condition. If, on the other hand, the subject inflection does not include the PRED value of 'pro', and no lexical subject

```
```

appears with the verb, then the f-structure is ill-formed
because there is no PRED value for the subject. Optional
PRED = 'pro', plus the PRED uniqueness condition, is thus a
mechanism for expressing the role of inflection as
agreement, when lexical NPs are present, and as incorporated
pronominal elements, when lexical NPs are not used. See
Bresnan and Mchombo 1985 for further discussion of the
issues involved.
In summary, the syntactic interpretation of elements
within a clause is determined by the grammatical information
associated with the verb. This information is of two types:
the grammatical functions subcategorized for by the verb,
which must be satisfied either pronominally or by iexical
NPs; second; the grammatical features expressed in the verb
inflection, which serve to link a lexical NP to the proper
gremmatical function.

```
2. A model of inflection

The representation of grammatical information at functional structure is able to bring togetiner elements which may be separated at constituent structure. For example, the quantifiers which occur as the left branch of a \(V\) ' constituent (chapter 3 , section 3 ), apart from the noun they are understood as modifying, may be represented in f-structure together with the PRED value of that noun. Likewise the features of the determiner o-ma "this" in the following sentence from Ahenakew 1984 (p. 189) can be
```

associated at f-structure with the PRED value and other
features of the inanimate noun masinahikan 'book'.
(12) O-ma ci- aya-w masinahikan kimis
this.inan Q have 3-inan book your o.sister
"Does your older sister have this book?'
The same mechanisms which apply to constituent
structure to construct and constrain f-structure may be
appiied within word structure as well. Cree has not only
discontinuous syntactic constituents, but also discontinuous
morphemes, as described in chapter 2. For instance, first
person plural exclusive is expressed in the independent
order by the prefix ni- and the suffix -na\cdotn. The component
affixes can each be given a lexical entry, and associated
with a grammatical feature.
(13) ni-
PERS = 1
-na\cdotn
NUM = pl
PERS =c 1
In the lexical entry for -na-n, the notation PERS =c 1
is a constraint equation: it does not itself contribute the
feature of first person, but requires that this feature be
present in functional structure. This LFG device ensures
that -na\cdotn is used to mark plural orily of first person, not
of second or third person.
As seen in chapter 2, the affixes marking person and
number features are not specified for subject and object.
Instead, special suffixes called theme signs are used with
transitive verbs to indicate which argument is subject and

```
which object.
(14) ni-wi-cih-a.-na.n-ak 'we help them' 1 help dir (1)p (3)p
(15) ni-wi-cih-iko-na-n-ak 'they help us' 1 help inv (1)p (3)p

For this example, the following lexical entries can be combined to produce the correct grammatical information associated with the verb.
(16) ni-

PERS = 1
OBJ PERS \(=3\)
-na•n -iko-
NUM \(=p 1\)
PERS =c 1
SUBJ PERS \(=3\)
wi-cih-
-ak
NUM \(=p 1\)
PERS =c 3
PRED \(=\) 'help <agent ben> SUBJ OBJ
OBJ GEND \(=\) anim
The grammatical information may be combined using the same mechanisms which are need for constituent structure. The grammatical features listed in the lexical entries of ni-, -na.n, and -ak may be associated with subject or object by letting the annotation rule of "Assign GF freely" apply to positions within the inflectional template of the verb. [3]

The theme sign, \(-a=-\) or -iko, is already specified as providing information about a particular grammatical function. This constrains the interpretation of the other morphemes. That is, in niwi-ciha-na-nak, the theme sign -a.- indicates that the object is third person. Since the object is known to be third person, the first person affixes must be contributing information about the subject. If the first person argument were interpreted as the object, the
```

