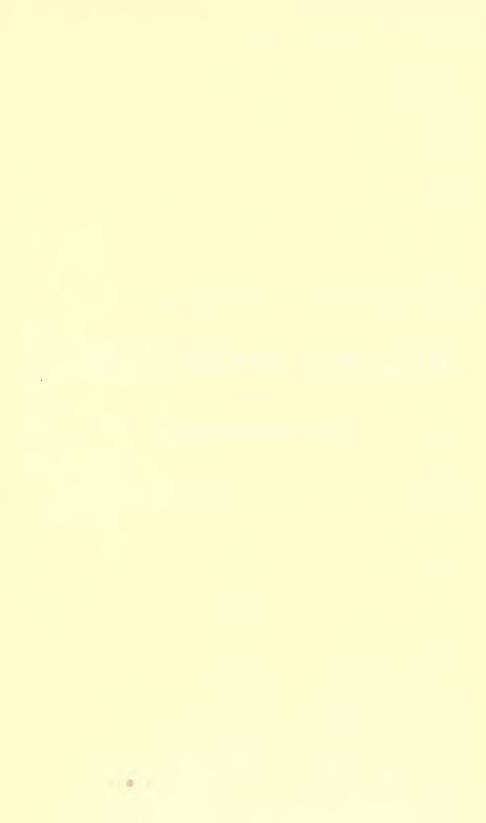
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SIUSLAWAN (LOWER UMPQUA	_)
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LEO J. FRACHTENBERG	
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INTRODUCTION

In 1884 J. Owen Dorsey spent a month at the Siletz reservation, Oregon, collecting short vocabularies of the Siuslaw and Lower Umpqua, as well as of other languages. Prior to Dorsey's investigations the linguistic position of Siuslaw and Lower Umpqua was a debated question. Some investigators believed that these two dialects belonged to the Yakonan family; while others, notably Latham and Gatschet, held them to form a distinct stock, although they observed marked agreement with some features of the Yakonan. After a superficial investigation, lasting less than a month, Dorsey came to the conclusion that Siuslaw and Lower Umpqua were dialects belonging to the Yakonan stock. This assertion was repeated by J. W. Powell in his "Indian Linguistic Families" (Seventh Annual Report of the Bureau of American Ethnology, p. 134), and was held to be correct by all subsequent students of American Indian languages. This view, however, is not in harmony with my own investigations. A closer study of Alsea (one of the Yakonan dialects) on the one hand, and of Lower Umpqua on the other, proves conclusively that Siuslaw and Lower Umpqua form a distinct family, which I propose to call the Siuslawan linguistic stock. The term "Siuslaw" was given preference over "Umpqua" or "Lower Umpqua," in order to avoid the ambiguity of meaning which might arise from the fact that we have become accustomed to call the Athapascan dialect, spoken on the upper course of the Umpqua river, the "Upper Umpqua."

The material on which the following sketch is based was collected, under the joint auspices of the Bureau of American Ethnology and of Columbia University, on the Siletz reservation, Oregon, during the months of March, April, and May, 1911.

My principal informant was Louisa Smith, a Lower Umpqua Indian over 70 years of age. Her advanced years, her absolute lack of knowledge of the English language, her ill health, and, above all, the fact that prior to my arrival on the reservation she had

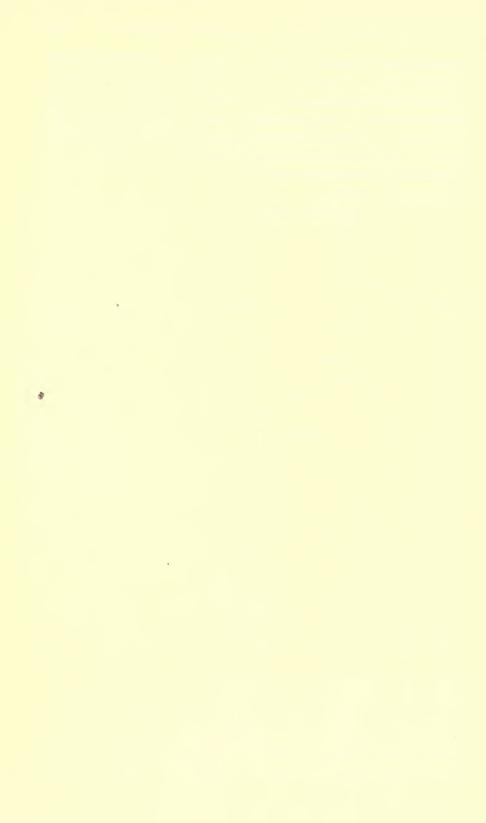
¹It is not at all impossible that this stock, the Yakonan, Kusan, and perhaps the Kalapuyan, may eventually prove to be genetically related. Their affinities are so remote, however, that I prefer to take a conservative position, and to treat them for the time being as independent stocks.

not used her native tongue for a considerable period, rendered her a poor, though willing informant. In the course of this investigation it was therefore necessary to employ such additional informants and interpreters as were available. By far the most important of these was William Smith, an Alsea Indian and the husband of Louisa, who had spent his childhood among the Siuslaw Indians, from whom he had gained a fairly good knowledge of their language. But he, too, was far from being an ideal informant. His command of English was imperfect, his degree of intelligence rather limited, his pronunciation of Lower Umpqua was affected by Alsea phonetics, and he was only too often unable to keep apart the Siuslaw, Lower Umpqua, and Alsea forms of a given word. However, in spite of these deficiencies, his services proved highly valuable, because, having previously assisted me in my work on the Alsea language, he knew more or less what was wanted of him. other informants were Spencer Scott, a son of Louisa; Louis Smith, a full-blooded Lower Umpqua Indian; and Hank Johnson, the son of a Lower Umpqua father and of an Alsea mother. The three last mentioned were, comparatively speaking, young men, whose knowledge of Lower Umpqua was imperfect and rather vague. They were employed solely for the purpose of settling questions that pertained to phonetics, and of disentangling the frequent difficulties that were involved in the collection and translation of texts; and if I add that throughout the progress of this work, Louisa Smith was suffering from a severe ear-ache (which at times rendered her absolutely deaf), that William Smith had to undergo frequent surgical operations because of a poisoned finger, and that my other informants could give me only part of their time, I shall have mentioned all the difficulties under which the following material was collected. Should this sketch, therefore, be found deficient in completeness of treatment and clearness of interpretation, it will have to be accounted for by the extraordinary circumstances under which the work was conducted.

But if the actual work involved in this investigation was rather trying and tiresome, there were other features connected with it that rendered it pleasant and enjoyable. These features consist of the many courtesies and helpful assistance received from the inhabitants of Siletz; and it is a great source of pleasure to me to record my deep gratitude to these kind friends. My greatest obligations are due to

Superintendent and Mrs. Knott C. Egbert, to the former for his untiring efforts to assist me, both officially and personally, in whatever way he could, and to the latter for the motherly care with which she attended to my personal wants throughout my stay at the reservation. My sincere thanks are also due to Dr. Maximilian F. Clausius, the physician of the Siletz agency, for the numerous tokens of friendship received at his hand.

COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY,
September, 1911.



SIUSLAWAN (LOWER UMPQUA)

By Leo J. Frachtenberg

§ 1. DISTRIBUTION AND HISTORY

The Siuslawan stock embraces two closely related dialects—Lower Umpqua and Siuslaw—that were spoken by the people living on the lower courses of the Umpqua and Siuslaw rivers, in the southern part of Oregon. Their northern neighbors were the Alsea Indians 1 (whom they called $Han\bar{\imath}'s\ h\bar{\imath}tc^2$), on the east they came in contact with the Kalapuya (chiefly the Yonkalla tribe, known to them as the $Qa^{i}xqax$), and on the south they were contiguous to the $Coos(Q\bar{u}'yax)$. The territory of the Lower Umpqua was bounded on the north by Five Mile lake, on the south by Ten Mile lake, while on the east they claimed the whole region adjoining the Umpqua river as far as Scottsburg. The possessions of the Siuslaw Indians extended as far south as Five Mile lake, on the north they bordered on the Yahach river, and eastwards they extended as far as Mapleton. Thus it may safely be assumed that these two dialects were spoken in the western parts of what are known today as Lane and Douglas counties. No information pertaining to the previous strength of these two tribes could be obtained. Their numbers have been so greatly reduced, that, besides the four individuals who served as my informants, and the two or three Siuslaw Indians said to be living near Florence, Lane county, there are no other members living; and since these people no longer converse in their native tongue, the Siuslaw family may be looked upon as an extinct linguistic stock.

¹ One of the two members of the Yakonan family.

² For explanation of alphabet see pp. 443, 444.

The Lower Umpqua call themselves $Q\bar{u}'\bar{\imath}tc$, and refer to their language as $Q\bar{u}'\bar{\imath}tcax$ wa'as. These terms are of native origin, and are formed from the stem $q\bar{u}'\bar{\imath}$ or $q\bar{o}'\bar{\imath}$ south. The Alsea called them $Tkulma^{\varepsilon}k$, and they were known to the Coos as $B\hat{\imath}ldj\bar{\imath}'yEx$, i. e. Northern Indians. The Siuslaw refer to themselves as $C\bar{a}'yucla$, and were called $C\bar{a}'y\bar{u}cle$ by the Coos and Qwas or Kwas by the Alsea Indians. The etymology of these names could not be ascertained.

Judging from the scanty notes on Siuslaw obtained by Dorsey and myself, the differences between this dialect and Lower Umpqua were very slight and of a purely phonetic and lexicographic character. No distinct morphological formations were found. The chief phonetic feature that seems to separate these two dialects is the change of a Lower Umpqua n into l in Siuslaw.

Lower Umpqua	Siuslaw
$par{a}'nar{u}$	$p\bar{a}'l\cdot\bar{u}$ well, spring 76.12
$qan\bar{\imath}'na\bar{t}$ 19.6	qalī'nał knife 50.19
qa'nnî	$qa'ln\hat{\imath}$ (D.) ¹ face
$tsnar{a}'w\hat{\imath}$	tsla'we (D.) bone
łkwa'nuq ^u	$lkwa'luk^u$ (D.) hat

The lexicographical differences cover a limited number of stems and words, of which only a few examples may be quoted here.

Lower Umpqua	Siuslaw
$l\bar{a}'n$ - 23.7	<i>ltcîn</i> - to call by name
\hat{xip} -	$y\hat{\imath}q/a^u$ - to split (pitch wood)
$L\bar{\imath}'\bar{u}$ - 8.3	xumc-to come, to approach 23.2
$t.'\bar{a}mc~40.19$	$t!\hat{n}lm\hat{s}$ (D.) child
$xw\bar{a}'ka~29.5$	$qam\hat{\imath}'$ L $\hat{\imath}s$ (D.) head
$l\bar{\imath}'t!a^{\bar{\imath}}$ 34.23	$w\hat{\imath}ts!\bar{u}'we$ (D.) food
$k!w\bar{\imath}'y\bar{o}s^2$	$cqa'xtc^3$ dog
$k\bar{o}'tan$ 4 34.10	$ta^{u'}wex$ (D.) 5 horse

Texts of myths and tales in the Lower Umpqua dialect were collected by the author, and were published by Columbia University.⁶ All references accompanying examples refer to page and line of that publication.

¹ Words marked (D.) are quoted from Dorsey's manuscripts in possession of the Bureau of American Ethnology.

² Coos kwī'yos.

⁸ Apparently related to Alsea tcqēnx.

⁴ Chinook jargon.

⁶ Related to Alsea t!awā'yū.

⁶ Lower Umpqua Texts, Columbia University Contributions to Anthropology, vol. 4.

PHONOLOGY (§§ 2-17)

§ 2. Vowels

The vowels have short and long quantities. Resonance vowels, marked here by superior vowels, are employed often, as is also the obscure vowel ε , which seems to be related to short α . In some instances, due to contact phenomena, the obscure vowel partakes of the quality of a short o, and is represented here by o. The open e vowel appears to be lacking, while the long \bar{e} frequently glides from \bar{e} to \bar{i} and resembles a long \bar{i} . Significant pitch appears in a few cases (see p. 447).

The a^i - and a^u diphthongs occur in two distinct forms, one with the initial element short or long $(a^i, a^u, \bar{a}^i, \bar{a}^u)$, and the other with the first element short and the second long $(a^{\bar{\imath}}$ and $a^{\bar{u}})$. The latter two forms are closely related to the long $\bar{\imath}$ and \bar{u} with which they constantly interchange. This interchange usually takes place after $a, h, m, n, q, x, and l, although numerous instances will be found where the substitution of <math>a^{\bar{\imath}}$ and $a^{\bar{u}}$ for $\bar{\imath}$ and \bar{u} respectively has taken place after vowels and consonants other than those enumerated, or where the interchange does not occur at all.

Examples of interchange between $\bar{\imath}$ and $a^{\bar{\imath}}$:

 \hat{n} $q/a'\bar{\imath}$ 30.23 $m\hat{\imath}$ $t\hat{\imath}$ $t\hat{\imath}$ n $s\hat{\imath}'$ n $x\hat{\imath}$ t 46.18 $t\hat{\imath}'$ k^Enx here thou 56.19

hate'ī'xam he was asked 66.16 tsī'k!yan hī'sītī ha' I am very glad 25.8 ${\it nq/a'a^{\bar{\imath}}}$ river 30.20 ${\it qam \hat{\imath} ta'a^{\bar{\imath}} t \hat{\imath} n}$ my mother 100.12 ${\it c\hat{\imath}' nxa^{\bar{\imath}} t}$ he thinks 90.15 ${\it ta^{\bar{\imath}'} k^{E} ns}$ here we two (incl.) 56.6

skwaha^ī'xam it is placed (in) ta^ī'k̄ns aya'qa^ītī sī'xa^ī here we two (incl.) shall leave our canoe 56.5

Examples of interchange between \bar{u} and $a^{\bar{u}}$:

waa'ūn 7.4

waxa'yūtsme he gave him his . . . 76.9

k'îmūl'' Lūn

h'yatsî' tsūn he put it on 11.8

pîlqutsū'nî made of raccoon
(hides) 70.23, 24

kā'lūtūn I tire him out

yāk'îsk'înū' L'aya' on a small

place 38.19

 $tkw\bar{\imath}ha'ha^{\bar{\imath}}tsm_E$ he buried his . . . 40.22 $k.'\hat{\imath}ma^{\bar{\imath}}\iota^{i'}\iota\bar{u}n$ I am hitting him $\bar{a}qa'qa^{\bar{\imath}}n$ he took it off 13.1 $hamxa^{\bar{\imath}'}n\hat{\imath}$ made of tied (grass) 8.6

 $waa'a^{\bar{u}}n$ he says to him 20.7

 $k\bar{a}'la^at\hat{n}$ I am tired $m\bar{\imath}k'.a^{a'}$ $\iota.'aya'$ in a bad place 12.10; 13.1

The Siuslaw¹ system of vowels and diphthongs may be represented as follows:

		Vo	wels				Semi-vowels		Dip	hthongs	
		E	, 0								
a	(e)	i	î	0	u	û	w y	a^i	a^u	$a^{\bar{\imath}} a^{\bar{u}}$	u^i
\bar{a}	\ddot{a}	\bar{e}	$\bar{\imath}$	\bar{o}	$ar{u}$			\bar{a}^i	\bar{a}^u		\bar{u}^i

The umlauted \ddot{a} occurs rarely, and is pronounced like \ddot{a} in German wählen; $\hat{\imath}$ is pronounced like the Slavic short y-vowel; and \hat{u} indicates very short quantity.

§ 3. Consonants

The consonantic system deviates in a great many respects from those of the neighboring tribes. Its chief characteristics are the total absence of the anterior palatal series (g^*, k^*, k^*, x^*) ; the absence of all sonants excepting d_i ; the presence of a palatal lateral (l^*) ; and, above all, the occurrence of a double series of glottalized explosives differing in the quality and amount of stress employed in their production. The real explosives are followed in this sketch by the sign of exclamation (!), while the glottalized stops of ordinary strength will be found accompanied by the apostrophe ('). The latter seem to be confined to the consonants of the dental series and to k. The surds t and k occur also as aspirated consonants.

The following table illustrates the Siuslaw consonantic system:

_					•	
	Sonant	Surd	Fortis	Aspirated	Spirant	Nasal
Velar		q	q!		x	
Palatal		$\bar{k}(w)$	$\bar{k}!(w)$	k		
Alveolar	. d	t	t!, t'	t°	s, c	n
Affricative		ts, tc	ts!, tc!		area .	-
			ts', tc'			
Labial		p	p!(?)	_	down	m
Lateral		L	L!		l, l, \bar{l}	-
Glottal stop	ε				, ,	
Aspiration						
1	y	h	$w h^u$			

The palatal l is pronounced like l in the English word lure. The glottal stop occurs seldom, and seems to be associated with the explosive character of the consonants following it, although I did not succeed in verifying this connection definitely. The aspiration corre-

¹Whenever the term "Siuslaw" is used, it is to be understood as referring to the whole group, and not to the dialect only.

sponds to the character of the vowels and consonants that precede or follow it: that is to say, after palatal vowels it is of a palatal character; while before the vowels a, o, and u, and before velar consonants, it becomes guttural. When followed by a vowel, it is changed into an h.

 $t\bar{u}$ 'tc- to spear 62.2 $tuhatca'y\bar{u}n$ he spears it $qaq\bar{u}$ 'n- to hear 30.18 $qa'q^uhant\bar{u}n$ he heard it 36.23 $s\bar{v}$ to grow (intr.) 98.10 $s\bar{v}h\bar{v}$ 'tcîn xîntyax I began to grow up 100.17 $qn\bar{u}$ '- to find $qn\bar{u}'h\bar{u}n$ (they two) found it 56.9 wa''t $\bar{u}x$ again shall . . . 11.2 $waha'h\bar{u}n$ h^iyats î't $s\bar{u}n$ again he put it on 12.1

In some instances the aspiration results from the dropping of a t before a following n (see §§ 16, 58, 59).

§ 4. Sound Groupings

Clusters of two consonants are admissible, except w+any consonant other than n. Whenever a w is followed by a consonant other than n, it changes into a voiceless w, represented here by h^u . Clusters of three or more consonants may occur medially or finally, provided a nasal or lateral forms the initial sound of such groupings.

When, owing to grammatical processes, three consonants that can not form a cluster come into contact, an obscure or weak vowel (mostly E, a, or $\hat{\imath}$) is inserted between two of the three consonants, thus facilitating the pronunciation of the cluster.

A similar insertion takes place in initial clusters beginning with m or n, and between two consonants belonging to the same series. The latter rule applies to clusters in initial, medial, and final position.

Examples of clusters consisting of w + consonant:

 $a^{i}tcnaw$ - to trade mutually + $a^{i}tcna'^{hu}t\bar{u}xts$ you two will trade mutually + $t\bar{o}lnaw$ - to hit mutually + $t\bar{o}lna'^{hu}matc\hat{i}$ you hit one another! $xn\bar{o}'^{w}na$ he does 11.11

Examples of avoidance of clusters in initial position:

m- (prefix of relationship) $m\hat{\imath}t\hat{\alpha}$ father 54.22 +ta father m- (prefix of relationship) $m\hat{\imath}t\hat{\alpha}$ mother 54.23 +ta mother

Examples of avoidance of clusters in medial position:

wînx- (to be afraid) +- $nawa^ux$ wînx- (to be afraid) +- $nawa^ux$ they two were afraid of each other 86.1,2 $q\bar{a}tx$ - (to cry) +- $t\bar{u}x$ $q\bar{a}'tx^at\bar{u}x$ he will cry

Examples of avoidance of clusters in final position:

qatcînī'tx (to keep on going) qatcînī'txan I keep on going +-n $qa^{i\prime}x^{E}nx$ (at) night thou . . . $qa^{i}x$ (night) +-nx70.18ta" kEns here we two (incl.) 56.6 $ta^{i}k$ (here) +-ns $ha^{i\prime}q^{E}nxan$ ashore we (excl.) $ha^{i}q$ (ashore) +-nxan88.13 $hatc'a'y\bar{u}n$ (he asked him) hatc'a'yūnatcî ye ask her 74.10 $+-tc\hat{\imath}$ $tc\bar{\imath}n$ - (to come back) + -nx $tc\bar{\imath}'nanx$ they came back 72.23

Examples of avoidance of clusters of consonants belonging to the same series:

 $\begin{array}{lll} kum \hat{\imath}'ntc \; (\text{not}) \; + -tc & kum \hat{\imath}'ntc^{\underline{\varepsilon}}tc \; \text{not his } 92.15 \\ ants \; (\text{that one}) \; + c\bar{a}'ya & ants^{\underline{\varepsilon}}\; c\bar{a}'ya \; \text{that penis} \\ p\bar{\imath}\bar{u}la'wax \; (\text{he intends to hunt}) & p\bar{\imath}\bar{u}la'wax^{\underline{u}}x\hat{u}n \; \text{we two } (\text{excl.}) \\ + -x\hat{u}n & \text{intend to go hunting } 54.22 \\ l\bar{\imath}t! - (\text{to eat}) \; + -t\bar{u}x & l\bar{\imath}'t!^{i}t\bar{u}x \; (\text{you}) \; \text{will eat } 50.2 \\ tc\hat{\imath}nt \; (\text{how much}) \; + tex & tc\hat{\imath}nt^{\underline{\varepsilon}}\; tex \; \text{suppose } 38.20,21 \\ s^{\underline{\varepsilon}}a^{i}t \; (\text{such}) \; + L/a'^{ai} & s^{\underline{\varepsilon}}a^{i}t^{\underline{\varepsilon}}\; L/a'^{ai} \; \text{such a place } 15.1 \end{array}$

Examples of clusters permissible in medial or final position:

Final Medial $ts\hat{n}q/t$ poor 16.10 $ts\hat{i}'nq/tanx$ you are poor $lakwa'\bar{u}ltx$ (their) . . . was taken away 50.22 taken $lakw\bar{i}'xamltx$ his . . . was taken away from him 54.14 were taken away from them

The only consonantic cluster that does not seem to be permissible is the grouping of nx+k. Whenever these three consonants would appear together in the above-named order, the x is always changed into a.

 $ts^iya'_L/\bar{\imath}nx$ (you will be shot) $ts^iya'_L/\bar{\imath}na\ k^un\grave{a}$ you might get shot $k^uv\bar{a}''n\bar{\imath}nx$ (they will be beaten) $ts^iya'_L/\bar{\imath}na\ k^un\grave{a}$ you might get shot $ts^iya'_L/\bar{\imath}na\ k^un\grave{a}$ you might get shot $ts^iya'_L/\bar{\imath}na\ k^un\grave{a}$ you might get shot $ts^iya'_L/\bar{\imath}na\ k^un\grave{a}$ you might get shot beaten

An exception to this rule is found in the following sentence:

likwa'yūnanx ku li'ī'ai you may get (some) salmon 48.18

In like manner the combination $nx + \bar{u}$ is changed into $a^{\bar{u}}$ (see § 132).

 $ya'qu'y\bar{u}nanx$ (thou art seen) +- \bar{u} (- $a^{\bar{u}}$) yaqu'yū'nanaū thou art seen here

§ 5. Accent

Siuslaw exhibits a stress accent, represented here by the acute mark ('); and a pitch accent, designated by the mark ('). Only a limited number of enclitic and proclitic particles show no accent whatsoever. The pitch accent occurs mostly in monosyllabic words that have a short vowel, and lends to the syllable a sharp, abrupt intonation. Both accents are freely shifted from one syllable to another. It seems, however, to be a fixed rule that in the past tense the accent is placed on the first syllable, and that the locative case-endings and the adverbial suffixes must be accented.

 $ha^iqa'q$ he goes ashore 58.17

 $qa^ix\hat{\imath}'x$ it gets dark 64.19 $t^owatc\hat{\imath}'tc\bar{\imath}na^ux$ they two are spearing it 56.15, 16 ts!aln pitch 26.6 $t\bar{\imath}'t!a^{\bar{\imath}}$ food 34.23 $tqa^{ij'}t\bar{\imath}$ log 32.21

pk' $i't\bar{i}$ lake 62.18 $s\bar{i}'xa^{\bar{i}}$ canoe 56.5 $qa'x\hat{u}n$ above, up 34.21 $s^{\bar{z}}a'tsa$ thus 8.7 $ya^{a}k.'\hat{i}'sk'\hat{i}n$ very small 36.23 ha''qîqyax (having) come ashore 56.13

qa''xîxyax it became dark 34.4

towa'tcîtcyaxa^ūn I have been spearing it 66.17

ts!îlna' (locative case) 94.18

līt!aya' (locative case) 13.7

lqatūwīyū's (locative case) 88.16

pk'ītīyū's (locative case) 34.11

sexa^ū'tc into the canoe 34.5

qaxûntcī'tc upwards

s^ɛatsī'tc in that manner 8.1

yāk!îsk'înū' in a very small

... 38.19

§ 6. Phonetic Laws

In both dialects a number of phonetic laws are found which affect both vowels and consonants. All phonetic processes are due either to contact phenomena or to the effects of accent. They may be summarized as follows:

Vocalic Processes:

- (1) Diphthongization of $\bar{\imath}$ and \bar{u} .
- (2) Consonantization of i- and u-.

- (3) Contraction.
- (4) Vocalic hiatus.
- (5) Vocalic harmony.
- (6) Effects of accent.

Consonantic Processes:

- (1) Consonantic metathesis.
- (2) Consonantic euphony.
- (3) Simplification of double consonants.
- (4) Modifications of t and k.
- (5) Minor consonantic changes.

§§ 7-12. Vocalic Processes

§ 7. Diphthongization of I and U

This is by far the most important phonetic change, owing to the fact that it gives rise to a double form of stems that contain these vowels, and because it is employed in certain grammatical processes (see §§ 111, 112). The principle may be described as follows: For the purpose of expressing (in nouns) the discriminative case and (in verbs) intensity or duration of action, long $\bar{\imath}$ and \bar{u} are changed into ya and wa respectively.

Examples of diphthongization of $\bar{\imath}$:

 $h\bar{\imath}na'y\bar{u}n$ he brings him 23.2

hītsī'xam it is put on 11.8

 $\bar{\imath} t q a^{i\prime}$ he digs 84.2

 $c\bar{\imath}tx$ - to flop

 $ya'q^uh\bar{\imath}t\bar{u}nx$ thou shalt see 36.25

"l^Enx k!'î'nk'īt they went to look for 60.5

 $Qa'a^itc\bar{\imath}x$ along the North Fork 32.19

Examples of diphthongization of \bar{u} :

 $q\bar{u}$ ' $n\bar{v}$ ' $xam\bar{v}$ mE it was poured into his . . . 29.2

 $L/x\bar{u}'x\bar{u}^u n$ he knows it 40.16

 $h^iya'ny\bar{u}tsanx$ I'll take thee along 58.6

 $h^i y a t s \hat{\imath}' t s \bar{u} n$ he is putting it on 11.8

a'ntsux ya'lqa^un those two (who) are digging (a hole) 84.5

cⁱyatx it flops around 36.23 yoq^u'ya'wax he intended to see

k!înk'ya'wax(I) intend to go and look for 60.5

 $qa^{u'}x\hat{u}nyax$ along the sky 32.19

 $qwa''ny\bar{u}x$ pour it into his . . . 29.2

kumî'ntewax te'q L!xu'waxu not they two anything knew it 54.16 $lak\bar{u}'k\bar{u}n$ he takes it $t\bar{u}'tca'y\bar{u}n$ he spears it 64.12

 ula^ux $tk\bar{u}ma'y\bar{u}n$ they two made a dam 48.8

 $\bar{u}'lt\bar{\imath}$ snow 76.10 $p = k\bar{u}'ya \ x\bar{a}_L/a^{i'} \ L/a'^{ai}$ people make shinny-sticks 78.5 łakwa'kū^un he took it 64.10towatel'teūna^ux they two are spearing it 56.15, 16

"lns tkwa'mīsūn we two (incl.) will keep on making dams 48.14

walt it snows

a'ntsux pākwa'wax those two (who) are about to play . . . shinny 78.10, 11

Owing to the interchange between $\bar{\imath}$ and $a^{\bar{\imath}}$ and \bar{u} and $a^{\bar{u}}$ (see § 2), these diphthongs are subject to the same amplification.

 $h\bar{\imath}'q/a^{\bar{\imath}}t$ he started 22.6 $m\bar{\imath}q/a^{\bar{\imath}}tx$ they dance 72.13

 $q\bar{a}'tk\hat{n}$ t_E $a^iqa'qa^{\bar{u}}ts$ (from) here he left me 60.4 $ka^{\bar{u}}s\hat{n}'s$ he keeps on following 92.7 hīq!ya'a^u it will be started 32.1mɛq!ya'wax (I) intend to dance72.12

 $ta^{\bar{\imath}'}k^{\bar{\imath}}ns$ $aya'qy\bar{u}n$ here we two (incl.) will leave it 56.16, 17 $k^{i}was^{i}y\bar{u}'tsana^{\bar{\imath}}$ you will follow me 92.3

The change of $\bar{\imath}$ into ya often takes place in the third person singular, which ends in $-\bar{\imath}$ (see p. 468).

Lī'wat!în I come frequently

cî'nxyat!în I am thinking

ha'kwat!în I fall frequently

xî'l'xcîn I work

 $p = l \bar{l}' t c \hat{l} n$ I (am) ahead $y a' q^u h \hat{l} n$ I look $s \hat{l}' n x \hat{l} n$ I want

Lī'wat.'ī 68.5, (Lī'wat.'ya) he came frequently

(cî'nixyat/ī), cî'nixyat.'ya 17.6 he is thinking

(ha'kwat!ī), ha'kwat!ya 90.12 it falls continually

xî'l'xcī 50.9, (xî'l'xcya) he was working

 $p E \bar{l} \bar{l}' t c y a$ he was first 48.11 $y a' q^{u'} y a$ he looked 70.16 $s \hat{l}' n^i x y a$ he desires

§ 8. Consonantization of i- and u-

The i- and u- elements of the diphthongs are changed into the semi-vocalic consonants y and w whenever they are followed by vowels of different qualities. This law affects also the simple short or long i- and u- vowels.

Consonantization of i-:

 $p\hat{\imath}tca^{i}$ (he goes over) + $-a^{u}x$ $t\bar{\imath}'t/a^{\bar{\imath}}$ (food) + -a

 $k\bar{u}^i$ (not) + $-a^u x$ $qn\bar{u}h\bar{u}^{i'}$ - (he finds) + $-a^i$ $texm\bar{u}'n\hat{\imath}$ (male) + -a

 $x\hat{\imath}l \cdot xc\bar{\imath}$ - (to work) + $-a^i$ $t/\bar{\imath}$ (bear) + $-\bar{u}n\hat{\imath}$ $s\hat{\imath}'nx\bar{\imath}$ - (to desire) + $-\bar{u}n$

Consonantization of u-:

 $L\bar{\imath}ya'a^u$ (fire) +-a+-tc

 $w\bar{\imath}l\bar{u}$ - (to affirm) + -axam $xa'\bar{u}$ (he died) + - $\bar{\imath}l$ $x\bar{a}'ts'\bar{u}$ (two) + - a^ux pîtca'ya^ux they two go over 88.15
yā'xatc'īst^unx līt!aya' for food
you will always try to look 13.7
kū'ya^ux not they two . . . 98.11
qnūhū'yūn (they) found it 60.7
la'kukyax texmū'nya she took a
mortal man 60.23
xîl'xcya^{i'} (they two) worked 48.10
t!īyū'nî made of bear (hides) 70.24
sî'nⁱxyūn I want it 15.8

hai'qmas zīya'watc alongside of the fire 25.4, 5
wīlwa'xam he was assured 30.11
kumî'ntc xa'wīl not he dies 15.8
xā'ts!uwaux two of them 40.18

A peculiar case of consonantization seems to have taken place in the objective case $tc\bar{\imath}'wa$ 32.20, formed from the noun $tc\bar{\imath}$ water 36.20.

§ 9. Contraction

Contraction of two or three vowels following in immediate succession does not seem to be of regular occurrence, and there are no fixed rules governing this process. The following usages may, however, be stated to prevail:

(1) Short or long i or u following a vowel of different quality form diphthongs.

$$a^{i} < a + i \qquad u^{i} < u + i$$

$$a^{u} < a + u$$

The combination i+u, however, does not form a diphthong (see § 10).

 $tem\bar{u}'$ - (to assemble) + $-\bar{\imath}tc$ $tem\bar{u}''te$ $x\hat{\imath}nt$ (they) assembled 30.15, 16 qa'ntcya (from where) + $-\bar{\imath}tc$ $qantcya^{i'}te$ from where $qatc\bar{u}$ - (to drink) + $-\bar{\imath}txa^{\bar{u}}n$ $qatc\bar{u}''txa^{\bar{u}}n$ (they) drink (from) it 76.12

(2) A short vowel preceding another short vowel or a diphthong is contracted with the following vowel into a short or long vowel or into a diphthong.

a'tsa (thus) $+-a^ux$ $a'tsa^ux$ thus they two . . . waana'wa (to talk to each waana'waux they two talk to each other) $+ -a^{u}x$ other 10.4 $s^{E} \dot{a}$ (this) $+ -a^{\bar{\imath}} x a^{\bar{\imath}} x$ $s^{\mathbf{E}}a^{\mathbf{I}'}xa^{\mathbf{u}}x$ on this they two . . . 88.18 $x\bar{a}'ts/\bar{u}x$ they two . . . $x\bar{a}'ts'\bar{u}$ (two) + $-a^{u}x$ $yalqa'a^{\bar{u}}$ (a hole) $+-\bar{u}n$ $ya'lqa^{\bar{u}}n$ (they) dig holes 84.5 $a^{u'}tc\bar{\imath}s\hat{\imath}$ (camas) $+ -a^{u}x$ $a^{u'}tc\bar{\imath}sa^{u}x \ yuwa^{i'}$ camas they two dig 96.18

(3) The obscure vowel ε is contracted with all vowels preceding it into a vowel of a clear quality.

 $ha\bar{u}$ - (to quit) + -Em $ha'\bar{u}m$ quit! $n\dot{a}$ (I) + - $Em\bar{t}$ $nam^E\bar{t}$ of me 20.6 $s^Ea^i'na$ (him) + - $Em\bar{t}$ $s^Ea^ina'm\bar{t}$ of him An exception is wa- (to speak) + -Em wa'am speak!

(4) Two long vowels of similar qualities immediately following each other are contracted into one long vowel.

$$pEku$$
- (to play shinny) + $-\bar{u}s$ $pEk\bar{u}'us$ (locative case) 78.18

A peculiar case of contraction has apparently taken place in the genitive case $lq!\bar{a}n\bar{u}^{i'}ml$ of hides 102.1, composed of $lq!\bar{a}'n\bar{u}$ hide, and -eml, the genitive case-ending (see § 87).

Another process of contraction takes place whenever a personal pronoun (see § 24) is added to the suffix -yaxs, which expresses the past durative tense (see p. 526). In such cases the suffix -yaxs is invariably contracted into $-\bar{\imath}xs$. Attention may be called to the fact that in this case we are dealing with a process that is of a character opposite to the diphthongization of $-\bar{\imath}$, which has been discussed in § 7.

 $a^{u}s$ - to sleep 24.1 $a^{u}s\bar{\imath}xs\hat{\imath}n$ I have been sleeping, instead of $a^{u}syaxs\hat{\imath}n$ $qatc\bar{u}$ - to drink 76.13 $qa'tcwa^{\bar{\imath}}xs\hat{\imath}n$ I have been drinking, instead of $qa'tc\bar{u}yaxs\hat{\imath}n$ $pzk\bar{u}'$ - to play shinny 9.4 $pa'ku^{\bar{\imath}}xsanx$ you have been playing shinny, instead of pa'kuyaxsanx sanx $l\bar{\imath}t'$ - to eat 13.10 $l\bar{\imath}'t'$ - $l\bar{\imath}xs$ he has been eating, instead of $l\bar{\imath}'t'$ - $l\bar{\imath}xs$

§ 10. Vocalic Hiatus

In cases where contraction has not taken place, two vowels occurring in immediate succession are separated by means of an inserted h or by means of the accent. No definite rules could be found that would show under what circumstances either of these processes may be employed. Separation of two vowels by means of an inserted h occurs more regularly than separation by means of accent.

 $h\bar{\imath}'q!a$ (dentalia shells) $+ -a^{\bar{u}}n\hat{\imath}$ $h\bar{\imath}q!aha^{\bar{u}'}n\hat{\imath}$ consisting of dentalia shells 70.6 $Lxa\bar{u}'$ (pole) $+ -\bar{\imath}nE$ $Lxa^{u'}h\bar{\imath}nE$ with a spear (in his hand) 64.11 $mEkl\bar{\imath}'$ (mother-in-law) $+ -\bar{\imath}t\hat{\imath}n$ $mEkl\bar{\imath}'h\bar{\imath}t\hat{\imath}n$ my mother-in-law $tt'\bar{\imath}'a^{\bar{\imath}}$ (salmon) + -anx $tt'\bar{\imath}a^{\bar{\imath}'}anx~xaya^{\bar{\imath}'}$ salmon they catch 82.13, 14 $L\bar{\imath}'\bar{u}$ (he came) $+ -\bar{u}n$ $L\bar{\imath}\bar{u}'\bar{\imath}n$ he arrived 16.3

§ 11. Vocalic Harmony

The tendency towards vocalic euphony is so inconsistent in Siuslaw, that one is almost tempted to deny the presence of such a process. The two examples I have been able to find are extremely unsatisfactory and do not permit the formulation of any clearly defined rules.

 $ha^{i}m\bar{u}t$ (all) + -Eml $ha^{i}m\bar{u}t\bar{u}'ml$ of all $qa'x\hat{u}n$ high up, above 34.21 $qa''x\hat{u}n$ on top 32.19

§ 12. Effects of Accent

Besides the frequent tendency to lengthen the vowel of the syllable on which it falls, or to lend to it a clear quality, the loss of accent shortens or obscures the quantity of the stem-vowel as soon as it is shifted to one of the suffixed syllables. This law appears with such regular frequency as to make it a characteristic trait of Siuslaw phonology.

While examples covering the whole vocalic system could not be obtained, the following rules seem to prevail:

- (1) The a-, i-, and u- vowels of the stem, when they lose their accent, are changed into open i (written here $\hat{\imath}$) or obscure vowels whenever they precede or follow non-labilized consonants.
- (2) These vowels are changed—for the sake of harmonization—into short u whenever they appear before or after labialized consonants or w.

(3) The unaccented diphthongs lose the second element, especially in cases where the stem-vowel is followed by the accented verbalizing suffixes $-a^i$ and $-\bar{u}^i$ (see § 75).

Examples showing the change of α -, i-, and u- vowels before of after non-labialized consonants:

 $m\bar{a}'t\bar{\imath} \text{ dam } 48.10$

ts!aln pitch 26.6
maatc it lay 32.22

yax- to see 34.4 $tc\bar{\imath}n$ (they) came back 7.7 $ts\bar{\imath}\iota/\bar{\imath}'$ arrow 50.11

 $s\bar{\imath}'xa^{\bar{\imath}}$ boat 56.5 $sm\bar{u}t'$ - to end 20.5 $h\bar{u}^u n$ - to be dark 34.8, 9 $s\bar{u}n$ - to dive 64.21 $m\hat{\imath}t\bar{\imath}'y\bar{u}'^u$ the art of making dams 48.11

 $met\bar{\imath}'txa^ux$ they two always made dams 50.12, 13

ts/îlna'tc with pitch 24.1

mîtcū'wi many were lying 36.27 mɛtca'wanx they intended to lie down 38.23

yîxa'yūn he saw it 58.13 toenī'tc xînt he went back 58.15,16

 $ts\hat{\imath}_L!a^{i'}$ he shot 50.20 $ts\hat{\imath}_L!\hat{\imath}'tc$ by means of an arrow 15.8

 $sexa^{\bar{u}'}tc$ into (a) boat 34.5 $sm\hat{t}'\bar{u}^{i'}$ it ends 14.6 $hw\hat{n}\bar{u}^{i'}$ it is dark

 $\hat{sin}\tilde{u}^{i}$ he dives

Change of a-, i- (and u-) vowels before or after labialized consonants or w:

 $m\bar{a}'q^u$ crow 34.23 $ya'w\bar{\imath}s\bar{u}n$ (you) will pick 36.18 $\hat{\imath}lqwa'^a t_E m$ trunk of a tree 92.5, 6 $m\bar{\imath}'k^u t\bar{u}x$ he will cut m^uqwa' lem of crow 34.21 yuwa' he digs 96.18 ûqūtmī' a^ux qaa' into the stem they two went 92.6 m^ukwa' he cuts

Treatment of diphthongs:

 $xa^{i}tc$ - to roast (meat) 90.8 $p^{a}a^{i}tn$ - to hunt 15.3

 a^us - to sleep 23.9 $tc!ha^uc$ - to be glad 23.3 $q\bar{u}^it'$ - to dream 68.21

xatca^{i'} he roasts (meat)

*ul** nx palnī'tx they are hunting

82.16, 17

asū'' he sleeps 70.2

 $as\bar{u}^{i'}$ he sleeps 70.2 $tc!hac\bar{u}^{i'}$ he is glad $q\bar{u}t'a^{i'}$ he dreams

Shortening of the stem-vowel frequently takes place after the suffixation of an additional syllable, regardless of whether the accent had been shifted or not.

$y\bar{a}^{a'}xa^i$ much, many 8.5	$ya'xt\bar{u}x$ (ye two) will multiply 32.6 $yExa^{\bar{\imath}'}tc^wax x\hat{\imath}'nt\bar{\imath}s$ they (dual) con-
t!āmc infant 40.19	tinually multiply 98.12 t!î'met!'tūx (they) will raise chil-
$tc\hat{\imath}mtca'm\hat{\imath}$ ax 27.10	dren 32.3 tcîmtcî'mya (locative case) 29.1

In a few instances accent and suffixation have caused the loss or addition of a vowel, and hence that of an extra syllable.

qīūtcū'nî woman 30.21
qīūtcna' (when) he marries 76.8
mît!a'sk'în step-father
mît!a'sk'nī'tîn my step-father100.5
waa' muxu (they two) talk to
each other 10.7
talk to each other 56.4
waa' mxustx (they) began to talk
to each other 64.20, 21

 $qay\bar{u}'^{wi}nts$ stone

§§ 13-17. Consonantic Processes

 $gay^u na'ts^i tc$ upon the rock 62.11

§ 13. Consonantic Metathesis

This change affects mostly the subjective suffix for the third person dual $-a^n x$ (see § 24), and (very seldom) the consonantic combination n+s or n+ts.