resulting clash of features would rule out this f-structure.
The model of inflection suggested above is appealing in
a numier of ways: it extends mechanisms needed for the
interpretation of constituent structure, to perform the
interpretation of word structure as well.
In some respects, the organization of verb inflection
in Cree is similar to its non-configurational syntax.
Though of course the inflectional morphemes cannot be freely
reordered, the similarity may be seen in the absence of
positions dedicated to subject or to object, and in the fact
that the person/number morphemes are not specified for
either subject or object. At the clause level, it is the
information associated with the verb which imposes an
interpretation of lexical NPs as subject or object. In this
model of word structure, the theme sign plays a similar
role: it imposes a particular interpretation of the other
affixes marking features of subject and object.
By the addition of more features, this model can be
extended to account for a large part of the inflectional
system of Cree. There are some points, however, where the
model is inadequate. It cannot express paradigmatic
relationships holding between members of a single position
class.
As a simple example, if ni= is associated with PERS =
1, and ki~ with PERS = 2, the model fails to predict that
only ki appears in the prefix position when a verb has two
non-third person arguments.

```
(17) kiwi-cihitina-wa-w "I help you pl., kiwi-cihine-we.t "you pl help me"

This model does not block ni- from appearing with the verb. This problem is only one of several involving paradigmatic relations among effixes. Resolution of the problems is beyond the scope of this discussion, however. In the remaining sections of this chapter, the grammatical information contributed by inflection will be represented at f-structure without attempting to break it down into component morphemes.
3. Lexical processes

The remainder of this chapter presents a brief survey of the grammatical functions subcategorized for by Cree verbs, and looks at some word formation processes that alter these grammatical relations. The section begins by presenting some terminology for discussing derivational morphemes.

Descriptions of Algonquian languages recognize three classes of derivational morphemes: initial, medial, and final. These labels refer to morphotactic position only: the root morpheme of a verb may be either an initial or a final. Almost all verb stems may be analyzed as having an initial and at least one final. Medials tend to be incorporated classificatory or nominal elements. For example:
(18) e--mihce-tastimwe-t
'he has many dogs"
In the above example the initial is mihce-t- 'many', the medial is -astimw- 'dog; horse', and the final is -e.-, used with incorporated elements. \(-t\) is the inflectional ending for third person singular in the conjunct order.

Finals are associated with particular stem classes: either Transitive Animate, Transitive Inanimate, Animate Intransitive, or Inanimate Intransitive (chapter 2, section 2). The final of the above example, for instance, is an Animate Intransitive final. Paired verb stems display the same initial, but take different Finals:
(19) mi-hkosiw "he is red" mi-hkwa-w "it is red"

Here, the initial is mi-hkw- 'red', the Animate Intransitive final is -isi-, and the Inanimate Intransitive final is -a.-
```

    Many relation-changing syntactic rules are associated
    with the suffixation of finals to the verb stem. Finals may
be added recursively to verb stems. In the following
example, the Transitive Animate stem sa.kih- "love" is
followed by four additional finals:
(20) sa-kihisosihka-soskiw
'he's in the habit of pretending to love himself
a little bit'

```


The finals added to sa-kih- are -iso- reflexive, -isi- diminutive, -hka.so- "pretend to', and -iski- habitual. -w is the independent order third person singular inflectional ending.

An example of a final which alters grammatical
relations is the reflexive, -iso-. It attaches to Transitive Animate stems, producing a derived Animate Intransitive stem. This may be seen in the lexical entries below.
(21)
```