In the first instance $-a^ux$ is transposed into -wax (contracted sometimes into -ux) or whenever it is added to stems or words that precede the verbal expression (see § 26). This transposition never takes place when the pronoun is suffixed to the verb.

$ts\hat{\imath}m \text{ (always)} + -a^u x$	$ts\hat{\imath}'m^wax$ always they two 50.10
$p = n\hat{\imath}' s \text{ (skunk)} + -a^{u} x$	ants $pen\hat{\imath}'s^wax$ those two skunks
ants (that one) + $-a^{u}x$	88.6, 7 <i>a'ntsux</i> those two 52.3, 5
$s^{E}ats\overline{i}'tc \text{ (thus)} + -a^{u}x$	$s^{\underline{x}}ats\overline{v}'tc^{\underline{w}}ax$ thus they two 50.15, 16
ul (and, then) $+-a^u x$	"'l" ax and they two
$an'ts\hat{n}tc$ (this his) $+-a^ux$	$a'ntsîtcx^u$ these their two 50.4

This transposition is seldom absent; and parallel forms, like $a'ntsa^ux$ and a'ntsux 50.12, $st\bar{\imath}'ma^ux$ 50.21, and $st\bar{\imath}'m^wax$ 52.20, are extremely rare. As a matter of fact, the tendency towards the metathesis of $-a^ux$ is so great that it takes place even in cases where $-a^ux$ is suffixed to stems ending in a vowel.

 $qwoa'txa^{\bar{\imath}}$ (beaver) + $-a^{u}x$ $qwoa'txa^{\bar{\imath}w}ax$ they two (he and) beaver 52.4 $ts\hat{\imath}m\hat{\imath}'l\dot{\cdot}\ddot{a}$ (muskrat) + $-a^{u}x$ $ts\hat{\imath}m\hat{\imath}l\dot{\cdot}a'wax$ they two (he and) muskrat 54.19

The transposition of n+s and ts actually occurs in a few instances only, although I have no doubt that under more favorable conditions a greater number of cases could have been collected (see also p. 599).

ants . . . $ha^iqa^{i\prime}$. . . when $tsa'na^{\bar{u}}$ $\bar{\iota}\bar{\iota}'\bar{u}t\bar{u}x$ when it will come he comes ashore 82.5 (this way) 62.21, 22 . . . ants $t\bar{k}wa'myax$ when it $tsa'ntc\hat{\imath}$ if you . . . 74.8 closed up 78.3 $k\bar{u}^i$ $n\grave{a}ts$ if not . . . 29.7

§ 14. Consonantic Euphony

This law requires that the consonants of the k-series should correspond to the quality of the vowel preceding or following it. Hence all velar and palatal k-sounds following a u-vowel become labialized. Owing to the fact that Siuslaw does not possess anterior palatal sounds, harmonization of consonants does not take place after or before i-vowels.

 $tk!an\bar{u}'k^u$ screech owl 86.1 $tcu'x^us$ vulva 90.16 $q\bar{o}'x^um$ off shore 34.6 cuqwa'an roast 90.12 $q\bar{o}'q^u$ knee

 $lkwa'nuq^u$ hat $t`a'nt\bar{u}q!w\bar{\imath}$ moceasins $ts!\bar{u}'xw\bar{\imath}$ spoon $k!u^xw\hat{\imath}na^{\bar{\imath}'}$ ice appears 76.13 $c\bar{u}'kwa$ sugar 1

§ 15. Simplification of Double Consonants

Double consonants, when not kept apart by means of an inserted weak vowel (see § 4), are usually simplified. This process especially takes place between two t and n sounds, in which case the repeated consonant is dropped. This phonetic law is of great importance; and it should always be borne in mind, because it affects the subjective suffix for the first person singular -n, when following the transitive form in $-\bar{u}n$. In such cases the subjective pronoun is invariably dropped; and since the third person singular has no distinct suffix, it becomes at times rather difficult to comprehend by which of these two persons a given action is performed (§§ 24, 28).

hatca't (tall, long) + - $t'\bar{u}$ $y\hat{\imath}kt$ (big) + - $t'\bar{u}^{wi}$ $w\hat{\imath}n$ (now) + -nxan $s\hat{\imath}'n^ixy\bar{u}n$ (he wants it) + -n $anxa'xa^{\bar{u}}n$ (he gives it up) + -n $m\hat{\imath}'ttc\hat{\imath}st$ (he begins to burn) + tx $y\bar{u}k'.\bar{\imath}'tc$ (in pieces) + -yax + -xam ha'tct'ū'u a long (time) 48.2
yîkt'ū'wi large size
wa'nxan now we (excl.) 30.13
sî'nixyūn I want it 30.4
anxa'xaūn I give him up 60.11
mî'ttcîstx Laa' his mouth begins to burn 29.3
yāk!ītcya'xam into pieces it
was cut 29.4

Compare, on the other hand,—

 $l^ikwa'y\bar{u}n$ (he takes it) +-nx $\iota!w\bar{a}'n\bar{\imath}s\bar{u}n$ (he keeps on telling him) +-nx

likwa'yūnanx you get it 48.18 L!wā'nīsūnanx you keep on telling him 17.2

§ 16. Modifications of t and k

Siuslaw seems to have a tendency to avoid as much as possible the clusters tn and kn. Since the phonetic character of certain suffixes causes t and n to come into contact frequently, there are many cases of sound shiftings due to the influence of n upon the preceding t. Combinations of this kind are the passive suffixes $-\bar{u}tnE$ and $-is\bar{u}tnE$ (see §§ 58, 59). In these cases the t closure is not formed, but replaced by a free emission of breath, thereby changing these suffixes into $-\bar{u}$ 'n_E and $-\bar{\imath}s\bar{u}$ 'n_E respectively. It is not inconceivable that this process may have a dialectic significance, differentiating the Lower Umpqua and Siuslaw dialects, because it was noticed that William Smith (who spoke the latter dialect) never used the forms -ūtnE and -īsūtne; while his wife 1 (a Lower Umpqua Indian) invariably hesitated to acknowledge the correctness of the use of $-\bar{u}'n_E$ and $-\bar{\imath}s\bar{u}'n_E$. But as I had no other means of verifying this possibility, I thought it advisable to discuss this change as a consonantic process. The dialectic function of the process under discussion may be borne out further by the fact that in a good many instances these two suffixes occur in parallel forms.

waa'' he says 8.9 $waa'y\bar{u}tne$ 20.6

 $s\hat{\imath}'nx\bar{\imath}$ - to desire 18.5 $s\hat{\imath}'n^{i}xy\bar{u}tn$ 18.4

 $waa'y\bar{u}$ 'n ε he is told 72.3

 $s\hat{u}'n^ixy\bar{u}'n_E$ it is desired 20.4

hatc' - to ask 66.16	$hatc'a'y\bar{u}tn$ 68.3	$hatc'ay\bar{u}''n_E$ he is asked 66.23
$xn\bar{\imath}^w n$ - to do 10.5	$xn\bar{\imath}'^wn\bar{u}tn_E$ 62.9	$xn\bar{\imath}'^wn\bar{u}$ 'ne it is done
waai' he says 8.9	$waa^{i\prime}sar{u}tn$ $=24.3$	waa ⁱ 'sū'nɛ he is continually told 23.10
$L\bar{\imath}'\bar{u}$ - to come 8.3	$L/\bar{\imath}L/w\bar{\imath}'s\bar{u}tne$ 26.2	<i>Lī'wīsū</i> ne he is continually approached 26.6
qazx- to count 8.5	qa' lxūtne 62.8	qa'ıxīsü'nɛ (they) are continually counted 62.11
k!ahai' he invites	tanx k!aha'yūtne th 24.3	is one you are invited
$t\bar{u}$ ' $tca^{i\prime}$ he spears 62.2	$t\bar{u}$ ' $tca'y\bar{u}tn_E$ it is spec	ared 8.7
hakwa ⁱ he drops	hakwa'yū'nE it is thre	own 8.7
$tq\bar{u}t\bar{u}^{i'}$ he shouts 92.6	$tq\bar{u}l\bar{u}'y\bar{u}'n_E$ he is shown	uted at 78.3
$hat \hat{n}'tx$ they shout 13.11	thatī's \bar{u} 'n E he is constant.	ntinually shouted at
\hat{cil} ·x- to move 27.3	$c\hat{n}'l\cdot x\bar{\imath}s\bar{u}tn_E$ he is con-	tinually shaken 27.2
$h^{i}yats$ - to put on 11.8	$h^i y a' t s \bar{\imath} s \bar{u} t n E$ it is con	ntinually put on 11.7

The verbal suffix -t expressing periphrastically the idea to have, to BE WITH SOMETHING (see § 76), is very often dropped when followed by the subjective pronouns that begin with n (see § 24; see also § 88).

```
atsī'tcītîn ha' thus I think
s̄ atsī'tcītîn ha' thus I think 21.7
na'm̄ t̄ītîn wa'as my language
36.13

L'a'ītanxan our residence na'm̄ t̄īnxan our . . . 102.5

100.3
```

 $h\bar{\imath}^{i\prime}s\bar{\imath}nxan$ $h\bar{\imath}ts\bar{\imath}'^{i}$ good (was) our house 100.13

The same tendency of dropping a consonant prevails in clusters consisting of k+n.

```
ta^ak (this here) +-nx tanx this one thou 20.6 ta^ak (this here) +-nxan ta'nxan these ones we . . . 25.3
```

The dropping of k in these instances may also be explained as having resulted from the abbreviation of ta^ak into t_E (see § 115); the more so, as an analogous case is furnished by the local adverb

 $st\bar{\imath}mk$ There, which usually loses its k before all following subjective suffixes (see § 119).

 $st\bar{\imath}mk$ (there) 30.18 + -nx $st\bar{\imath}'m^{\underline{\imath}}nx$ there they . . . 32.3 $st\bar{\imath}mkts$ (there you two) 32.12 $st\bar{\imath}mts$ there you two . . . 32.6 $st\bar{\imath}'mtc\hat{\imath}$ there you (pl.) 32.8

§ 17. Minor Consonantic Changes

In this section those changes affecting the consonants will be discussed, for which not enough examples could be found to permit the formulation of clearly defined rules.

Here belongs in first place the apparent change of a sonant into a fortis in initial reduplication, a process exemplified by only three cases.

 $L\bar{\imath}'\bar{u}$ - to come 9.2 $L/\bar{\imath}_L/w\bar{\imath}'s\bar{u}tn_E$ he is continually approached 26.2 $L/\bar{\imath}_L/wa'xam$ he is approached 16.3 $t = m\bar{u}'$ - to assemble 7.3 $t = m\bar{u}'xam$ people assemble about him (passive) 23.3

Another sporadic change is that of q and q! into k before the suffix of place $-\alpha^e m\bar{u}$ (see § 103).

 $yaq^{u^{\epsilon}}$ - to look 9.1 $y\hat{i}kya^{\epsilon}m\bar{u}$ a place from where one can see, a vantage point $ma'q/\bar{\imath}$ - to dance 28.7 $mEkya^{\epsilon}m\bar{u}$ a dance hall

Compare, however, on the other hand,

yaqu'ya'waxan I intend to look 25.8,9 mî'nq!yem buy a woman!

A third doubtful process consists in the change which the modal adverb $k\bar{u}^i$ $xyal^ix$ almost, nearly (see § 121), undergoes whenever used with the subjective pronouns for the second person singular or third person plural (see § 24). In such cases the form obtained is always $kw\bar{\imath}'n^Ex$ yal^ix thou almost, they almost, which may be explained as a result of a simplification from $k\bar{u}^i+-nx+xyal^ix$ (see § 15).

 $k\bar{u}^i xyal \cdot x \ sm\bar{u}'t'a$ it almost is $kw\bar{v}'n^{z}x \ yal \cdot x \ k\bar{u}'na'w\bar{u}n$ you almost the end 10.9, 11.1 beat him $kw\bar{v}nx \ yal \cdot x \ \iota\bar{\iota}'w\bar{\iota}l$ they had al-

most arrived 66.25

§ 18. GRAMMATICAL PROCESSES

All grammatical categories and syntactic relations are expressed in Siuslaw by one of the following four processes:

- (1) Prefixation.
- (2) Suffixation.
- (3) Reduplication.
- (4) Phonetic changes.

Prefixation as a means of expressing grammatical categories is resorted to in only two instances. Almost all grammatical ideas are expressed by means of suffixes. A singular trait of the suffixes in Siuslaw is presented by the fact that the adverbial suffixes are added to the locative form of the noun and must precede the pronominal suffixes. Reduplication is practically confined to the formation of intensive and durative actions; while phonetic changes are employed for the purpose of forming the discriminative case and of expressing duration and intensity of action.

§ 19. IDEAS EXPRESSED BY GRAMMATICAL PROCESSES

By far the majority of stems that constitute the Siuslaw vocabulary are neutral, receiving their respective nominal or verbal significance from the functional character of the suffix that is added to them. All stems expressing our adjectival ideas are in reality intransitive verbs.

Of the two prefixes employed as a means of expressing grammatical categories, one indicates relationship, while the other points out the performer of an action.

The suffixes are overwhelmingly verbal in character; that is to say, they indicate ideas of action and kindred conceptions. Hence they are employed for the purpose of expressing activity, causation, reciprocity, the passive voice, the imperative and exhortative modes, etc. The pronouns denoting both subject and object of an action are indicated by suffixes, as are also the possessive relations that may exist between the object of a sentence and its subject. All temporal ideas are conveyed by means of suffixes, and Siuslaw shows a remarkable development of this category, having distinct suffixes that express inception, termination, frequency, duration, intention of performing an action, as well as the present, future, and past tenses. Other ideas that are expressed by means of verbal suffixes are mainly

modal in character, indicating distribution, negation, location of action, and the attempt to perform a given act.

Nominal suffixes are, comparatively speaking, few in number, and express chiefly adverbial ideas, such as local relationships and instrumentality. They are used, furthermore, for the purpose of forming abstract concepts, diminutive and augmentative nouns, and also express cases of nouns.

Ideas of plurality are hardly developed; for, with the exception of two suffixes that express plurality of the subject of the sentence, Siuslaw has no other grammatical means of indicating plurality of action or of nominal concepts. Distinct verbal and nominal stems for singular and plural subjects or objects, such as are employed in other languages, do not exist. Plurality of subject and object is sometimes indicated by particles.

Reduplication expresses primarily repetition and duration of action; while phonetic changes serve the purpose of denoting the performer and intensity of action.

The grammatical function of particles covers a wide range of ideas, pertaining chiefly to the verb. Some express finality of action, sources of knowledge, emotional states, connection with previously expressed ideas, others have an exhortative and restrictive significance.

In the pronoun, three persons, and a singular, dual, and plural, are distinguished. Grammatical gender does not exist. The first person dual has two distinct forms,— one indicating the inclusive (I AND THOU), and the other the exclusive (I AND HE). In like manner the first person plural shows two separate forms,—one expressing the inclusive (I AND YE), and the other the exclusive (I AND THEY).

The demonstrative pronoun, while showing a variety of forms, does not accentuate visibility or invisibility, presence or absence, and nearness or remoteness, in relation to the three pronominal persons.

The numeral is poorly developed, exhibiting forms for the cardinals only. Means of forming the other numerals do not exist. They are expressed mostly by the cardinals. The ordinals are sometimes indicated by means of an adverbial suffix.

The syntactic structure of the sentence presents no complications. The different parts of speech may shift their position freely without affecting the meaning of the sentence. Nominal incorporation and

words that are compounds of independent stems do not exist, and words denoting nominal or verbal ideas can be easily recognized through the character of their suffixes.

MORPHOLOGY (§§ 20–136)

Prefixes (§§ 20-21)

Siuslaw has only two prefixes,—a fact that stands out most conspicuously when we consider the large number of prefixes that are found in some of the languages spoken by the neighboring tribes. Of these two prefixes, one is employed for the purpose of denoting nouns of relationship, while the other forms the discriminative case of nouns and pronouns.

§ 20. Prefix of Relationship m-

This prefix is found in a limited number of terms of relationship. All these terms occur also in Alsea, and it is quite conceivable that they represent loan-words assimilated by means of this prefix. By far the majority of nouns expressing degrees of relationship occur without the prefix m. Owing to the fact that Siuslaw does not permit an m to appear in initial consonantic clusters, the prefix is often changed into $m\hat{\imath}$ - (see § 4).

The following is a complete list of all terms employed in Siuslaw for the purpose of denoting the different degrees of relationship.

English	Siuslaw
Father	$m\hat{\imath}t\grave{a}^{2}$
Mother	mîlà ³
Elder brother	$mar{a}t.'ar{\imath}'$ 4
Younger brother	$m^uar{u}'sar{k}^{u}$ 5
Elder sister	$m\hat{\imath}sar{\imath}'a^{ar{\imath}}$ 6
Younger sister	$m\hat{\imath}ctc\bar{\imath}'^i$
Grandfather	$L\hat{i}pL$, $L\hat{i}pL'm\ddot{a}$ (see § 84)
Grandmother	kamı, kamı'mä (see § 84)
Grandson	$l\bar{\imath}m\bar{\imath}'sk'\hat{\imath}n$ (see § 83)
Granddaughter	$\ell t {\scriptscriptstyle E} k ar o' n$
Paternal uncle, stepfather	$m\hat{\imath}t!a'sk'\hat{\imath}n$ (see § 83)
Maternal uncle	$t.'ar{a}'^as\hat{\imath}ts.'\hat{\imath}^{7}$
Paternal and maternal aunt	$kar{u}'la$

See p. 437, note 1.
 Alsea tā^εa.

⁴ Alsea hā^et!.

⁶ Alsea sa^ea.
7 Alsea t!ā'atsa.

³ Alsea *lī€i*.

⁵ Alsea mū'tsīk'.

Parent-in-law mekłī' 1 Son-in-law $m\bar{u}'n(\bar{\imath})^2$ Daughter-in-law te'mxan (?) Brother-in-law, sister-in-law $t\bar{a}' maxt^3$ Stepmother mîlask'î'l'mä (sec §§ 83, 84) Stepbrother $m\bar{u}^u s k u' l \cdot m\ddot{a}$ (see § 84) Stepsister (?) Nephew (son of brother) lipt!ā't4 Nephew (son of sister); step-Niece (daughter of brother) $l\hat{n}'pxan$ (?)⁵ Niece (daughter of sister); $t\bar{\imath}n\bar{t}^6$ stepdaughter (?) Term of relationship, by mar $xay\bar{u}'sL^7$ riage, after the death of the person that caused this kinship

In addition to these terms of kinship, I have obtained a few other stems, whose exact rendering did not seem to be very clear in the minds of my informants. Thus, William Smith maintained that $q!a^isi'nt\bar{\imath}^s$ denoted elder sister; while Louisa Smith thought she remembered that $taq!\bar{\imath}'w\hat{\imath}$ signified brother-in-law. Other terms that may belong here are the nouns $tcm\bar{a}'n\bar{\imath}$ (rendered by my interpreter by cousin), that seemed to be used in addressing a non-related member of the tribe; $ts'il'm\bar{u}'t$ friend, referring to a person outside the consanguinity and affinity group; tsi'mqma people, folks; and te'q relative (see § 123).

§ 21. Discriminative q- (qa-)

This prefix is added to all terms of relationship and to all independent pronouns for the first and second persons, whenever they are the subject of a transitive action or whenever the presence of both a nominal subject and object in one and the same sentence necessitates the discrimination of the subject. The discriminative case of nouns

¹ Alsea mak·l.

² Alsea mūn.

³ Alsea temxt SISTER-IN-LAW.

⁴ Likewise so by Dorsey for "nephew." The use of this term for "stepson" contradicts the term for "stepfather."

⁵ Frequently rendered cousin.

⁶ The same contradiction as mentioned in note 4.

⁷ Coos xa'yusLätc.

alsea qa'sint.

other than terms of relationship is formed by means of an internal phonetic change (see § 111). The same case for the independent personal pronouns for the third person will be found discussed in § 113 (pp. 575 et seq.). The rules of consonantic clusters change this prefix frequently into qa- (see § 4).

mîtà father 54.22

 $m^{u}\bar{u}'sk^{u}$ younger brother 56.6

mîlà mother 54.23

nà I 21.8

na'han I 40.14 $n\bar{\imath}x^ats \text{ thou } 50.16$

 $na^{u'}x\hat{u}n$ we two (excl.) 36.15

na'nxan we (excl.)

watc who, somebody 10.1

qamîta'tc wî'ltcîstūn her father sent her 92.20

"t wàn waha' ha"n qa'msk"tc now again (said to him) his younger brother 56.20, 21

a'laq qīūtcî'l'mä ta'yūn qamîla'a'tîn one old woman kept (in
her house) my mother 100.12
tsī'k!yanx qnà sî'n'xyūts very
much thee I like 22.7

L!xū'yūn qna'han I know it 19.9 hū'sanx mā'nīsūts qnī'xats well thou shalt always take care of me 22.2, 3

"lnx qnī'x"ts xnī'"nīsūn and you will continually do it 98.10

 $qna'x\hat{u}n \text{ } \text{Lel}\bar{u}'y\bar{u}ts \text{ we two (excl.)}$ hit thee

 $qna'nxan \ ya'q^uh\bar{\imath}s\bar{u}ts$ we (excl.) will watch thee 72.6

qwatc $L!x\bar{u}'y\bar{u}n$ he who knows it 44.8

kumî'ntc^Ent qwàtc kū''nīsūts not us (excl.) anybody will ever beat 72.17

Suffixes (§§ 22-105)

§ 22. General Remarks

Besides the few ideas that are conveyed by means of other grammatical processes (such as prefixation, reduplication, etc.), Siuslaw employs suffixation as a means of forming practically all of its morphological and syntactic categories. These suffixes are either simple or they are compounded of two or more distinct formative elements. The compound suffixes usually have the cumulative significance of their separate component parts. In many cases, owing to far-reaching

phonetic changes, the derivation of the compound suffixes can not be given with certainty.

From a functional point of view all suffixes may be divided into a verbal and a non-verbal group; the former used in the formation of verbal ideas, the latter employed for the purpose of conveying grammatical concepts of a nominal, adjectival, or adverbial character. In one or two instances we do find a suffix denoting both verbal and nominal ideas. This is especially true of the suffix $-\bar{u}^u$, $-\bar{u}^{wi}$, which may indicate an act performed by several subjects, or else the abstract concept of that action (see §§ 79, 97); and of the auxiliary -t, which is also employed in the formation of a number of words denoting adjectival ideas. (See §§ 76, 104.) While it might have been more proper to discuss such suffixes in a separate chapter as "Neutral Suffixes," practical considerations have induced me to treat them in accordance with their functional values, notwithstanding the fact that this treatment entails some repetition.

The majority of Siuslaw stems are neutral, and receive their respective nominal or verbal meaning from the nature of the suffix that is added to them. There are, however, a few stems denoting adverbial ideas that can under no circumstances be amplified by nominal suffixes. Furthermore, it seems to be a general rule that nominalizing suffixes can not be added to a stem that has already been verbalized by some verbal suffix; while numerous instances will be found where a stem originally developed as a verbal idea, and nominalized by means of suffixes, can again be verbalized by adding to the derivative noun an additional verbal suffix.

The following examples will serve to illustrate the three possibilities that prevail in the derivation of verbs and nouns.

(1) NEUTRAL	STEMS:
-------------	--------

I'll O'LLILL O'LLILO		
Stem.	Verb	Noun
tsīl!- to shoot 8.6	$ts\hat{\imath}_L/a^{i'}$ he shoots 10.3	$ts\bar{\imath}'$ l./ $\bar{\imath}$ arrow 50.7
$t\bar{t}$!- to eat 13.10	$l^i t / a^{i\prime}$ he eats 44.19	$l\bar{\imath}'t/a^{\bar{\imath}}$ food 34.23
$h\bar{\imath}ts$ - to live	$h^{i}yats\bar{u}'^{wi}$ they live	$h\bar{\imath}ts\bar{\imath}'^i$ house 25.2
\bar{u} t- to snow	walt it snows	$\bar{u}'lt\bar{\imath} \text{ snow } 76.10$
tsxai- to shine (?)	tsxaya'' L!a'a' day	$tsxay\bar{u}'^{wi}$ day, sun
	breaks 50.3	7.3
$\bar{\imath}lq$ - to dig 80.6	$a'ntsux ya'tqa^{\bar{u}}n$ they	yałqa'a ^ŭ hole (in the
*	two dig (the ground)	ground) 84.6
	84.5	,

(2) Adverbial particles:

$s^{\mathbf{z}}a'tsa$ thus 8.7		$y\bar{a}'tsa\ s^{\mathbf{z}}a'ts^{\mathbf{z}}yax$ for a long time he did it thus 11.3, 4
		s ^z atsī'xamyax thus it was done 32.16
waha' again 19.5		waha'ha ^u n qa'msk ^u tc again (said to him) his younger brother 56.21
		wa''tūnx m ^u qwa'LEmte wa'as you will again (talk) Crow's language 38.8, 9 ¹
B) Norms.	Noun	T/o=b

Noun	Verb
$q ar{\imath} ar{u} t c ar{u}' n ar{\imath}$ woman	$q\bar{\imath}\bar{u}tcna^{i\prime}$ (when)
30.21	he marries 76.8
<i>pīctcem</i> summer	$p\hat{\imath}ctc\hat{\imath}ma^{i\prime}$ (when)
46.11	it gets summer
	54.2
wa'as language	$s^Ea^ina'mltc$ $wa'as$
34.21	$wa^{a'}syaxa^{\bar{u}}n$ his
	language he
	spoke 36.14
	qīūtcū'nî woman 30.21 pīctcēm summer 46.11

Verbal Suffixes (§§ 23-81)

§ 23. INTRODUCTORY

The study of the verbal suffixes of Siuslaw brings out a strong tendency to phonetic amalgamation between different groups of suffixes, by which the component elements are often obscured. For this reason the question of an ultimate relationship between many of the suffixes that occur in Siuslaw can not be ascertained as easily as might seem at first sight, owing chiefly to the fact that in most of the compound suffixes the originally separate elements have undergone considerable phonetic changes and have become to a large extent petrified. However, a careful examination of the phonetic composition of those suffixes that convey kindred psychological and gram matical concepts will show that certain phonetic elements of a given suffix may have served originally to conduce one leading idea, and have amalgamated, in the course of time, with other suffixes, thereby showing a genetic relationship between many of the verbal suffixes.

Thus, $-\bar{u}$ may have had primarily a transitive indicative function occurring in the suffixes $-\bar{u}n$ (see § 28), $-\bar{u}ts$ (see § 29), $-\bar{u}x$ (see § 30), etc. In like manner, -ts- may have been the proto-suffix that indicated pronominal relations between subject and object, being present in suffixes like $-\bar{u}ts$ (see § 29), $-\bar{t}ts$ (see § 31), $-\bar{u}tsm$ - (see § 34), $-\bar{u}tts$ (see § 36), $-\bar{t}ts$ (see § 42), etc.; and -l- seems to have been originally a modal suffix, denoting chiefly the possession of the object of the verb by another person or thing, because it is found in suffixes like $-\bar{u}t$ (see § 35), $-\bar{u}tts$ (see § 36), $-\bar{t}t$ (see § 45), $-\bar{t}tts$ (see § 46), etc. To all appearances $-\bar{t}$ must have been an independent suffix implying a command, for it enters into composition with imperative and exhortative suffixes like $-\bar{t}s$ (see § 62), $-\bar{t}ts$ (see § 42), $-\bar{t}mts$ (see § 44), $-\bar{t}t$ (see § 45), $-\bar{t}tts$ (see § 46), $-\bar{t}xm\hat{t}$ (see § 63), $-\bar{t}n\bar{t}$ (see § 41), etc.; and -tc was undoubtedly the general adverbial suffix.

The following table will best illustrate the plausibility of relationships between some of the suffixes that occur in Siuslaw. The forms marked with an asterisk (*) represent the probable original suffix, while the other forms indicate the suffixes as they appear today.

*- \bar{u} indicative

-ūn direct object of third person (see § 28)

-ūts direct object of first and second persons (see § 29)

-ūx indirect object of third person (see § 30)

-ūtsm object possessed by subject, but separable from it (see § 34)

-ūł object possessed by a third person object (see § 35)

 -ūlts object possessed by a first or second person object (see § 36)

 $-y\bar{u}n$, $-\bar{\iota}^w y\bar{u}n$ exhortative (see § 41)

 $-a^{w}\bar{u}n$ intentional (see § 70)

*-ts pronominal relations between subject and object -ūts direct object of first and second persons (see § 29)

-Emts indirect object of first and second persons (see § 31)

-ūtsm object possessed by subject,
 but separable from it (see § 34)
 -ūts object possessed by a first or second person object (see § 36)

-tts imperative with direct object of the first person (see § 42)

-*īmts* imperative with indirect object of the first person (see § 44)
-*īlts* imperative with object pos-

-*itts* imperative with object possessed by a first person (see § 46) -*tsx* imperative expressing posses-

-tsx imperative expressing possessive interrelations between object and subject (see § 47)

-ītsme exhortative expressing possessive interrelations between object and subject (see § 48)

*-ī imperative

 $-\bar{\imath}^w y \bar{u} n$, $-\bar{\imath} n \bar{\imath}$ exhortative with direct object of the third person (see § 41)

-*īts* imperative with the direct object of the first person (see § 42)

-*īmts* imperative with indirect object of the first person (see § 44)

-*it* imperative denoting that object is possessed by a third person (see § 45)

-*īlts* imperative denoting that object is possessed by a first person (see § 46)

-ītsme exhortative with possessive interrelations between object and subject (see § 48)

-īs imperative for transitive verbs (see § 62)

-īxmî intransitive exhortative (see § 63)

*-l possessive interrelations between object and subject

 $-\bar{u}l$ object possessed by a third person object (see § 35)

-ūlts object possessed by a first or second person object (see § 36)

-ūttx, -xamltx passive with possessive relations of subject (see § 39)

-*il* imperative denoting that object is possessed by a third person (see § 45)

-*īlts* imperative denoting that object is possessed by a first person (see § 46)

-l (?) exhortative (see § 64)

*-tc adverbial

-tc' tentative (see § 52)

-tc local (see § 90)

 $-\bar{\imath}tc \mod a \pmod 94$

In discussing these suffixes it seems convenient to begin with the group that appears in the sentence in terminal position and proceed backwards with our analysis. According to this treatment, we may distinguish—

- (1) Pronominal suffixes.
- (2) Objective forms.
- (3) Modal suffixes.
- (4) Temporal suffixes.
- (5) Verbalizing suffixes.
- (6) Plural formations.
- (7) Irregular suffixes.

PRONOMINAL SUFFIXES (§§ 24-26)

§ 24. The Subjective Pronouns

The pronouns denoting the subjects of an action, transitive and intransitive, as well as pronominal objects, are expressed by means of suffixes that invariably stand in terminal position. The third person singular has no distinct form. The first persons dual and plural have

distinct forms for the inclusive and exclusive. The same pronouns are used for all modes and voices. In the imperative the second person singular is omitted.

The following table will serve to illustrate what may be called the fundamental type of the subjective pronouns:

	Singu		Dual	· Plural
1st person sing		-n	-ns	$-n\overline{t}$
2d person		$n\boldsymbol{x}$	<i>-ts</i>	- $tc\hat{\imath}$
3d person		_	$-a^u x$	-nx
Exclusive du. and pl			$-a^u x \hat{u} n$, $-a x \hat{u} n$	-nxan

It would seem that the exclusive forms are derived from the third persons dual and plural and the first person.

These suffixes appear also in the independent personal pronouns (see §113). The suffix for the first person singular, -n, disappears regularly after the transitive $-\bar{u}n$ (see § 15), and the confusion that might arise from the fact that the transitive form for the third person singular ends in $-\bar{u}n$ also, is avoided by accentuation of the first person singular as the subject of an action by the additional use of the independent pronoun that either precedes or follows the verb.

The second person singular and the third person plural happen to consist of the same phonetic elements, -nx. Ambiguity of meaning in both forms is avoided by addition of the independent personal pronouns. The suffix for the third person dual undergoes frequent changes, which have been fully discussed in § 13.

The rules regulating consonantic clusters require the insertion of an obscure (or weak) vowel between stems ending in a consonant and any of the subjective suffixes that begin with a consonant (see § 4).

According to the manner in which the subjective pronouns are added to a given verbal stem, the verbs may be divided into the five following distinct groups:

- (1) Verbs that add the pronominal suffixes directly to the stem or that take them after the verbalizing suffixes $-a^i$ and $-\bar{u}^i$.
 - (2) Verbs that end in -ī.

§ 24

- (3) Certain verbs that end in x.
- (4) Verbs that express the third person singular by means of stem amplification (see § 112).
 - (5) Verbs that end in -a.

The first group presents no difficulties whatsoever. The subjective pronouns are added directly to the stem or else follow the verbalizing suffixes $-a^i$ and $-\bar{u}^i$ (see § 75).

A number of verbs seem to end in $-\bar{\imath}$, which undergoes a phonetic change whenever the pronominal suffixes are added to it. Thus, it is shortened when followed by the pronoun for the first person singular, and it undergoes the process of diphthongization (see § 7) whenever a pronoun for any of the other persons is added to it. Whenever the third person singular is to be expressed, the verb appears with $-\bar{\imath}$, which is often diphthongized into -ya. Verbs that take the tentative suffix -tc (see § 52) and the frequentative $-at/\bar{\imath}$ (see § 68) are treated similarly.

A peculiar treatment is accorded to certain verbs that end in x. Here belong only such verbs as have been amplified by means of the modal suffix $-\bar{\imath}t'ax$ (see § 51) and of the temporal suffixes -awax, $-t\bar{u}x$, and -yax (see §§ 70, 73, 74). These suffixes do not change their phonetic composition when followed by the pronouns for the first person singular and second persons dual and plural. However, as soon as the subjective pronouns for any of the other persons are added to them, the final x disappears. An exception to this rule is offered by the future $-t\bar{u}x$ (see § 73) when followed by the pronoun for the third person dual. In this case the final x is always retained. Whether the disappearance of the x is due to contraction or to other causes, can not be said with any degree of certainty.

The last two groups comprise verbs the stems of which undergo a process of amplification whenever the third person singular is to be expressed. Verbs belonging to the fourth group show an internal change of the stem, while those of the fifth group add an α to the bare stem. A full discussion of the phonetic character of these two processes will be found in § 112, p. 574.

In accordance with these five types of verbs, the following tabular arrangement of the pronominal suffixes may be presented:

		1st type	2d type	3d type	4th type	5th type
_	Singular Dual (incl.) Plural (incl.) .	-n -ns -nl	-în -yans -yanî	-xan -ns -nl	-n -ns -nl	-n -ns -nl
2d person-	Singular Dual Plural	-nx -ts -tcî	-yanx -yats -yatcî	-nx -xts -xtcî	-nx -ts -tcî	-nx -ts -tcî
3d person.		, -ai, -ūi -aux -nx	-ī, -ya -yaux -yanx	-x -xaux,-aux -nx	$ { Amplified \\ stem } \\ -aux \\ -nx $	-a -aux -nx
Exclusive	Dual	-auxûn -axûn -nxan	-ya¤xûn -yaxûn -yanxan	-auxún -axún -nxan	-auxûn -axûn -nxan	-auxûn -axûn -nxan

(1) Pronominal suffixes added directly to the stem or following the verbalizing $-a^i$ and $-\bar{u}^i$:

wînx- to be afraid 17.6
waa- to speak 7. 1
wînx- to be afraid 17.6
lnaw- to be rich 76.3
lqaq- to pass wind 86.7
tsînq!- to be poor 16.10
lit!ai he eats 46.5
tsînq!- to be poor 16.10

 $tc\bar{\imath}n$ - to come back skwa'- to stand 10.9 $tq\bar{\imath}d$ - to shout 52.8 $sm\bar{\imath}t$ '- to end 8.8 $qa'tc^int$ he goes 12. $x\hat{\imath}nt$ - to start 23.1 $ts\hat{\imath}nq$!- to be poor 16.10

yuwa'' he gets pitch 96.18

 $nEq\bar{u}^{i\prime}tx$ - to be cold

 $w\hat{\imath}'nx\hat{\imath}n$ I was afraid 58.22 waai'n I say wî'nxîns we two (incl.) are afraid *lnawwanl* we (incl.) are rich lga'ganx thou passest wind 86.14 tsî'nq!ats you two are poor lit!a'yats you two eat tsî'nq!atcî you are poor tsînq! he is poor $tc\bar{\imath}n$ he returned 7.7 skwahai he stands 14.4 $tq\bar{u}l\bar{u}^{i'}$ he shouted 92.6 $smît'\bar{u}^{i\prime}$ it ends 14.6 $ga'tc^{i}nta^{u}x$ they two go 23.1 xî'ntanx they started 88.20 $ts\hat{\imath}'nq!a^ux\hat{\imath}n$ we two (excl.) are poor $yuwa'ya^ux\hat{u}n$ we two (excl.) will get pitch 94.17, 18 $n E q \bar{u}^{i'} t x a n x a n$ we (excl.) are cold

76.20

(2) Pronouns added to verbs that end in $\bar{\imath}$:

xî'l'xcîn I work $x\hat{i}'l\cdot xc\bar{i}$ to work 50.3 $x\hat{i}'l$ xcyans we two (incl.) work xî'l'xcyant we (incl.) work $s\hat{n}'n^ixyanx$ (if) you desire 44.6 $\hat{si'nxi}$ to desire 18.5 sî'nixyats you two desire wî'nkyatcî you are working $w\hat{\imath}'nk\bar{\imath}$ - to work 50.6 wî'nkī he is working $x\hat{i}'l\cdot xc\bar{i}$ - to work 50.3 $x\hat{i}'l\cdot xc\bar{i}$ ($x\hat{i}'l\cdot xcya$) he is working 50.9 $x\hat{i}'l\cdot xcya^ux$ they two work xî'l'xcyanx they work $x\hat{i}'l \cdot xcya^u x\hat{u}n$ we two (excl.) are working xî'l'xcyanxan we (excl.) are work-

(3) Pronouns added to certain verbs that end in x:

- qa'tcintūxan I shall go 22.2 āga'waxan I intend to run away 90.21 лī'ūyaxan I came

ing.

 $\bar{a}'qt\bar{u}ns$ we two (incl.) shall run away 92.2

āqa'wans we two (incl.) intend to run away 90.23

 $xw\bar{\imath}' L/t\bar{u}n\bar{t}$ we (incl.) shall return

xwī'L!yant we (incl.) have returned $h\bar{u}'tct\bar{u}nl$ we (incl.) shall play 7.2 *Līwa'wanx* you intend to come 25.8 tai'yanx thou didst live $m\bar{\imath}'k^{u}t\bar{u}xts$ you two will cut 90.5 $t_{Em\bar{u}'t\bar{u}xtc\hat{i}}$ you shall assemble 30.7

 $L\bar{\imath}'\bar{u}t\bar{u}x$ he will come 8.9 āqa'wax he intends to run away

86.15 $ta^{i\prime}yax$ (if) he lives 44.12 $L\bar{\imath}\bar{u}'t\bar{u}xa^ux$ they two will come $z\bar{\imath}'\bar{u}ya^{u}x$ they two came $\bar{a}qa'wa^ux$ they two intend to run away 86.18

gatc^En- to go, to start 8.2

 $\bar{a}q$ - to run away 52.10

 $L\bar{\imath}'\bar{u}$ - to come 8.3 $\bar{a}q$ - to run away 52.10

 $xw\bar{\imath}_L$!- to return 12.6

 $h\bar{u}tc$ - to play 8.8 $L\bar{\imath}'\bar{u}$ - to come 8.3 ta^i it lives 32.21 $m\bar{\imath}k\bar{u}'$ - to cut 82.14 $t = m\bar{u}'$ to assemble 7.3 $L\bar{\imath}'\bar{u}$ - to approach 8.3 $\bar{a}q$ - to run away 88.3

 ta^i it lives 32.21 $L\bar{\imath}'\bar{u}$ - to approach 8.3

 $\bar{a}q$ - to run away 88.3

 $\bar{a}q$ - to run away 88.3

 $z\bar{\imath}'\bar{u}$ - to approach 8.3

āqa'wauxûn we two (excl.) intend to run away

 $L\bar{t}'\bar{u}t\bar{u}nxan$ we (excl.) will come 30.11

 $L\bar{\imath}'\bar{u}yanxan$ we (excl.) have come

(4) Amplification of stem:

 $\bar{\imath}lq$ - to dig 80.6 $c\bar{\imath}tx$ - to flop ha^{u} - to be ready 8.10 $L|\bar{o}n$ - to tell 16.9

yalq (they two) dig 84.7
ciyatx (they) flop (around) 36.23
ha'wa it is ready 23.10
L!waan he relates 16.6

(5) Verbs that end in -a:

 $ha\bar{u}'$ - to quit 11.4 wa- to speak 7.1 $qa'tc^in$ - to go 12.1 $w\bar{t}w$ - to affirm 17.7

ha'wa it is ready 23.10 waa' he said 12.10 qa'tc*na he goes 36.1 wīlwa' he affirms 58.9

§ 25. The Objective Pronouns

The same forms as those discussed in § 24 are used to express the pronominal objects. In these terms the verbal stem is followed by an objective element, which in most cases is followed first by the pronominal object, then by the pronominal subject. In all cases where this composition would bring two consonants into contact they are separated by a weak vowel (α or δ).

The objective elements here referred to are $-\bar{u}n$, which expresses the relation to the third person object, and $-\bar{u}ts$, which indicates the relation to the first and second persons. These will be treated more fully in §§ 27–29.