            pa-hpih-, V stem
            PRED = 'laugh at <agent goal>'
                            SUBJ OBJ
            OBJ GEND = anim
            pa-hpihiso-, V stem
            PRED = 'laugh at self <agent goal>'
                                    SUBJ क
            SUBJ GEND = anim
    ```
                    Adding -iso- to the Transitive Animate stem
pa-npih- decreases the valence of the verb. The goal
argument that was formerly linked to the grammatical
function object is now linked to no grammatical function at
all, expressed by the null sign. The reflexivity of the
action expressed by pa.hpihiso- is indicated by the arrow
```

linking the goal argument to the subject. In contrast, the
final -iwe.- also has the effect of detransitivizing a
Transitive Animate verb stem, but does not have any reading
of reflexive action.
(22)
pa-hpihiwe.-, V stem
PRED = 'laugh at people <agent goal>"
SUBJ ф
SUBJ GEND = anim
-iwe.- attaches to Transitive Animate stems to indicate
general action with the object not specified. Like the
reflexive, it links the former object to no grammatical
function at all, but there is no arrow indicating
coreference with the subject in the lexical entry for
pa-hpihiwe.-.
A final that increases valence is -amaw-. It is added
to Transitive Inanimate stems, resulting in a ditransitive
Transitive Animate stem. The thematic role of the added
argument may be goal, source, or beneficiary, among others.
An example of gamaw- adding a beneficiary argument is given
below.
(23)
osi-ht-, V stem
PRED = 'make <agent theme>'
SUBJ OBJ
OBJ GEND = inan
(24)
osi-htamaw-, V stem
PRED = "make for <agent ben theme>"
SUBJ OBJ OBJ2
OBJ GEND = anim
In osi-htamaw- 'make for', the former object becomes a
second object, while the beneficiary is the first object.

```
```

The difference between first objects and second objects is
that first objects are inflected for on verbs, while second
objects are not. The gender of the first object also
determines the shape of the stem, whether Transitive fnimate
or Transitive Inanimate. Second objects have no effect on
the stem form. Even though second objects are not inflected
for on the verb, they receive a pronominal interpretation if
no lexical NP is present.
Some verbs are subcategorized for a subject and a
second object, but no first object. Examples are
kimoti= 'steal', and kiskisi- 'remember'. A lexical entry
for kimoti- is given below.
(25)
kimoti-, V stem
PRED = 'steal <agent theme>"
SUBJ OBJE
SUBJ GEND = anim
The second object of kimoti- may be either animate or
inanimate:
(26) kimotiw se.hke.payi-sa 'he stole a car'
steal 3 car obv (anim)
kimotiw mo.hkoma-n 'he stole a knife'
steal 3 knife (inan)
Verbs which do not take first objects are inflected as
intransitives, and the lexical entry for kimoti= thus
includes the information that the subject's gender is
animate.
If a detransitivizing final is added to a ditransitive,
the resulting stem is subcategorized for a subject and a
second object. An example is given below.

```
(27)
osi-htama-so-, \(V\) stem \(P R E D=\) 'make for self <agent ben theme>" SURJ か OBJ2 SUBJ GEND \(=\) anim

The effect of adding the reflexive final is to remove the first object from the subcategorization frame of osi-htamaw- "make for'. The argument that was formerly linked to the object is now understood as coreferent to the subject. The theme argument remains a second object, and displays the characteristics of a second object: it is not inflected for on the verb, and the verb stem is not specialized for taking second objects of a particular gender.

Adding the ditransitive suffix -amaw- to kimoti- has the effect of adding a first object, while the thematic role of the second object stays the same.
(28)
kimotamaw-, \(V\) siem
PRED \(=\) 'steal from <agent source theme>'
OBJ GEND \(=\) anim
Verbs may also be subcategorized for oblique arguments. wi.ki- "dwell" is an example of a verb which takes a subject and an oblique expressing location. Dbiique arguments may be added to the subcategorization frames of verbs as well. This is a word formation process that adds material to the left of the verb stem, rather than suffixing a final. For example, the preverb chci expresses source or instrument. It may be compounded with the verb stem nipah- 'kill':
(29)
```

        nipali-, V stem
        PRED = 'kill <agent patient>'
                                SUBJ OBJ
    OBJ GEND = anim
    ```
(30)
ohci-nipah-, \(V\) stem
PRED \(=\) 'kill with <agent patient instrument>" SUBJ OBJ OBL
OBJ GEND = anim
Adding the preverb ohci does not alter the verb's existing subcategorization requirements of a subject and an object, nor does it affect the requirement that the gender of the verb be animate. What it does is increase the valence of the verb, making it a three-place predicate.

Although the compound of ohci-nipah- consists of two phonological words, the compound itself is a single lexical item. This may be seen in the following example, where the preverb e-- of the changed conjunct precedes the compound:
(31) mo-hkoma-n e--ohei-nipaha-t knife with kill 3-obv 'she killed him with a knife'

The following compound verb stem has three preverbs preceding the stem nikamosi- 'sing a little bit'.
(32) kiki--koci-pe-yako-nikamosin ci. ? perf try alone sing dim \(Q\)
'Did you try singing a little bit by yourself?"

Again, this compound stem is a single lexical item, not a series of separate words in constituent structure.

Evidence that it is a single item comes from the position of the yes-no question enclitic cie, which follows the first word of the sentence. Additional evidence may be seen in
```