In all forms that express a relation of a second person subject or of an exclusive subject to a singular pronominal object, the latter is omitted, and the pronominal subject follows directly the objective element before referred to. Perfect clearness is attained here, since the objective element defines the person of the object. Thus the forms thou, ye two, ye, acting upon either first or second person, can refer only to the first person; I and He, and I and they, only to the second, for otherwise they would be reflexives. In the combination I—the the subject is omitted. In the combinations I—him, I—them two, I—them, the subject pronoun -n seems to have been contracted with the n of the objective element (see § 15); while in they—me the order of subject and object is reversed.

These phenomena may be indicated in the following tabular form:

I. OBJECTIVE FORMS FOLLOWED BY SUBJECT

Third person object			First a	nd second	l persons obj	ects	
. Subjects				Subj	ects		
Singula	r	Dual	Plural	Singula	ır	Dual	Plural
Inclusive . Exclusive . 2d person . 3d person .	- -ūnanx -ūn	-ūnans -ūnauxún -ūnats -ūnaux	-ūnanl -ūnanxan -ūnatcî -ūnanx	Inclusive . Exclusive . 2d person . 3d person .	- -ūtsanx -	-ūtsauxún -ūtsats -	-ūtsanxan -ūtsatcî -

II. SUBJECT OMITTED

I-THEE- - ūtsanx.

III. INVERSION OF SUBJECT AND OBJECT

THEY-ME - ūtsanxîn.

IV. SEQUENCE: OBJECT-SUBJECT

All dual and plural objects; all third person subjects (except THEY-ME).

The following table may serve to illustrate more fully the forms that are used in Siuslaw to express relations between subject and object. Suffixes marked with an asterisk (*) are forms reconstructed by analogy.

	SINGULAR						
		1	Thou	He			
Sin- gular	Me	- -ūtsanx -ūn	-ūtsanx - -ūnanx	-ūtsin -ūtsanx -ūn			
Dual	Inclusive Exclusive You	- -ūtsatsîn { -ūnauxîn { -ūn	- *-ūtsa¤xûnanx - -ūnauxanx -ūnanx	-ūtsans -ūtsauzūn -ūtsats -ūnaux -ūn			
Plural	Inclusive Exclusive You	- -ūtsatcin { -ūnanxin -ūn	- *-ūtsanxananx - -ūnanxanx -ūnanx	-ūtsant -ūtsanxan -ūtsatcî -ūnanx -ūn			

	DUAL						
		Inclusive	Exclusive	Ye	They		
Sin- gular	Me Thee Him	- - -ūnans	-ūtsauxûn -ūnauxûn	-ūtsats - -ūnats	-ūtsinaux *-ūtsanxaux -ūnaux		
Dual	Inclusive Exclusive You	- - {ūnauxans ūnans	- -ūtsatsauxûn -ūnauxauxûn -ūnauxûn	-ūtsauxūnats -ūnauxats -ūnats	-ūtsansaux *-ūtsauxúnaux *-ūtsatsaux - -		
Plural	Inclusive Exclusive You	- - - { -ūnanxans { -ūnans	- -ūtsatcyaxûn -ūnanxauxûn -ūnauxûn	-ūtsanzanats -ūtsanzanats -ūnanzats -ūnats	*-ūtsanlaux -ūtsanxanaux -ūtsateyaux -ūnanxaux -ūnaux		
	PLURAL						
		Inclusive	Exclusive	You	They		
Sin- gular	Me	- -ūnant	- -ūtsanxan -ūnanxan	{ -ūtsatcî } -ūtsînatcî } -ūnatcî	-ūtsanxîn *-ūtsanxanx -ūnanx		
Dual	Inclusive Exclusive You	- - { -ūnauxanl -ūnanl	- -ūtsatsanxan -ūnauxanxan -ūnanxan	*-ūtsauxúnatcî ūnauxatcî ūnatcî	*-ūtsansanx *-ūtsauxūnanx *-ūtsatsanx -ūnauxanx -ūnanx		
Plural	Inclusive Exclusive You	- - - -ŭnanzanł -ūnanł	- -ūtsateyanxan -ūnanxan -ūnanxan	- -ūtsanxanatcî - -ūnanxatcî -ūnatcî	-ūtsanlanx *-ūtsanxananx -ūtsatcyanx -ūnanxanx -ūnanx		

While all these forms may actually appear suffixed to the verb, there prevails a tendency (discussed on p. 479) to suffix the subjective pronouns to adverbial terms preceding the verb rather than to the verb itself. This transposition of the suffixes for the subject of the action considerably lessens the syllabic quantity of the whole verbal expression.

The pronoun I-THEE coincides phonetically with the form for THOU-ME; and in order to avoid ambiguity of meaning, the subjects

of these combinations may be indicated by means of the discriminative forms of the independent personal pronouns (see §§ 21, 113).

All forms having a third person as the object do not, as a rule, indicate the number of the subject. This is rather done by means of the numeral $x\bar{a}'ts/\bar{u}$ two for the dual, and the numeral particle $ha^{\nu}m\bar{u}t$ ALL for the plural.

The difficulty arising from the fact that the suffix $-\bar{u}nanx$ may express thou-him, etc., and they-him, etc., is bridged over by the additional use of the independent pronouns for thou and they (see § 113). This rule applies to all cases, so that it may be stated that, whenever, by some process of contraction, simplification, or abbreviation, two or more suffixes expressing identical relations be tween subject and object are phonetically alike, their subjects are indicated by the use of the independent pronominal forms. Thus, for instance, the form $-\bar{u}tsanx$ may express I-thee, thou-me, and he-thee. These are usually distinguished by means of the pronouns qna I, $qn\bar{v}x^ats$ thou, and s^aas he (see § 113), that are placed before or after the verb, denoting that the first, second, or third person respectively is the subject of the action.

The third person singular has no subjective element, owing to the fact that Siuslaw has no distinct form for that pronoun (see § 24).

 $\hat{si'nxi}$ to desire 18.5

 $waa^{i'}$ he says 19.3

 $l^ikwa^{i'}$ he gets, he takes 82.6

 $h\bar{\imath}n$ - to take along 9.5

tcaq- to spear 68.18

yaqu'- to look, to watch 9.1

yax- to see 34.4 $xn\bar{\imath}^w n$ - to do 9.7

 $t = m\bar{u}'$ - to assemble 7.3

sî'nîxyūtsanx qnà hūtca'wax I want thee to have fun 21.6

 $s^{z}ats\bar{v}'tc^{z}nx$ $waa'y\bar{u}ts$ (when) thus thee I tell 36.19

 $s^{E}a'tsanx\ tunx\ l^{i}kwa'y\bar{u}ts\ qn\grave{a}$ that's why I (came to) get thee 21.3

hiya'nyūtsanx hītsî'stcīn I'll take thee into my house 58.6

 $ya^{\epsilon}k^{u}sin$ $tc\bar{a}qa'qa^{\bar{u}}n$ a seal I was spearing 68.8

ya'qu'yūtsats qnà I will look at you two

yîxa'yūna^uxîn qnà I see them two s^ɛa'tsa^uxîn xnīyunī'^wyūn thus to them two I will do it 88.17

kumî'nte*tcî nîcteī'te ta'tcî temū'ūts not you in vain these you I assembled 30.18, 19 $s^{E}a'tsa$ thus 8.7

 $waa^{i'}$ he says 8.9

 $t = m\bar{u}'$ - to assemble 7.3 $t q \bar{u} t$ - to shout 52.8

 $m\bar{a}n$ - to take care of 38.13

 $L/wa^a n$ - to tell 16.5

 $LEl\bar{u}^{i\prime}$ he is hitting

 yaq^{u^*} - to look 9.1

waa'- to speak 7.1

 $h\bar{\imath}n$ - to take along 9.5

 $L/x\bar{u}$ - to know 19.9 yax- to see 20.10

skwa'- to stand 10.9 yax- to see 20.10 $LEl\bar{u}^i$ he hits

yax- to see 20.10

xîntm- to travel 13.3

 $k\bar{u}$ 'n- to beat 78.18

s*atsa'ūtsatcî* thus I (do it) for you 32.14

 $ha^{i\nu}m\bar{u}t^{i}nxan\ waa'y\bar{u}n$ (to) all them I tell it

temū'ūnanxîn I assemble them tqūlū'yūtsanx qnī'xats thou art shouting at me

hī'sanx mā'nīsūts qnī'xats well thou shalt always take care of me 22.2, 3

L!wā'nīsūnanx s*atsī'tc thou wilt keep on telling him thus 17.2

lna'tînx lelū'yūtsauxûn always thou art hitting us two (excl.)

 $LE l\bar{u}'y\bar{u}nanx\ t\bar{u}'a^{u}x\ x\bar{a}'ts'\bar{u}$ thou art hitting those two

 $ya'q^uh\bar{\imath}s\bar{u}tsanxan\ h\bar{\imath}'^isa$ thou shalt always watch us (excl.) well 70.14, 15

ya'qu'yūnanx qnī'xats thou wilt look at them

waa'a^ūtsîn he told me 58.18 atsī'tcîn waa'a^ūts thus me he told 58.20

 ${}^{u}l^{i}n$ $s^{\underline{v}}$ às $h\bar{\imath}'n\bar{\imath}xa^{\bar{\imath}}ts$ $qa^{i}ha'ntc$ and me he took way off 66.18

L!xū'yūtsanx s̄a thee he knows tcī'k̄nx yîxa'yūts mā'quL ul̄nx wa'āsūts tsîm wherever thee sees Crow, to thee he will keep on talking always 38.16, 17

 $skwaha'ha^{\bar{u}}n \ s^{\bar{z}}$ às he set it up

 $y \hat{\imath} x a' y \bar{u} n$ he sees it 70.2

LE $l\bar{u}'y\bar{u}tsans\ s^{E}as$ he is hitting us two (incl.)

yîxa'yūtsauxûn he is looking at us two (excl.)

ula^ux xî'ntmīsūn he takes them two along 92.16

kumî'ntc^enl qwàtc kū''nīsūts not us (incl.) any one will ever beat 72.17 yaqu'- to look 9.1

 $L\bar{\imath}'\bar{u}$ - to come 9.2

 $LE l\bar{u}^{i\prime}$ he hits

 $xn\bar{\imath}^w n$ - to do 9.7

 $LE l\bar{u}^{i'}$ he hits

 $xa\bar{u}'$ he died 40.21

 $LE l\bar{u}^{i'}$ he hits

ya'qu'yūtsanxan szàs he looks at us (excl.)

 $h^i y a' t c^{\mathbf{E}} n x a n \ L/\bar{\imath}' L/\bar{\imath} t s$ people us (excl.) came (to see) 100.8

LElū'yūtsatcî he is hitting you sza'sūtsatcî Lelū'yūts he is hitting you

 $\text{Lel}\bar{u}'y\bar{u}nanx\,s^{\text{E}}as$ he is hitting them $s^{\text{E}}as\,ha^{i\prime}m\bar{u}t\,\text{Lel}\bar{u}'y\bar{u}n$ he hits all

 $xn\bar{\imath}^wn\bar{\imath}'^wy\bar{u}ns$ 10.5 (abbreviated from $xn\bar{\imath}^wn\bar{\imath}'^wy\bar{u}nans$) we two (incl.) will do it

 $LE l\bar{u}'y\bar{u}tsa^ux\hat{u}n$ we two (excl.) are hitting thee

qna'xūn Lelū'yūts we two (excl.) are hitting thee

xaū'nauxûn ants mī'k!a hītc we two (excl.) killed that bad man 96.8.9

qnawxûn Lelū'yūtsats we two (excl.) are hitting you two

qna'xûn lelū'yūn we two (excl.) are hitting him

Lelū'yūnauxûn tū'aux xā'ts/ū we two (excl.) are hitting those two qna'xûn Lelū'yūtsatcî we two (excl.) are hitting you two

qna'xûn wlxûn Lelū'yūn tū'a L!a'ai we two (excl.) are hitting those (many)

 $Lel\bar{u}'y\bar{u}tsats \ qn\bar{\imath}'x^ats \ you \ two \ are$ hitting me

LElū'yūnats you two are hitting him

 $qn\bar{\imath}'x^ats$ LE $l\bar{\imath}'y\bar{\imath}tsa^ix\hat{\imath}n$ you two are hitting us two (excl.)

Le $t\bar{u}'y\bar{u}nats$ $t\bar{u}'a^ux$ $x\bar{a}'ts.'\bar{u}$ you two are hitting those two

 $qn\bar{v}'xts^{E}ts$ $ha^{i'}m\bar{u}t^{i}nxan$ $LEl\bar{u}'y\bar{u}ts$ you two are hitting us (excl.) all

LElū'yūnats ha''mūt you two are hitting (them) all

 $s^{\underline{x}}a's^{\underline{w}}ax$ LE $t\bar{u}'y\bar{u}ts\hat{\imath}n$ they two are hitting me

ya'x- to see 20.10

 $qn\bar{u}$ '- to find $LEl\bar{u}^{i\prime}$ he hits

L!xmīyai he kills

k/a'- to invite 16.3

hatc'- to ask 66.16

 $yaq^{u'}$ - to look 9.1

 $s\hat{\imath}'nx\bar{\imath}$ - to desire 18.5

 $Lx\bar{u}\bar{i}'$ - to dry 60.19

 $LE t \bar{u}^{i\prime}$ he hits

anx- to give up 54.12

 $yaq^{u'}$ - to look 9.1

hatc'- to ask 66.16

yaqu'- to look 9.1

waai he says 19.3

 $y\hat{\imath}xa'y\bar{u}na^ux$ they two saw him 62.20, 21

 ${}^{w}\bar{l}a^{u}x \ qn\bar{u}'h\bar{u}n$ they two find it 56.9 $s^{E}a's^{w}ax \ {}_{LE}\bar{l}\bar{u}'y\bar{u}tsans$ they two are hitting us two (incl.)

 $s^{\underline{x}}a's^{\underline{w}}ax$ Le $t\bar{u}'y\bar{u}tsanxan$ tney two are hitting us two (excl.)

tūa'swax lelū'yūtsatcî those two are hitting you two

 $t\bar{u}a's^wax$ $Lel\bar{u}'y\bar{u}n$ $ha^i'm\bar{u}t$ those two are hitting (them) all

L!xmīya'yūnant we (incl.) will kill him 28.3

qnànł L!xmīya'yūn tū'anx we (incl.) will kill those (all)

 $s^{E}a'tsanxan \ k.'aha'y\bar{u}ts$ that's why we (excl.) invite thee 24.10

a'tsanxan te hatc'a'yūts qnà that's why we (excl.) ask thee 74.15

 $qna'nxan \quad ya'q^uh\bar{\imath}s\bar{u}ts \quad \text{we (excl.)}$ will continually watch thee 72.6

 $s\hat{i}'n^ixy\bar{u}nanxan$ $L\bar{i}'\bar{u}t\bar{u}x$ we (excl.) want him to come 17.2, 3

 $y\bar{a}^{a'}xa^inxan\ tt'\bar{\imath}'a^{\bar{\imath}}\ _{Lxuy\bar{u}'}y\bar{u}n\$ lots we (excl.) salmon dry it

qna'nxan LElū'yūtsats we (excl.) are hitting you two

qna'nxan Lelū'yūn tū'a^ux xā'ts.'ū we (excl.) are hitting those two qna'nxan Lelū'yūtsatcî we (excl.) are hitting you (pl.)

ha''mūtinxan Lelū'yūn qnà we (excl.) are hitting (them) all

a'nxa^utsatcî you (shall) let me alone 27.5

 $yaq^{u'}y\bar{\iota}'^wy\bar{\iota}tsatc\hat{\iota}$ haya' $m\bar{\iota}t$ you all shall look at me 72.11, 12

hatc'a'yūnatcî you (shall) ask her 74.10

ya'q'' yūtsa''xûn qnī'xtsEtcî you are looking at us (excl.)

atsī'tcɛnxan waa'yūts thus they told me 46.20, 21

sî'nxī- to desire 18.5

L!xma'yanxîn sî'nixyūts (to) kill
me they want 21.9

ts'iha'yūn he kills it 46.5, 6

L!waan- to tell 16.5

L!waan- to tell 16.5

L!xma'yanxîn sî'nixyūts (to) kill
me they want 21.9

ts'iha'yūnanx ants Lî'mna'q they
kill that elk 82.17, 18

tūa'sEnx L!ōna'yūtsant these told
us (incl.)

§ 26. Position of Pronouns in Verbs Accompanied by Adverbial Forms

As has been stated before (see p. 474), the pronominal suffixes stand in terminal position, and theoretically are added to the verb; but whenever an adjective, an adverb, or a particle precedes the verb, the pronouns are preferably suffixed to these and precede the verbal expression. The verb appears in all such cases in what may be called the fundamental type (see pp. 470, 474).

<i>nî'ctcîm</i> because 18.8	nî'ctcîmîn meq!ya'wax because I intend to dance 72.12
kumî'nte not 12.2	kumî'ntc⁵nx płna'' not you are sick 86.14
ta^ik here	$ta^{i\prime}k^{\underline{e}}ns \ aya'qa^{\overline{i}}t\overline{i} \ te \ s\overline{i}'xa^{\overline{i}}$ here we two (incl.) will leave this (our) canoe 56.5
$sqa^{i}k$ there 14.6	sqa [‡] kts qa'tc [‡] ntūx, sqa [‡] kts t!îm- ct! [‡] tūx there you two shall go, there you two shall raise chil- dren 32.5
s ^E atsi'tc thus 8.1	s ^z atsī'tc ^w ax waana'wa thus they two speak to each other 10.1, 2
$ha^{i}na$ different 58.9	$ha^{i'}nanl$ $h\bar{u}'tct\bar{u}x$ differently we (incl.) will play 11.2
$y\bar{a}^{a\prime}xa^{i}$ much 8.5	$y\bar{a}^{a'}xa^{i}nxan\ h\bar{u}tc\bar{u}^{i'}$ lots (of games) we (excl.) play 70.19
$tc\bar{\imath}k$ where 34.2	$tc\bar{\imath}'ktc\hat{\imath}' h\bar{u}tc\bar{u}^{i\prime}$, $s^{\bar{\imath}}atsa'tc\hat{\imath}' xn\bar{\imath}'^{w}n\bar{\imath}s$ where (ever) you play, thus you will keep on doing it 72.20, 21
$^{\it ul}$ and, then 7.4	"Inx wàn toi" then they finally returned 60.10, 11

The same tendency to suffix the subjective pronouns to adverbial expressions that precede the verb is shown even in cases where a verbal expression is preceded by a nominal subject or object.

 $\hat{u}_{l} q w a^{a'} t E m$ root, alder tree $\hat{u}_{l} q \bar{u} t m \bar{v}' a^{u} x \ q a a^{i'}$ an alder tree they 92.5, 6 two entered 92.6 $y a^{e} k^{u} s$ seal 62.4 $y E k \bar{u}' s^{E} n x \ t \bar{u}' t c a^{i'}$ sea-lions they spear 62.2 $q a^{i} x$ night 40.14 $q a^{i} v^{E} n x \ a' l \cdot d \bar{u} \ y a' q^{u} h \bar{u} t \bar{u} x (at)$ night likewise you will watch 70.18, 19

OBJECTIVE FORMS (§§ 27-48)

§ 27. Introductory

In sentences containing subject and object the interrelation between them is expressed with great definiteness by means of suffixes that precede the subjective and objective pronouns. My original intention was to treat these suffixes as pronominal elements; but the chief objection to such a treatment lies in the fact that the pronouns, subjective and objective, are repeated after them. Hence it was found advisable to treat them as objective elements. In the expression of the relations a distinction is made between third person objects on the one hand, and first and second persons on the other. Furthermore, the indirect object is distinguished from the direct object, and the same classification of persons is found. The possessive relations between the subject and the two objects are also expressed with great clearness; and, finally, a sharp line of demarcation is drawn between the indicative, imperative, and passive modes.

It would seem that the following table represents all the suffixes belonging to this group:

INDICATIVE			IMP	ERATIVE	PASSIVE	
Personal Interrelations						
Object	1st & 2d per.	3d per.	1st per.	3d per.		
Direct	-ũts	-ūn	-īts	-yūn, -īnī īwyūn		
Indirect	-Emts	-ũx	$-\bar{\imath}mts$	-уйх	-īmE, -ūmE	
	Possessive Interrelations					
Forms of possession						
Not own .	-ūlts	-ū l	-īlts	-71	$-\bar{u}ltx$	
Own insep	$-\bar{\imath}tx$, $-\bar{\imath}tsm$			itsx itsm	-xamltx	

Some of these forms are applicable to the present tense only, showing different suffixes in other tenses. Thus, an entirely divergent treatment is accorded to the suffixes denoting possessive interrelations for the durative, intentional, and past tenses (see § 37).

For the purpose of greater clearness, these forms have been subdivided into the following four groups:

- (1) Indicative forms denoting personal interrelations.
- (2) Indicative forms expressing possessive interrelations between object and subject.
- (3) Passive suffixes indicating pronominal and possessive interrelations.
- (4) Imperative forms denoting pronominal and possessive interrelations.

Indicative Suffixes Denoting Personal Interrelations (§§ 28–31)

§ 28. Direct Object of Third Person -un (-aun)

This suffix transforms nouns into verbs, transitivizes all verbs expressing intransitive actions, and changes a transitive idea into a causative concept. In all these cases the object must be a third person. All stems ending in *i*-diphthongs change the *i* of the diphthong into y before adding the transitive suffix (see § 8). This suffix immediately precedes the subjective pronouns, and hence invariably follows the tense signs. For the interchange between $-\bar{u}n$ and $-a^{\bar{u}}n$ see § 2.

 $k!u^x w \hat{i} n a^{\bar{i}'}$ ice appears 76.13

 $tEk!\bar{a}'kL!$ trap 100.4 $yalqa'a^{\bar{a}}$ hole 84.6

 $s^{\underline{z}}a'tsa$ thus 8.7 $h\bar{\imath}''sa$ well 12.2 $w\hat{\imath}nx$ he is afraid 17.6

cîl·x it shook 36.10 malte- to burn 25.2

 $xa\bar{u}'$ he died 40.21 ma^atc it lay 32.26

 $k!u^xw\bar{\imath}'n\bar{u}n \ \underline{\iota}!a'^{ai}$ ice he made all over 94.2, 3 $t\bar{\iota}k!\bar{\iota}'k\underline{\iota}!\bar{u}n$ he sets traps

a'ntsux ya'lqa^un those two (who) dig holes 84.5

 $s^{E}atsa'\bar{u}n$ thus (he does it)

 $h\bar{\imath}sa'\bar{u}n$ he cures him

 $w\hat{\imath}'nxa^{\bar{u}}n$ she was afraid of him 86.1

cî'l'xūn she shook him 58.4

 $ma'ltc\bar{u}^u n$ $L\bar{\imath}ya'wa$ he made a fire 94.23

xaū'ūn he killed him 96.13
qaux ma'tcūn on top (they) put it
80.9

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 $xn\bar{\imath}'^w n_E$ (they two) do 48.12 $L/wa^a n$ he tells 16.5

waa' he says 12.10 waa^i he said 8.9 $l^it/a^{i'}$ he eats 44.19 $y\hat{i}xa^{i'}$ (they) look 66.6 $t\bar{u}$ ' $tca^{i'}$ (they) spear 62.2

tai it sits 32.21

 $qn\bar{u}h\bar{u}^{i\prime}$ he finds $tq\bar{u}t\bar{u}^{i\prime}$ he shouted 92.6 $ya'q^uha^{\bar{\imath}}t$ he looked 25.3 ${}^uta^ux\ w\bar{v}'t\bar{u}t$ they two affirmed 90.6 wa'ayax he spoke $x\hat{v}'ntm^iyax$ he traveled

xî'ntmīs (you) will continually travel 13.3 wa'a's he says continually 26.8

 $L\bar{\imath}'\bar{u}$ (they) came 9.3 $xa\bar{u}'$ he died 40.21

 $y \hat{\imath} x a^{i\prime}$ he sees

hatc'- to ask 66.16

 $xn\bar{\imath}'^w n\bar{u}n$ he did it 94.14 $ula^u x \ {\it L}!wa^{a'} n\bar{u}n$ they two told her 96.10

waa'a^ūn he said to him 20.7
waa'yūn he told him 36.26
lit'a'yūn he devoured him 15.2
lit yîxa'yūn and he saw it 58.13
litenx tū'tca'yūn they spear (them)
62.5

 $ta'y\bar{u}n$ $qam\hat{\imath}la'a^{\bar{\imath}}t\hat{\imath}n$ my mother kept her 100.12

teʻq qnūhū'yūn something he finds tqūtū'yūn he shouts at him ya'quha'tūn (I) look at them 25.5, 6 ut mā'qu wi'tūtūn Crow answered him 36.6, 7

wa^uyaxa^ūn he spoke to him 36.11 ul xi'ntmⁱyaxa^ūn he took (them) along 92.13

 $qn\bar{\imath}'xts^{E}nx$ $x\hat{\imath}'ntm\bar{\imath}s\bar{\imath}n$ you will always carry it 14.3 $wa'a^{\bar{\imath}}s\bar{\imath}n$ (you) keep on telling him

wa'a'sūn (you) keep on telling hii

 $L\bar{u}\bar{u}'\bar{u}n$ he got (there) 16.3 $xa\bar{u}'na^ux\hat{u}n$ we two (excl.) killed him 96.8, 9

 $y\hat{i}xa'y\bar{u}na^ux$ they two see it 62.20, 21

hatc'a'yūnatcî you ask her 74.10

§ 29. Direct Object of First and Second Persons -ūts (-aūts)

This suffix indicates that an action has been performed upon a first or second person as object. The person of the actor is expressed by suffixing to $-\bar{u}ts$ the corresponding subjective pronouns (see § 24). Its use corresponds to that of $-\bar{u}n$ for the third person object.

An explanation for the interchange between $-\bar{u}ts$ and $-a^{\bar{u}}ts$ will be found in § 2. This suffix follows all other verbal suffixes excepting, of course, the subjective pronouns. The \bar{u} unquestionably denotes the indicative mode, and is identical with the \bar{u} in $-\bar{u}n$, $-\bar{u}x$, $-\bar{u}tts$, $-\bar{u}t$, etc. (see §§ 23, 28, 30, 35, 36).

This suffix has been referred to in § 25, where a tabular presentation of the different combined subject and object pronouns will be found.

sî'nixyūtsanx qnà hūtca'wax I $s\hat{\imath}'nx\bar{\imath}$ to desire 18.5 want you to have fun 21.6 ya'qu'yūtsats qnà I will look at yaqu'- to look 9.1 vou two hī'sanx mā'nīsūts well thou shalt $m\bar{a}n$ - to take care 38.13 always take care of me 22.2 $ya'q^uh\bar{\imath}s\bar{u}tsanxan$ $h\bar{\imath}'^isa$ thou yaqu'- to look 9.1 shalt always watch us (excl.) well 70.14, 15 $waa'a^{\bar{u}}ts\hat{\imath}n$ he told me 58.18 waa'- to speak 7.1 $tc\bar{\imath}'k^{\mathbf{E}}nx\,y\hat{\imath}xa'y\bar{\imath}ts\,m\bar{a}'q^{u}L$ where $y\bar{a}x$ - to see 13.7 ever Crow sees thee 38.16, 17

For further examples see § 25.

§ 30. Indirect Object of Third Person -ux (-aux)

Each language has a number of verbal expressions that require the presence of a direct and indirect object. Such verbs are, as a rule, distinguished from other stems by means of some grammatical contrivance. Siuslaw uses for that purpose the suffix $-\bar{u}x$ added to the bare stem. This suffix, however, is used only when the third person (singular, dual or plural) is the indirect object of the sentence. As soon as the first or second person becomes the indirect object, another suffix, -xmts, is used (see § 31).

The pronoun expressing the subject of the action always follows the suffix $-\bar{u}x$.

waxax- reduplicated stem of $ul\ waxa'xa^{\bar{u}}x\ ants\ m\hat{\imath}'n^ixw\bar{\imath}$ then he gave him that lightning 38.2 (for wax- to give 18.5 $\bar{u}x = a^{\bar{u}}x$ see § 2) s^{E} às $ha'mts\bar{u}x$ he dipped it out for hamts- to dip out him 46.6 hiyatsî'ts- reduplicated form $h^{i}yats\hat{i}'ts\bar{u}xan$ I put it on him of $h\bar{\imath}ts$ -, $h^{i}yats$ - to put on, to wear 11.8 lak^{u} - to take, to fetch 7.5 lakwa'kūxan I took it away from him hamx- to tie 8.6. hamxî'xûx he tied it on him

§ 31. Indirect Object of First and Second Persons -Emts

This suffix is used only with verbal stems that require a direct and indirect object. The direct object expressed by this suffix is always the third person, while the indirect object must be either a first or

a second person, regardless of number. The suffix expressing the same idea with the third person as the indirect object has been discussed in § 30. The pronominal suffixes denoting the subject of the action and its relation to the direct object are the same as those used in connection with the suffix $-\bar{u}ts$ (see § 29). The verbal stem to which this suffix is added has frequently terminal reduplication.

hamx- to tie 8.6 wax- to give 18.2	hamxî'xemtsanx I tie it on thee qna'hamts*nx wā'xa*semts to thee I will keep on giving it 44.15 wāxa'xemtsanxîn they gave it to me
$h\bar{\imath}tsa^{i\prime}$ he put it on	hītsa'yemtsanx qnīxats you put it on me sēa'sîn hiyatsî'tsemts he put it on me sēa'sēnx hītsa'yemts he put it on thee
a^iq - to leave 56.5 wax- to give 18.2	$a^i q a' q emts \hat{i} n$ he left it to me $w \bar{a} x a' x emts anx \ t \bar{a}' l a$ he gives thee money

Indicative Suffixes Expressing Possessive Interrelations Between Object and Subject (§§ 32-37)

§ 32. Introductory

The phenomenon of expressing possessive interrelations between object and subject of a sentence through the medium of distinct suffixes is by no means of uncommon occurrence in the American Indian languages.¹ From a logical point of view such a formation is perfectly justifiable, and may be said to have its origin in the actual difference that exists between the concept of an act performed upon a given object and the conveying of the same act performed upon an object that stands in some relation to the subject of the sentence. Thus the English sentence I whip my horse states a fact that is fundamentally different from the sentence I whip the horse, in so far as it expresses, besides the act performed by the subject upon the object, also the possessive relation that exists between object and subject. In the Indo-European languages, in which each idea maintains an independent position in a complex of grammatical concepts, such

relations are indicated by means of independent words, as a rule possessive pronouns; but in Siuslaw these relations are relegated to the verb, and consequently we find them conveyed by means of certain suffixes that are added to stems denoting verbal ideas.

The possessive relations that may exist between object and subject of a sentence are of a threefold nature. The object may form an inseparable part of the subject (I wash MY face); the object may be separably connected with the subject (I lose MY knife); or the object may stand in a possessive relation to another object (I lose his knife). Siuslaw distinguishes clearly between these three types of relationship, and expresses each of them by means of a distinct suffix.

§ 33. Suffix Indicating that the Object Forms an Inseparable Part of the Subject -ītx (-altx), -tx

This suffix indicates that the object of the sentence is inseparably connected with the subject. Hence all stems expressing an action performed by the speaker upon any part of his own body (and even upon his name) occur with these suffixes. Now and then they will be found added to stems denoting actions that do not necessarily involve an integral part of the subject as its recipient. All such formations must be looked upon as ungrammatical; that is to say, as due either to analogy or to an unintentional mistake on the part of the informant.¹

The verbal ideas which are expressed in this manner need not always be transitive in our sense of the word. They may, and as a matter of fact they do, denote conditions and states in which an inte gral part of the subject may find itself. Such expressions are possible, because to the mind of the Siuslaw they convey transitive ideas. Thus the sentence I am sorry expresses, according to our interpretation, an intransitive idea. The Siuslaw treats it as a transitive sentence, and expresses it by saying I make my mind sick. In the same manner Siuslaw conceives of our expressions my hair burned, his child died, it is cold, etc., as transitive sentences, and renders them by (I) burned my hair, (he) caused his child to die, the earth makes its body cold, etc.

No specific reason can be given for the occurrence of the parallel forms -itx and -tx, nor has any distinction been detected in the use of

¹ My informant made such mistakes rather frequently, but corrected them promptly whenever her attention was called to them.

the two forms. It seems, however, that -tx tends to appear after other suffixes, while -itx is added to bare stems.

This suffix must not be confounded with the frequentative -itx (see § 68). -itx interchanges frequently with $-a^{i}tx$. For an explanation of this interchange see § 2.

kutsa to paint muth kutsa to paint kutsa to paint

 $y\bar{a}^{a'}xa^{i}$ much 8.5

tcanhatī- to club

tīn- to boil, to be ripe 98.7

hamx- to tie 8.6

mî'Itcîst he commenced to burn 29.3

haw- to end, to make 14.6

kutsa[†]/txan qa'nnî I paint my face tk!a[‡]tx Laa' he opened his mouth 96.1

hai'mūt*nw lai'qat skwahai'tw xwāki' they all had feathers on their heads (literally, all they, feathers to stand caused on their heads 10.9

k!u*wînaî'tx L!a'ai ice appeared (literally, ice made on its body, the earth) 76.10

plna[†]tx ha[†] they were sorry (literally, sick they made their minds)
15.4

yā'xa[†]txan ha[†] I am crafty (literally, much I have in my mind) 20.7

tcanhatī'mxutxa^ux q^ulī'm t ants penî's they two were clubbing each other's anus, those skunks 86.9

tīntx hai his heart cooked 96.9, 10 ha'mixtxan hī'qūi I tie my hair mî'ttcîstx hai'mūt hī'qūi his hair began to burn (literally, it began to burn on him his all, hair) 29.4

ha''na haū'tx ha' his mind had become different (literally, different on him it had made itself, his mind) 60.21

In the following examples, terms of relationship are treated as inseparable parts of the subject:

pln- to be sick 40.21

plaantx ants t!āmc (he) got sick his boy 40.20

$s\hat{\imath}'nx\bar{\imath}$ - to desire 18.5	sî'nxītx ants t!āmc xwī'L!tūxtc he wanted that his child should come back (literally, he wanted his, that child, return shall his) 42.5, 6
waa'- to say 7.1	s ^z atsī'tc ^w ax waa ^ī 'tx ants mîlā thus their (dual) mother told them (literally, thus their two, told, that mother) 54.23
hant'- to call	$ha'nt'\bar{\imath}tx\ m\bar{a}t'.\bar{\imath}'$ he called his elder brother 58.16
$xa\bar{u}'$ he died 40.21	te'q ^z nx xawa ^z 'tx (when) their relatives died (literally, relatives they, die theirs) 68.13
waa'- to say 7.1	$s^{\underline{x}}ats\overline{i}'tc$ $wa'a^{\overline{i}}tx$ ants $lxa^{u'}yax$ thus he said to that his friend 42.7, 8

§ 34. Suffix Denoting that the Object is Possessed by the Subject, but Separable from it ·ūtsm- (-aūtsm-)

This suffix seems to be a compound consisting of two separate suffixes, $-\bar{u}ts$ - and -m. While the original function of the second element is unknown, the first component is undoubtedly the suffix expressing the direct object of the first and second persons (see § 29 and also § 23).

It expresses a transitive action whose recipient is possessed by the subject without forming an integral part of it. Terms of relationship, and all concrete nouns, excepting those nominal stems that denote parts of the body, are thus considered; but, owing to frequent errors on the part of the informant, this suffix will be found used also in connection with objects expressing parts of the body. All subjective pronouns are added to this suffix by means of a connecting weak vowel, as a result of the law regulating the use of consonantic clusters (see § 4); and, as the third person singular has no distinct form, this suffix appears in final position as $-\bar{u}tsmE$. The \bar{u} of this suffix often interchanges with the diphthong $a^{\bar{u}}$ (see § 2). The suffix follows the tense signs, and is frequently added to reduplicated stems.

$la'k^{u}$ - to take, to get 7.5	<i>lākwa'kūtsmîn k⁵ā'nī</i> I take my
$qn\bar{u}$ '- to find 56.9	bucket qnū'/hūtsmîn qal·tc I found my knife
L!xma ^ī '- to kill 15.3	L!xma ¹ 'yūtsmanx m ^u ū'sk ^u you killed your younger brother

lak^u - to take 7.5	$l\bar{a}kwa'k\bar{u}tsm_E$ $k_{\bar{a}}'n\bar{\imath}$ she took
	her bucket 90.21
L!ōx- to send 16.10	L!ōxa'xaūtsmE hītc he sent his
	people 30.1, 2
$waa^{i'}$ he says 8.9	$atsar{\imath}'tc$ $waa'yar{u}tsm_E$ $qar{\imath}'ar{u}tc$ thus he
	said to his wife 48.17
$L\bar{\imath}'\bar{u}$ (they) come 9.3	$yar{a}^a{}'xa^i$ t E $tar{i}'t!a^{ar{i}}$ L $ar{i}war{i}'war{u}tsm$ E
	lots (of) this (their) food (they)
	are bringing 100.9, 10
	Līū'ūtsme hītsî'stc she came to
	her (own) house 58.7, 8
waa - to speak 8.1	waa'aūtsme ants L!a'ai hītc he said
-	1 1 to 1 to 1

mî'îtcîst he begins to burn 29.3 $x\hat{\imath}'l\cdot xc\bar{\imath}$ - to work 50.9

to his many people 7.1 ul $q!a'\bar{\imath}l$ $m\hat{\imath}'ltc\hat{\imath}st\bar{\imath}tsmE$ then her pitch began to burn 90.22 $x\hat{\imath}l\cdot xc\bar{\imath}'y\bar{u}tsma^ux$ $a'nts^{\mathbf{E}}tc^wax$ $m\bar{a}'t\bar{\imath}$ they two worked at their (dual) dams 48.10

In the following instances this suffix has been used in connection with nouns that form an integral part of the subject:

t!Emæu- to cut	$u\bar{t}^{E}nx$ $t'Emx\bar{u}'y\bar{u}tsmE$ $h\bar{v}'q\bar{u}^{i}$ then
$p\bar{a}x$ - to close (eyes) 36.16	they cut their hair 68.14 $paxa'x\bar{u}tsmE$ $k\bar{o}px$ he shut his
$ya'q^uha^it$ he looked 58.1	eyes 36.20 $yo'quha^it\bar{u}^{u'}tsm_E \ k\bar{o}px$ he opened his eyes (literally, he looked
wî'lteîst he begins to send	with his eyes) 36.20 wî'ltcîstū'tsmɛ wa'as he began sending his message (word)
pln- to be sick 40.21	92.19 planya''tîstūtsme ha'tc he was sorry (literally, he begins to make sick, his mind) 40.21
mînx ^u - to lighten 38.5	ut wàn mî'nxautū'tsme L!a'ai now he made lightning (literally, then finally caused to lighten

her body, the world) 38.6 $tc\bar{\imath}'t'\bar{\imath}$ wind tcīt'a't'ūtsme L!a'ai ants tsxu'nplī Tsxunplī made a wind (literally, caused to blow his world, that Tsxunplī) 94.6, 7

§ 35. Suffix Indicating that the Object is Possessed by a Third Person Object -ūł (-aūł)

This suffix expresses an act performed upon an object that forms an integral part of or that is separably connected with another object. Hence it indicates the possessive relation that exists between two objects as seen by the subject of the sentence. The possessor of the object of the action must be the third person, regardless of number. If, however, it is absolutely necessary to indicate the number of the possessor, this is accomplished by means of suffixing to the possessed object the possessive suffixes for the third person singular, dual or plural (see § 88). It is noteworthy that the possessed object appears in the absolutive form, and not with the locative case endings, as might be expected. The pronominal suffixes expressing the subject of the action follow the suffix $-\bar{u}l$; and as this suffix ends in a consonant, and some of the subjective pronouns begin with a consonant, the pronouns are frequently preceded by a connecting, weak vowel (see § 4). There exists undoubtedly an etymological connection between the \bar{u} of this suffix and the \bar{u} of the direct object of the third person $-\bar{u}n$ (see §§ 23, 28). For the \bar{u} of $-\bar{u}\bar{t}$ the diphthong $a^{\bar{u}}$ is quite frequently substituted. This interchange has been discussed in § 2.

 $s\hat{i}'nx\bar{i}$ - to desire 18.5 hamx- to tie 8.6 yax- to see 34.4

 $h\bar{\imath}n$ - to take along 23.2

 $ya'q^{u'}$ - to see 23.9

yax- to see 34.4

 $ya^ak!$ - small 36.23

haw- to end, to make 14.6

 lak^u - to take 7.5

sî'nixyūln hītsī'i I like his house ha'mxaūln tcīz I tie his hands yīxa'yūlanx mîtà you see his father

hīna'yūtanx L!xmī'tī you took his bow along

ul ya'q'yūl mî'ck'la** and he saw her vulva (bad thing) 90.10

yāxî'xūłaux tcu'xus he saw their (dual) vulvas 90.15

yāk/ī'tcitūl xwā'ka she cut his head into pieces 96.11

 $ha^{i\prime}na\ ha\bar{u}'\bar{u}l\ ha^{i}$ different she made his mind 58.9

t!ī'yai łakwa'kūl ants māt!ī' bear had seized that his older brother 58.16 qwa''n- to pour 29.2

hate'- to ask 66.16

"l wàn qwa' 'nūl Laaya' tc²tc (they two) now pour it into his mouth 96.7

"lteî hatc'a'yūl ha' you ask her (literally, and you ask about

(literally, and you ask about her mind [opinion]) 74.8

§ 36. Suffix Expressing an Object Possessed by a First or Second Person Object -ūlts (-aūlts)

This suffix has the same function as $-\bar{u}t$, but differs from it in so far as the possessor of the object must be either a first or a second person. The number of the possessor, when required, is indicated by the possessive suffixes added to the possessed object (see § 88). Owing to the variability of the person of the possessor, this suffix conveys, besides the idea of a possessive relation between two objects, also the connection that exists between subject and object. Hence it assumes a function, limited in scope, but similar in character to the suffix for the combined subject and object pronouns. This functional similarity is indicated even in the phonetic composition of the suffix. -ūlts is undoubtedly a compound suffix consisting of the previously discussed $-\bar{u}l$ and of the suffix for the subject and object pronoun $-\bar{u}ts$ (see § 29). It is not inconceivable that the original form may have been $-\bar{u}t\bar{u}ts$, contracted later on into- ūlts. A comparison of the Siuslaw transitive indicative suffixes shows that the majority of them have the \bar{u} in common. Hence it may be claimed that the \bar{u} originally conveved the idea of a transitive indicative action (see § 23); and as the \bar{u} was already present in the first element of this suffix (- $\bar{u}\bar{l}$), it may have been omitted as superfluous in the second part.