the position of the inflectional affixes, ki- -n,
indicating a second person singular subject, which surround
the entire compound strm.
Many elements which occur as preverbs in compound stems
also appear as initial morphemes of stems if the root is a
final morpheme. For example, -ohte.- "walk, go" never
occurs in siem-initial position. It must always be preceded
by an element expressing direction or manner. The initial
oht- 'from' may appear with _ohte.- to express 'come from',
subcategorized for a subject and an oblique. The syntactic
effect of adcing ght= is the same, wheiher it is an initial
morpheme of the stem; or a prevert in a compuund stem: it
adds an oblique to the subcategorization requirements of the
verb.
As mentioned in the discussion of LFG conditions on functional structures above, it is not possible to use ohci-nipah- without a lexical element expressing the oblique.
(33) * e-ohci-nipaha- $\tau$
Not all types of obliques require lexical arguments, however. Obliques expressing motion towards may be interpreted as anaphoric 'there" if no specific destination is given in the clause. For example, the verb stem itohte.- "go to" is composed of the initial it-used with goal or manner, and the root final -ohie.- ‘go'. It is subcategorized for a subject and an oblique, but texts, including the one given as an appendix to chapter 4 , show

```
```

many examples of itohte.- used without a specified goal.
Secondary predicates may be expressed in the verb stem
either as a preverb on a compound stem, or as an initial on
a composite stem.
(34) niwa-piski-sisope-kahe-n wa-skahikan
white paint l-inan house
'I painted the house white'
(35) iskwe*winawe.w
woman see as 3-obv
'he looked at him and thought he was a woman'
In LFG, secondary predicates are represented as the
XCOMP grammatical function: that is, they are a complement,
but one that lacks a subject, and which must be controlled
by another grammatical function in the clause to satisfy its
own subcategorization requirements. For example, (34) would
have the following f-structure representation:

```
    (36)
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|}
\hline SUBJ & \(\left[\begin{array}{lr}\text { PRED } & \text { 'pro } \\ \text { PERS } & 1 \\ \text { NUM } & \text { sg }\end{array}\right]\) \\
\hline OBJ & \(\left[\begin{array}{lc}\text { PRED } & \text { 'house' } \\ \text { PERS } & 3 \\ \text { NUM } & 59 \\ \text { EEND } & \text { inan } \\ \text { OBV } & -\end{array}\right]\) \\
\hline ̌COMP & \(\left[\begin{array}{l}\text { SURJ } \\ \text { PRED }\end{array}\right.\) 'white <SUBJ>'] \(]\) \\
\hline PRED ORDER & 'paint <suBJ OBJ XCOMP>" independent \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

The secondary predicate of 'white" requires a subject itself, but must be controlled by the object to receive an
interpretation.
In a similar fashion, the causative in Cree may be expressed as a higher predicate of causation that is subcategorized for a subject, object, and secondary predicate. For example, nikamohe-w 'he makes them sing' would have the following representation at functional structure, based on a lexical entry for the causative final as follows:
(37)
```

                -h-
                PRED = 'cause <agent, patient, event>'
                        SUBJ OBJ XCOMP
                OBJ GEND = anim
                OBJ = XCOMP SUBJ
    ```
(38)


Again, it is the object of the causative which is interpreted as the subject of 'sing'. Cross-linguistically, transitive verbs taking secondary predicates almost always exhibit object control of the lower predicate's subject, as does the causative in Cree.
```

Reflexive verbs may also appear as the secondary predicate in a causative construction. The following example contains the reflexive stem a-cimiso- "tell a story about oneself'.