Owing to this additional function of this suffix as a medium of expressing subject and object pronouns, the subjective pronouns are added to it in a method similar to the one employed in the suffixation of the subjective pronouns to the suffix - $\bar{u}ts$ (see § 25). After certain consonants this suffix is changed into - $a^{\bar{u}}ts$ (see § 2).

 $h\bar{\imath}n$ - to take along 23.2

yax- to see 34.4

 $L/x(\bar{u})$ - to know 40.16

hīna'yūltsanx L!xmī'tī Itake along thy bow

yîxa'yūltsanx qa'nnî I look at thy

L!xū'yūtsanx mîtà qnà I know thy father wax- to give 18.2L! $xma\bar{\imath}$ - to kill 15.3 tsxan- to comb tak^u - to take 7.5

 $L/x(\bar{u})$ - to know 40.16

yax- to see 34.4

waxa'yūltsanx tā'kîn mî'nixwī I will give thee my lightning 38.1, 2

L!xmaī'yūltsanx muū'sku qnīxats you killed my younger brother tsxana'yūltsanx hī'qū' you combed my hair

likwa'yūltsîn ants qalitc he took that my knife

L!xu'yūltsîn mîtà he knows my father

 $s^{\underline{x}}$ às $L!x\bar{u}'y\bar{u}$ ttsanx mîtà he knows thy father

Eàs yîxa'yūltsanx qa'nnî he looks at thy face

§ 37. Suffixes Denoting Possessive Interrelations for Tenses other than the Present -īsītî, -awītî, -yaxa¹tî

When possessive interrelations that occur in tenses other than the present are to be expressed, the Siuslaw language resorts to an interesting form of composition of suffixes. Thus the durative suffix -is (see § 69), the intentional (see § 70), and the past -yax (see § 74), are combined with the possessive suffix -it (see § 88), forming new compound suffixes -isit, -awit, and $-yaxa^it$, that indicate semi-reflexive actions performed constantly, or about to be performed, or performed long ago. In these new suffixes no sharp line of demarcation is drawn between objects that are inseparably connected with the subject, and objects that are possessed by the subject.

 $ya^{a'}k!$ - small 36.23

yāk!īs he is constantly (getting) small

kwī'tcî yā'k!īsītī ha' don't ye be downhearted! (literally, not you small always make your mind) 66.5

haw- to finish 14.6

hau'wīs he makes continually

"l*nx kumî'nte atsī'te ha"'wīsītī ha' and you don't believe it thus (literally, and you, not thus, make continually your mind) 46.24

qa'xantc hau'wīsītī ha¹ downward make continually your hearts 8.10

 $h\bar{\imath}n$ - to take along 23.2 $h\bar{\imath}'n\bar{\imath}s$ he always takes along

 $xn\bar{\imath}^wn$ - to do 10.5 $xn\bar{\imath}'^wn\bar{\imath}s$ (we) always do it 72.15

hamx- to tie 8.6 $hamxa^w$ - to intend to tie

 $p\bar{a}x$ - to shut (eye) 36.16 $paxa^w$ - to be about to close

 $y\bar{a}'xatc'$ - to try to look 13.7 $y\bar{a}xatc'a^w$ - to intend to try to look

tquyaw- to intend to boil

hamx- to tie 8.6 ha'mxyax he tied $p\bar{a}x$ - to close 36.16 $p\bar{a}'xyax$ he closed nīxats utenx qanī'nat hī'nīsītī you will take along your knife (literally, you, and you, knife, take along will always yours) 50.16, 17

 ${}^{u}l^{E}nl \, wn\bar{\imath}'^{w}n\bar{\imath}s\bar{\imath}t\bar{\imath}$ still we will keep on doing our . . . 72.17

 $hamxa'w\bar{\imath}t\hat{\imath}n\ h\bar{\imath}'q\bar{u}^i$ I intend tying my hair

 $p\bar{a}xa'w\bar{\imath}t\hat{\imath}n\ k\bar{o}px$ I intend to close my eyes

yāxate'a"wītîn t!āme k!"'zū I intend to try to look for my boy tomorrow 60.1, 2

 ${}^{u}\bar{t}^{z}ns\ tquya'^{w}\bar{\imath}t\bar{\imath}$ we will cook (our camas) 98.3

 $ha'mxyaxa^{\bar\imath}t\bar\imath\ h\bar\iota'q\bar u^i$ he tied his hair

 $p\bar{a}'xyaxa^{\bar{\imath}}t\hat{\imath}n\;k\bar{o}px\;I\;\mathrm{closed\;my\;eyes}$

A similar process is resorted to whenever the prohibitive mode (see § 40) of an action denoting that the object is possessed by the subject is to be expressed. In such cases the durative $-\bar{\imath}s$ (see § 69) is combined with the possessive $-\bar{\imath}t\hat{\imath}$ - (see § 88), and the whole verb is preceded by the negative particle $k\bar{u}^i$, $kum\hat{\imath}'ntc$ not (see § 131).

tsxanu- to comb

lk!a- to open 28.2

 $h\bar{\imath}n$ - to take along 23.2

haw- to finish, to work 14.6

 $kw\bar{\imath}nx$ $tsxa'nw\bar{\imath}s\bar{\imath}t\bar{\imath}$ $h\bar{\imath}'q\bar{u}^i$ don't comb thy hair!

 $k\bar{u}^i ts \ lk! a' a^i s \bar{\imath} t \bar{\imath} \ \text{La}a' \ \text{don't} \ \text{you}$ (pl.) open your mouths!

kwīnx hī'nīsītī sī'xaī don't take thy canoe along!

kumî'ntcetcî qa'xante hawwīsītī hal don't ye be continually downhearted (literally, not ye, downwards, make continually your, hearts) 8.10 Passive Suffixes Indicating Pronominal and Possessive Interrelations
(§§ 38-39)

§ 38. Passive Suffixes for Verbs Requiring in the Active a Double Object -īme, -ūme (-aūme)

 $-\bar{\imath}m_E$. This suffix invariably follows the verbalizing $-\bar{\imath}$ or $-a^i$ (see § 75), and seems to express the passive voice of verbs that require in the active the presence of a double (direct and indirect) object, although it will be found suffixed to verbal stems that do not necessarily require such a double object. Whenever the subjective pronouns are added to it, the obscure E of this suffix is changed into a weak a or $\hat{\imath}$. The form $-\bar{\imath}m_E$ occurs in terminal position only. This suffix follows all temporal suffixes.

wax- to give 18.2

 $h\bar{\imath}ts$ - to put on 11.10 haw- to end, to make, 14.6

waxa'yīmanx qanī'nal it (will) be given to you, (a) big knife 19.6 hī'q!a waxa'yūsīmɛ a'nts²tc mîtà dentalia shells are usually given to him, to that her father 74.19 hītsa'yīmîn it is put on me

twūnx hī'sa hawa'yīme ha' they are just good-minded toward thee (literally, just thee well it is made towards, mind) 21.1

In two instances this suffix has been added to a stem without the aid of the verbalizing $-\bar{i}$ ($-a^i$).

 $ha'\bar{u}s$ easy

atsi'tc ha'ūsīme thus it was agreed upon (literally, thus it was [made] easy) 24.1

haw- to finish, to end 14.6

ha'ūsīme ants ts/aln ready (made for him is) that pitch 26.5, 6

This suffix may be preceded—for the sake of emphasizing its passive function—by the present passive -xam (see § 55). In such cases the verbalizing suffix is omitted.

hīts- to put on 11.8

 $q\bar{u}$ 'n- to pour

waa' ants hītsī'xamīme said that one on whom it was put on 11.10

"" wan qū'nī'xamīmE and now it was poured down into his 29.2

 $\bar{a}q$ - to take off 13.1

aqai'xamīme it was taken off him

- $\bar{u}mE$ has the same function as - $\bar{\imath}mE$, and is used in connection with similar verbal stems. It differs from it only in so far as it is added directly to the stem. An explanation of the parallel occurrence of - $\bar{u}me$ and - $a^{\bar{u}}mE$ has been given in § 2.

wax- to give 18.2

 $p\bar{\imath}'\bar{u}$ - to be noisy 36.24

te"qîn waxa^wme what do you give me (literally, something to me, it is given?) 18.2

qanī'nal waxa^ū'manx a big knife is given to you 21.4

wat yāa'xa' te'q ut pī'ūme they made noise with everything (literally, although many things [they have], still it is made noise with) 29.1

§ 39. Passive Suffixes Denoting Possessive Relations of the Subject -ūltx, -xamltx

These suffixes express, besides the passive voice, also the fact that the recipient of the action is either possessed or forms an integral part of a given object.

- $\bar{u}ltx$ seems to be composed of the suffix $-\bar{u}l$, which indicates that the object forms an integral part of or is possessed by another object (see § 35), and of the suffix -tx, denoting that the object is an integral part of the subject (see § 33). If this is the origin of the compound suffix, the amalgamation of these two independent suffixes into one new formative element that expresses the passive voice, and at the same time contains the idea of a possessive relation between object (grammatical subject) and object, presents a problem that must remain unexplained. The person of the possessed subject is indicated by the suffixed subjective pronouns (see § 24). The stem to which this suffix is added occurs frequently in an amplified form (see § 112). Stems ending in i (short or long) change it into y before adding the passive suffix (see § 8).

 lak^{u} - to take, to get 7.5

kumî'ntcwax lakwa'ūltx ants qī'ūtc not their (dual) were taken, those wives 50.22

lakwa'ūltxaux ta'tewax qī'ūte taken away were these their (dual) wives 52.3, 4

$tar{u}$ '- (also $t!ar{u}$ ') to buy 74.8	kumî'ntc ^E nx txū t!ūha'ūltxanx t!āmc not for nothing will they buy your child (literally, not [of] thee just bought [will be] thy child) 74.5
$x\bar{a}$ L!- to make 50.8	sîn'xyū'u xāL!a'ūltx they try to find some remedy (literally, they desire [that] made [cured] be his mind) 15.5 hūya'ūltx ha' his mind will be made different 19.2
$s\hat{\imath}'nx\bar{\imath}$ - to desire 18.5	sî'nixyūltxanx t!āmc thy child is desired (asked for) 74.4
$ts\hat{v}'nx\bar{v}$ - to scorch	"la" x tsîna'x iyūltxq" Lī'mt and their (dual) anus [will] be scorched 88.7
hatc'- to ask 66.16	ha'tc'yaxa''ltx ha' ants qīūtcū'nî (when) asked was her opinion, that woman 74.16 (-a''ltx = -ūltx see § 2)

In many instances this suffix is preceded by the verbalizing $-a^i$ (see §§ 75, 8).

$skwaha^{\nu}$ he stands 14.4	"t skwaha'yūttx teqyū'" then is stood up its (of the house) frame 80.7
<i>tkwī</i> '- to bury 80.10	tkwīha'yūltx qawuntī'yūwītc ants hītsī'i dirt is put on both sides (of) that house 80.10, 11
hate'- to ask 66.16	of) that one is asked his opinion 74.4, 5
$waa^{i'}$ he says 8.9	waa'yūltxan mîtà my father is spoken to

-xamltx is undoubtedly composed of the suffix for the present passive -xam (see § 55), of the abbreviated $-\bar{u}t$ (see § 35), and of the suffix -tx (see § 33). When it is remembered that this suffix can be added only to verbs that require a double object, the amalgamation of these three independent formative elements into one suffix for the purpose of expressing the passive voice of an act whose recipient (grammatical subject) stands in some possessive relation to one of

the three persons (speaker, person spoken to, or person spoken of), becomes at once apparent.

The use of this suffix may be illustrated by an example. The verb to put on requires a double object, because it implies the idea to put something on somebody, or vice versa. Hence Siuslaw renders the English sentence his hat was put on (really, his hat was put on him) by a complex consisting of the verbal stem and the compound suffix -xamltx. In this suffix the first element, -xam, indicates that the action is passive (performed by somebody upon the recipient); the second element, -l-, denotes that the direct object (in this case the noun hat) is possessed by the recipient of the action; while the last element, -tx (which when used alone indicates that the object forms an integral part of the subject), serves to bring out the idea that the action is performed upon the indirect object (on him) which (in this case) can no be separated from the (logical) subject (his hat).

The persons that are implied in the possessive relations as indicated by this suffix are expressed by means of the subjective pronouns added to it (see § 24). Since the first element of this compound suffix is the present passive -xam, the manner in which it is added to the verbal stem is similar to that employed in the suffixation of -xam (see § 55).

 $\bar{a}q$ - to take off 13.1

hīts- to put on 11.8

 $t!_{E}mx^{u}$ - to cut off

 tak^u - to take (away) 7.5

aqa^vxamltxan lkwa'nuq^u taken off
(me) is my hat

hītsī'xamltxan lkwa'nuqu put on (me) is my hat

t! Emxwa'xamltxanx tcīl cut off (thee) was thy hand

s^zatsī'te^wax waa'xam a'ntsux lokwī'xamltx qī'ūte thus were told those two from whom the wives were taken away (literally, thus they two were told, those two [of] whom taken away were [those their dual] wives) 54.14

Imperative Forms Denoting Pronominal and Possessive Interrelations (§§ 40-48)

§ 40. Introductory

In the following sections there will be discussed suffixes that express not only the imperative mode, but also the exhortative.

BOAS]

Besides separate suffixes indicating the imperative of intransitive and transitive verbs (see §§ 61, 62), Siuslaw shows distinct suffixes that express the pronominal and possessive interrelations between subject and object.

Another interesting feature that may be noted in connection with the formation of the imperative mode is the presence of a distinct negative form of the imperative or prohibitive mode, and the manner in which it is expressed. Generally speaking, the durative suffix $-\bar{\imath}s$ (see § 69), used in connection with the subjective pronouns for the second persons (see § 24), and in addition to the particle of negation (see § 131), expresses the prohibitive mode. This idiomatic expression may be justified by the fact that a prohibitive command addressed to the second person has much in common with the negative form of a durative action performed by the same person.

Owing to the fact that the imperative suffixes express other categories than a command, the prohibitive form of the imperative referring to such categories is expressed by adding to the durative -īs the respective suffixes that denote the non-imperative idea (see §§ 29, 30, 33, 35, 36, 37). Examples of the prohibitive mode and a detailed description of its formation will be found in §§ 60-62, 42-46.

§ 41. Exhortative Suffixes Expressing the Direct Object of the Third Person -yūn, -īwyūn, -īnī

These three suffixes express an admonition to perform an action having a third (not mentioned) person as its object. The difference between $-y\bar{u}n$ and $-\bar{\imath}^wy\bar{u}n$ could not be traced to any particular cause, owing chiefly to the fact that the latter form occurs very seldom. The informant always rendered the first two suffixes by a transitive future, and they seem to have been employed quite extensively in this secondary function.

- $y\bar{u}n$ is suffixed to verbs expressing transitive ideas only, and the stem to which it is added always occurs in an amplified form (see §§ 7, 112).

 a^iq - to leave 56.6

 $L/\bar{o}x$ - to send 16.10

taⁱ'k^Ens aya'qyūn tE lt'ī'aⁱ here we two (incl.) will leave this salmon (literally, let us two leave)

L!ºwa'xyūn hītc I will send these people (literally, let me send) 30.19

anx- to give up 60.11	kumî'ntcînî ana'xyūn not we (incl.) will give it up (literally, don't let us two) 16.8
L/xmaī'- to kill 15.3	L!xmīya'yūnanł we (incl.) will kill him (literally, let us kill him) 28.3
l^it .'- to eat 15.2	kumî'ntc lī't/īyun not he will eat it (literally, don't let him eat it) 34.22
hamx- to tie 8.6	$hama'xy\bar{u}n$ he will tie it (literally, let him tie it)

 $-\bar{\imath}^w y \bar{u} n$ exercises apparently the same function as the first suffix, but does not necessarily require amplification of the stem to which it is added.

$xn\bar{\imath}^w n$ - to do 11.11	xnīwnī'wyūns we two (incl.) will do it (literally, let us two doit) 10.5
	$xn\bar{\imath}yun\bar{\imath}'^wy\bar{u}n$ I will do it (literally,
	let me do it)
$qatc^{i}n$ - to go 12.1	qatcînī'wyūn I will make him go
	(literally, let me make him go)
$kwa^{hu}n$ - to bend down 13.5	$k\bar{u}'n\bar{\imath}'^wy\bar{u}n$ I will bend it down

In an analogous manner Siuslaw seems to have formed an exhortative suffix expressing the direct object of the first person. This is done by substituting -ts (see § 23) for the -n. As but few examples of this formation were obtained, a full discussion is impossible. The examples follow.

yaqu'- to look, to see 25.3	yaq^{u} ' $y\bar{v}'^{w}yutsatc$ î ye look at me 72.11, 12
$L/x\bar{u}$ - to know 40.7	$L!x^uwa'x^uy\bar{u}tsa'tc\hat{\imath}$ ye shall know me 30.17
$ka^{\bar{u}_{S^-}}$ to follow 92.7	$k^iwas^iyar{u}'tsana^{ar{u}}$ you shall follow me 92.3
$h\bar{\imath}n$ - to take along 9.5	hiya'nyūtsanx I will take you along 58.6

 $-\bar{\imath}m\bar{\imath}$ is suffixed to transitive verbs, and is always used in connection with the exhortative particle $qa^{i}\bar{\imath}$ (see § 129). The subjective pronouns for the first and third persons as the performers of the action are always added to the particle (see § 26). This suffix appears frequently as $-a^{\bar{\imath}}n\bar{\imath}$ (see § 2).

 tak^u - to take, to seize 7.5 $qa^i ta^u x tak w \bar{\imath}' n \bar{\imath}$ let them two take (them)! 52.12, 13 waa'- to speak 7.1 $qa^i t waa^{\bar{\imath}'} n \bar{\imath}$ let him speak to him! $tq \bar{\imath} t$ - to shout 52.8 $qa^i t^{\bar{\imath}} n \bar{\imath}$ to shout at him! $h \bar{\imath} ts$ - to put on 11.8 $qa^i t^{\bar{\imath}} n \bar{\imath}$ $tq \bar{\imath} t \bar{\imath} n \bar{\imath}$ let us (incl.) invite $t\bar{\imath} n$ - to invite 16.2 $qa^i t^{\bar{\imath}} n \bar{\imath}$ $t\bar{\imath} n \bar{\imath}$ in let us (incl.) invite

§ 42. Imperative Suffix Expressing the Direct Object of the First Person -īts (-alts)

This suffix is added directly to the stem, and commands the person addressed (subject) to perform an act upon an object which must be one of the first persons. The -ts of this suffix is undoubtedly identical with the -ts found in all suffixes that express first and second persons objects (see §§ 23, 29, 34, 36). The combined pronominal forms that are added to this suffix can be only those indicating the second persons as the subject and the first persons as the object of the action (see table, pp. 473, 474). In this connection the following peculiarities may be noted:

- (1) The singular subject is not expressed, being understood in the command.
- (2) Dual and plural objects are not expressed in the suffixes, but are indicated by means of the independent personal pronouns for the first persons.
- (3) For a singular object the subjective pronoun for the first singular (-n) is added to the imperative suffix.
- (4) For dual and plural subjects the subjective pronouns for these persons are added to the imperative $-\bar{\imath}ts$.

The following table will best serve to illustrate these four rules:

	Thou	Ye	You
Me	-ītsin	-ītsats	-ītsatcī
	-ītsavx a n	-ītsats	-ītsatcī
	-ītsanxan	-ītsats	-ītsatcī

The subjective pronouns beginning with a consonant are added by means of a weak a-vowel (see §§ 4, 24).

This imperative suffix occurs often as $-a^{i}ts$ (see § 2).

waa'- to speak 7.1 $wa'a^{\bar{\imath}}ts\hat{\imath}n\ t\bar{a}'k\hat{\imath}n\ wa'as$ speak to me(with) this my language! 36.10 $h\bar{\imath}n$ - to take along 23.2 $h\bar{\imath}'n\bar{\imath}ts\hat{\imath}n$ take me along! $\iota!wan$ - to tell 7.3 $\iota!w\bar{a}'n\bar{\imath}ts\hat{\imath}n$ tell me! $\iota!w\bar{a}'n\bar{\imath}tsanxan$ tell us (excl.)! yaq^u - to look 23.9 $ya'quh\bar{\imath}tsats\ te\ n\hat{a}$ look ye at me! $a^{i}q$ - to leave 56.5 $a^{i'}qa^{\bar{\imath}}tsatc\hat{\imath}$ you leave me!