``` (39)

\[
\begin{aligned}
& \text { nita-cimisoha.w } \text { I made him tell a story } \\
& \text { about himself' }
\end{aligned}
\]

In chapter 3, in the discussion of direct and inverse verbs, it was mentioned that the grammatical functions associated with direct and inverse verbs displayed no difference in their ability to control secondary predicates, which argued for direct and inverse verbs having the same syntactic status. This can be seen clearly by comparing the functional structure above with the one below. The functional structure above represents a direct form of a causative verb, with a first person subject and a third person object. The interpretation of the verb can only be that it is the object, the third person, who is being caused to tell about himself. In the following example, the verb
is inverse, having a third person subject and a first person object. Again it is the object, here the first person, who is interpreted as the controller of the secondary predicate. This is consistent with the analysis of the inverse verbs as active. If, on the other hand, the inverse verb were a transitive passive, the interpretation of the secondary predicates would be complicated. For inverse verbs, one would have to say that it was the subject which controlled a secondary predicate, and not the object. (40)
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|}
\hline SUBJ & \(\left[\begin{array}{l}\text { PRED } \\ \text { PERS } \\ \text { GEND } \\ \text { NUM } \\ \text { OBV }\end{array}\right.\) & \(\left.\begin{array}{c}\text { cpro' } \\ 3 \\ \text { anim } \\ \text { sg } \\ -\end{array}\right]\) \\
\hline 0 OJ & PRED
PERS
NUM & \[
\left.\begin{array}{c}
\text { pro } \\
1 \\
59
\end{array}\right]
\] \\
\hline XCOMP & \(\left[\begin{array}{l}\text { SUBJ } \\ \text { PRED }\end{array}\right.\) & 'teli \\
\hline PRED ORDER & "cause indep & \[
\begin{aligned}
& \text { UBJ OB: } \\
& \text { lent }
\end{aligned}
\] \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
nita-cimisohik the made me tell a story about myself,

The behavior of inverse verbs with respect to control of secondary predicates is further evidence that they are not passives of any sort. Indeed, as the representation at functional structure makes clear, the difference between direct and inverse forms is one of the person and obviation features associated with the subject and object; in the rest of the verb's structure, there is no difference at all
between the direct form and the inverse form.

\begin{abstract}
The discussion in this chapter has taken a very preliminary look at a few of the word formation processes that affect grammatical relations in Cree. Though it is not a complete survey, a number of characteristics may be noted. Parts of the word may function to satisfy the subcategorization requirements of a verb, including the inflectional morphology for subject and first object, and preverbs or initials for secondary predicates. Preverbs and initials may also function to add arguments to a verb's subcategorization frame; in particular, they add oblique arguments. Finally, for some grammatical functions, subcategorization requirements may be met even if there is no external argument nor any inflectional morphology encoding features of that grammatical function. This is true for second objects and for obliques indicating goal of motion.
\end{abstract}

This concludes the brief look et the role of the lexicon in the syntax of Cree. Clearly, many more questions remain to be answered. One result of the investigations reported in this dissertation has been a clarification of the syntactic status of inverse verbs, and the development of tests for grammatical relations. This is a necessary preliminary to investigating further issues in Cree syntax; without this issue settled, the basic grammatical relations
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operating in tine syntax cannot be identified. The approach
of representing grammatical information at a level of
functional structure provides an appropriate framework for
continued research into the symtactic role of inflection and
word formation processes.

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\section*{Notes to chapter 5}
1 In particular, the up and down arrow notation has not
bean used here. Statements such as "PRED = 'love <SUBJ
OBJ>, should more properly read " (个PRED) = love
<(fSUBJ) (个oBJ)>, and so on. See Kaplan and Bresnan
1982 for details.
2 Exceptions to this condition are adjuncts, which by
definition are not subcategorized functions, and topic
and focus, which in most languages are not
subcategorized. These functions are subject to an
extended coherence condition. See Bresnan and Mchombo
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