The prohibitive form is expressed by combining the durative $-\bar{\imath}s$ with the objective form $-\bar{\imath}ts$ and by placing the particle of negation $k\bar{\imath}^i$, $kum\hat{\imath}'ntc$, before the verbal expression (see §§ 69, 29, 60). The pronominal suffixes are those used to express the second person as the subject, and the first person as the object, of an action (see § 24 and table, pp. 473, 474).

 $\hbar \bar{\imath} n$ - to take along 23.2 $kw \bar{\imath} nx \ \hbar \bar{\imath}' n \bar{\imath} s \bar{u} ts$ don't take me along! $kw \bar{\imath}' nxan \ \hbar \bar{\imath}' n \bar{\imath} s \bar{u} ts$ don't take us (excl.) along! qn^{u^*} - to find 34.12 $kw \bar{\imath} nx \ qn \bar{u}'' w \bar{\imath} s \bar{u} ts$ don't find me!

§ 43. Imperative Suffix Indicating the Indirect Object of the Third Person -yūx

This suffix is etymologically related to the suffix $-\bar{u}x$ discussed in § 30. It is added to verbs requiring the presence of a direct and indirect object, and it expresses a command that involves the third person (singular, dual and plural) as the recipient of the action.

wax- to give 18.2 $wa'xy\bar{u}x$ give it to him! $q\bar{u}$ 'n- to pour 29.2qwa''ny $\bar{u}x$ aaya'tc pour it down into his mouth! 29.2 $h\bar{t}ts$ - to put on 11.8 $h^iya'tsy\bar{u}x$ put it on him!hamx- to tie 8.6 $ha'mxy\bar{u}x$ tie it on him!

The prohibitive mode is obtained by combining the durative $-\bar{\imath}s$ (see § 69) with the suffix $-\bar{u}x$ (see § 30) and by placing the particle $k\bar{u}^i$ or $kum\hat{\imath}'ntc$ (see § 131), before the verbal expression.

wax- to give 18.2 $kw\bar{\imath}nx$ $wa'xa^{\bar{\imath}}s\bar{u}x$ don't give it to him! $h\bar{\imath}ts$ - to put on 11.8 $kw\bar{\imath}nx$ $h^{\bar{\imath}}ya'ts\bar{\imath}s\bar{u}x$ don't put it on him! $q\bar{u}$ 'n- to pour 29.2 $kum\hat{\imath}'ntc^{\bar{\imath}}nx$ qwa'' $n\bar{\imath}s\bar{u}x$ don't pour it (into his mouth)!

\S 44. Imperative Suffix Denoting the Indirect Object of the First Person - $\overline{\text{Im}}$ ts

This suffix expresses a command to perform an act the indirect recipient of which is the first person. It is etymologically related to the imperative suffix $-\overline{\epsilon}ts$ (see § 42) and to the objective form $-\epsilon mts$ (see § 31), being composed of the initial element of the former suffix and of the whole of the latter formation (see § 23). The method of adding the pronominal forms to this suffix is identical with the method discussed on pp. 472–475.

wax- to give 18.2 $w\bar{a}'x\bar{\imath}mts\hat{\imath}n$ give it to me! $w\bar{a}'x\bar{\imath}mtsanxan$ give it to us! $h\bar{\imath}ts$ - to put on 11.8 $h^iya'ts\bar{\imath}mts\hat{\imath}n$ put it on me!hamx- to tie 8.6 $ha'mx\bar{\imath}mtsate\hat{\imath}$ you (pl.) tie it on me!

The suffixed particle $-\bar{u}$ (see § 132) is frequently added to this combined suffix. In such cases it denotes an act performed near the speaker.

 $xw\bar{\imath}\iota$!- to return 12.6 $xw\bar{\imath}\iota$! $\bar{\imath}'mts\hat{\imath}n\bar{u}$ give it back to me!hamx- to tie 8.6 $hamx\bar{\imath}'mts\hat{\imath}n\bar{u}$ tie it on me!

The prohibitive mode is expressed by combining the durative $-\bar{\imath}s$ (see § 69) with the suffix -*emts* (see § 31 and also § 40).

wax- to give 18.2 $kw\bar{l}nx\ wa'xa^{\bar{l}}semts\ don't\ give\ it\ to$ $h\bar{l}ts$ - to put on 11.8 $kw\bar{l}nx\ h^{\bar{l}}ya'ts\bar{l}semts\ natc\ don't$ $put\ it\ on\ me!$

§ 45. Imperative Suffix Denoting that the Object is Possessed by a Third Person -il.

This suffix indicates that the possessor of the recipient of the action is the third person singular. Duality and plurality of the possessor is expressed by suffixing the subjective pronouns for the third persons dual and plural (see § 24) to the possessed object (see § 35). This suffix is added directly to the stem, and is related (phonetically and etymologically) to the suffix $-\bar{u}l$, indicating that the object is possessed by a third person object (see §§ 23, 35). Duality and plurality of the subject of the action are expressed by adding the subjective pronouns -ts and -tcî (see § 24) to the suffix $-\bar{u}l$; and as these pronouns begin with

a consonant, they are merged with the imperative suffix by means of a weak a-vowel (see § 4).

$y\bar{u}^{wi}$ l.'- to break 94.4	$y\bar{u}'_{L}!\bar{\imath}\bar{t}$ qal tc break his knife!
tsxanu- to comb	$tsxa'nw\bar{\imath}\bar{t}\ h\bar{\imath}'q\bar{u}^i$ comb his hair!
$h\bar{\imath}n$ - to take along 23.2	$h\bar{\imath}'n\bar{\imath}\bar{t} \ {\it L}!xm\bar{\imath}'t\bar{\imath}$ take along his bow!
$\ell \bar{a}n$ - to call 23.7	$l\bar{a}'n\bar{\imath}l$ $l\bar{\imath}'ntc^wax$ call their (dual)
hamx- to tie 8.6	names! ha'mxīt tcī' ttcinx tie their hands!
	hamxī'lats tcīl you two tie his hands!
$t/e'mx\bar{u}$ - to cut 48.12	$t!$ $emx\bar{u}^i$ $late$

The prohibitive mode is expressed by combining the durative -is (see § 69) with the suffix $-u\bar{t}$ (see § 35) and by placing the negation $k\bar{u}^i$, $kum\hat{t}'nte$ not before the verb (see § 40).

	comb his hair!
tsxanu- to comb	$kw\bar{\imath}nx$ $tsxa'nw\bar{\imath}s\bar{u}l$ $h\bar{\imath}'q\bar{u}^i$ don't
	tie his hands!
hamx- to tie 8.6	kumî'ntcinx ha'mxīsūl tcīz don't
	his knife!
$y\bar{u}^{w_i}$ L!- to break 94.4	kwīnx yū' L!īsūt qal·tc don't break

§ 46. Imperative Suffix Indicating that the Object is Possessed by a First Person -ilts

It expresses a command to perform an action, whose recipient is either possessed or forms an integral part of the first person. It is related to the imperative $-\bar{\imath}ts$ (see § 42) and to the suffix $-\bar{\imath}ts$ discussed in § 36. The combined pronominal forms that are added to this suffix for the purpose of indicating the number of subject and possessor are identical with those discussed on pp. 472–475.

$x\bar{a}$ _L !- to make 50.8	xā'r!īltsîn qal'tc fix my knife!
<i>xamL</i> - to wash	xa'mıīltsîn qa'nnî wash my face!
$h\bar{\imath}n$ - to take along 23.2	$h\bar{\imath}'n\bar{\imath}ltsatc\hat{\imath}s\bar{\imath}'xa^{\bar{\imath}}{ m you}{ m take}{ m my}{ m canoe}$
_	along!
hamx- to tie 8.6	ha'mxīttsanxan tcīl tie our (excl.)
	hands!

The prohibitive form is obtained by combining the durative $-\bar{\imath}s$ (see § 69) with the suffix $-\bar{\imath}ts$ (see § 36). The negative particle $k\bar{\imath}i$, $kum\hat{\imath}'ntc$ nor must precede the verb, while the pronouns expressing

the person spoken to may be suffixed either to the negation or to the combined suffix (see §§ 40, 26).

tsxanu- to comb $kw\bar{\imath}nx \ tsxa'nw\bar{\imath}s\bar{\imath}lts \ h\bar{\imath}'q\bar{\imath}^i \ don't$ comb my hair! hamx- to tie 8.6 $kum\hat{\imath}'ntc^{\bar{\imath}}ts \ ha'mx\bar{\imath}s\bar{\imath}lts \ tc\bar{\imath}\iota \ don't$ you two tie my hands! $h\bar{\imath}n$ - to take along 23.2 $kw\bar{\imath}'tc\hat{\imath} \ h\bar{\imath}'n\bar{\imath}s\bar{\imath}lts \ \iota.!xm\bar{\imath}'t\bar{\imath} \ don't$ you take along my bow!

§ 47. Imperative Suffix Expressing Possessive Interrelations between Object and Subject -tsx

In the imperative the suffix -tsx is used for expressing possessive interrelations between object and subject in both cases, when the object forms an integral part of the subject and when it is only separably connected with it. Considering that actions involved in such a command presuppose the presence of a pronominal subject and object, it is not improbable that the suffix -tsx may be related to the suffixes $-\bar{u}ts$ and $-\bar{v}tx$ (see §§ 23, 29, 33). For subjects other than the second person singular, the different subjective pronouns are added to -tsx (see §§ 24, 4).

 $h\hat{n}'n^{\varepsilon}k/y$ to rain 78.1

tsxanu- to comb tk!a'u- to open 28.2 tak^u - to take 7.5 $t./\bar{o}x$ - to send 16.10 $p\bar{a}x$ - to close 36.16 $m\hat{n}nx^u$ - to lighten 38.5

 a^itc - to trade 36.4

 lak^{u} - to get 7.5

 $h\hat{\imath}'n^{\varepsilon}k/y$ - to rain 78.1

hî'nsk!ītsxl!a'ai cause (thy) rainto come down! 76.18

tsxa'nutsx hī'qūi comb thy hair!
tk!a'atsx laa' open thy mouth!
ta'kutsx kzā'nī get thy basket!
l!ōxtsx hītc send thy man!
pāxtsx kōpx shut thy eyes!
mî'nxutsx l!a'ai make lightning!
38.5

aⁱtcna'^{hu}tsxans let us two (incl).
trade!

la'kutsxats $q\bar{v}'\bar{u}tc$ you two take your wives! 52.17

hữ n^ek!ītsxats L!a'ai you two cause your rain to descend 76.19 hữ n^ek!ī'tsxatcî L!a'ai you fellows

make rain!

For the formation of the prohibitive mode see § 37.

§ 48. Exhortative Suffix Expressing Possessive Interrelations Between Object and Subject-Itsme (-altsme)

This suffix may be called the imperativized form of the suffix $-\bar{u}tsm$ denoting that the object is separably connected with the subject (see §§ 23,34). It expresses, however, possessive relations between subject and object regardless of the kind of possession, and is used only in connection with the particle qa^il (see § 129). By its means Siuslaw expresses a desire addressed to the first and third persons that a certain act be performed upon an object that either forms an integral part of or else is separably connected with the third person. All subjective pronouns are added to the particle qa^il (see §§ 24, 26). Siuslaw has no distinct suffixes for the purpose of expressing possessive relations with the first or second persons as the possessor, or relations between subject and object. For the interchange between $-\bar{\imath}tsmE$ and $-a^{\bar{\imath}}tsmE$ see § 2.

 $p\bar{a}x$ - to close 36.16

 $x\bar{a}_L$!- to build 50.8

xami- to wash

hīts- to put on 11.8

 $qa^{il} paxa^{i\nu} tsm \mathbf{E} k \bar{o} px$ let him shut his eyes!

 $q\alpha^{i'}l^{E}ns x\bar{a}_{L}!\bar{\imath}'tsmE h\bar{\imath}ts\bar{\imath}'^{i}$ let us two (incl.) fix his house!

qa''lnx xamıī'tsmɛ qa'nnî let them wash their faces!

qa''ta''x h'yatsī'tsmɛ tkwanu'q' let them two put on their (dual) hats!

MODAL SUFFIXES (§§ 49-64)

§ 49. Introductory

In the succeeding chapters will be discussed, besides the suffixes that indicate the passive voice and the imperative and exhortative modes, also the formative elements expressing such concepts as reciprocality, distribution, and tentative and negative actions. A separate section might have been devoted here to a discussion of the formative elements $-\bar{u}$ and $-\bar{\imath}$, the former expressing the indicative and the latter indicating the imperative mode. Since, however, these two elements never occur alone, and since they have been fully discussed in connection with other suffixes (see §§ 23, 28, 29, 30, 34, 35, 36, 41, 42, 44, 45, 46, 48), it has been thought advisable to call attention here to their modal functions, but not to treat them separately.

§ 50. Reciprocal -naw(a), $-mux^{u}$ -

-naw(a) precedes all other suffixes, and is followed by the subjective pronouns. Owing to the fact that Siuslaw does not permit clusters of w+ any consonant (excepting n), the w of this suffix changes into a voiceless w (written here hu) before all consonants except n (see § 4). For that reason the reciprocal -naw(a), when followed by the present -t (see § 72), the future $-t\bar{u}x$ (see § 73), or by the imperative -Em (see § 61), is heard as $-na^{hu}t$, $-na^{hu}t\bar{u}x$, and $-na^{hu}m$ respectively.

The stem to which this suffix is added is not infrequently followed by the reflexive particle ts'îms (see § 123). The full form -nawa is added when the suffix stands in final position; that is to say, when it expresses the subjective pronoun for the third person singular (see § 24).

∡ōł- to hit

Lōłna'wans we two (incl.) hit each other

Lōlna'wauxûn ts'îms we two (excl.)
hit each other

Lōłna'wats ts'îms you two hit each other

wîn^Exna'wa^ux they two were afraid of each other 86.1, 2

waana'wa^ux they two talk to each other 10.4

s^Eatsī'tc^wax waana'wa thus they two speak to each other 10.1, 2

waana'wīsa^ux ants $m^a\bar{a}'t\bar{\imath}$ they two keep on talking to each other, those chiefs 78.8, 9

a'tsant kumî'nte mī'k!a'na sîn'ixna'wīs thus we (incl.) won't try to abuse one another (literally, thus we not badly will desire [to abuse] one another continually) 78.12, 13

wîn^Exna'wanxan ts'îms we (excl.) are afraid of one another.

 $tq\bar{u}lna'wanx$ they shout at one another.

 $a^i tcna'^{hu} t\bar{u} x^{\underline{e}} ns$ we two (incl.) will trade 36.7

ulaux aitcna'haut then they two traded 36.7

wînx- to be afraid 17.6

waa'- to speak 7.1

sî'nxī- to desire 18.5

wînx- to fear 17.6

 $tq\bar{u}l$ - to shout 52.8

 a^itc - to trade 36.4

<i>Lōl</i> - to hit	Lōlna'hutūxts you two will hit each other
	<i>Lōłna'humats</i> you two hit each other!
$tq\bar{u}l$ - to shout 52.8	$tq\bar{u}lna'^{hu}t\bar{u}nxan$ we (excl.) will shout at one another
yaq^{u^*} - to look 23.9	yaq ^u hīna' ^{hu} matcî look you at one another!
waa'- to speak 7.1	waana'hutwanx wa'as they speak one another's language

In two instances this suffix is followed by the verbalizing $-a^i$ implying the commencement of a reciprocal action. For an explanation of this inchoative idea see § 75.

waa'- to speak 7.1	$ats\bar{\imath}'tc^wax\ waanawa^{\imath\prime}\ thus\ they\ two$
_	(begin to) talk to each other
	78.13
$k\bar{u}$ 'n- to beat 72.17	$ul_{\bar{e}}nx$ wan $k\bar{u}$ ' $na'wa^i$ now they
	(begin to) beat one another 80.1.

In a few instances this suffix is used to express distribution of action.

$t'_E'mx\bar{u}^u$ - to cut 48.12	$u\bar{t} t / Emx^u na'w \bar{u}^u n$ he cut it into
	pieces (literally, he cut it here
	and there) 52.23, 24
<i>łgu'nwî</i> knot	$lqunw \hat{i} n a'^{hu} t \bar{u} n \ y \bar{a}^{a'} x a^i$ he made
_	lots of knots (literally, he made
	many knots here and there)
$s\bar{u}'qu$ - to join 80.9	$s\bar{u}q^una'^{hu}t\bar{u}n$ he joined it together
<i>Lāpq-</i> (?) 80.15	$L\bar{a}pqana'^{hu}t\bar{u}n$ he put them side by
	side
$\bar{a}q$ - to take off 13.1	$\bar{a}qna'^{hu}t\bar{u}n$ he took it apart.

-mux^u- has the same function as the preceding -naw(a), but is employed less often, and seems to be confined to a limited number of stems. This suffix is frequently affected by the shifting of the accent (see § 12).

0 8 1-/-	
$waa^{i'}$ he says 8.9	waa''muxwa''x they two talk to each other 10.6
	$s^{E}ats\bar{\imath}'tca^{u}x$ $waa^{i}mux^{u}$ thus they
	two talk to each other 10.6, 7
	$ats\bar{\imath}'tc^wax\ waa'y{\it Emxust}$ thus they
	began to talk to each other 56.4
	waa'yEmxustaux they two began to
	talk to each other 48.13

teanhatī- to elub teanhatī'mxutxa ^{u}x q^{u} ı $\overline{i}'mt$ ants pEnî's they two were clubbing each other's anus, those skunks

86.9

 $k\hat{\imath}ma^{\bar{\imath}\iota}\iota$ to hit $k\hat{\imath}ma^{\bar{\imath}\iota}\iota$ to hit one another

\S 51. Distributive -it'ax

This suffix expresses the distributive of intransitive verbs. Owing to the fact that most nouns, even without the aid of any specific device, may have the function of intransitive verbs, this suffix will be found added to nouns, especially to terms of relationship. The initial $\bar{\imath}$ is frequently changed into $a^{\bar{\imath}}$ (see § 2).

The form -it'ax followed by certain subjective pronouns is subject to a peculiar law of contraction (see § 24).

k!în- to hear 70.5	k!inai't'axte wa'as xā'ts!ū înq!a'- aī two rivers will have one language (literally, hear mutu- ally their language [the people of] two rivers) 32.6, 7
sar u qu- to join	sū'qū't'ax ants hītsī'i xāL!ī'yūsnE adjoining these houses are built 80.9, 10.
Lāpq- (?)	alqa'tc L!aya' ul cīnax hītsī'i xā- L!a'yū'nE Lā'pqaīt'ax on one place three houses are built side by side 80.14, 15
nīcte- to fight	nī'ctcat'aux sî'nixyūn (to) fight mutually they two want (with them) 52.2
$m^u \bar{u}' s k^u$ younger brother 56.6	$m\bar{a}'skw\bar{\imath}t'a^ux$ $x\bar{a}'ts!^uwa^ux$ younger brothers mutually they two (were) 40.18 $n\bar{\imath}'ctcat'a^ux$, $m\bar{a}'skw\bar{\imath}t'a^ux = n\bar{\imath}'ct$ -
$m\hat{\epsilon}ctc\bar{\epsilon}'^i$ younger sister 40.2	$cat'axa^ux$, $m\bar{a}skw\bar{t}'axa^ux$ (see § 24) $ma'ctc\bar{t}t'anxan$ (= $ma'ctc\bar{t}t'axan$ -
J 0 1111 J 0	xan) sisters mutually we (excl.)

§ 52. Tentative -tc'

This suffix indicates an attempt on the part of the subject to perform a certain action, and may best be rendered by to attempt, to try... The native Siuslaw, unable to express its exact meaning, rendered it by various phrases, chiefly by sentences like to do something slowly, to "kind of"..., etc. Verbal stems ending in a consonant insert a weak vowel between its final sound and the suffix (see § 4). In terminal position this suffix appears as -tc'ya (see § 24).

yax- to see 34.4	stī'm*nx yāxatc'a'wax there they
	intend to try to look 60.7
	$y\bar{a}'xatc'\bar{\imath}st^{\scriptscriptstyle E}nx$ $l\bar{\imath}t'aya'$ you (will)
	try to begin to look for food 13.7
	yāxatc'a" wītîn t!āmc I intend try-
	ing to look for my boy 60.1, 2
<i>txat</i> - to run 12.3	$Lxa'tatc'$ îst $k/\bar{e}x\bar{u}'tc$ $L!aya'tc$ he
	begins to attempt to run every-
	where 13.8, 9
$k\bar{u}$ 'n- to beat 72.17	$uls_{\bar{a}} ts\bar{i}'k!ya k\bar{u}'n\bar{u}'tswa$ that one
	very (hard) tries to beat (them)
	78.18
$t/\bar{u}ha'$ - to sell, to buy 74.5	$t/\bar{u}hatc'\bar{v}'ntxa^ux$ (they two) try to
	sell their (dual) many (hides)
<i>līt!</i> - to eat 13.10	łī't!atc'în I eat slowly
$m\bar{\imath}x$ - to swim	mī'xatc'ya he is "kind of" swim-
	ming
	-

§ 53. Negative -it $(-a^it)$

This suffix expresses negation of action, and is used with intransitive verbs only. Negation of transitive verbs by means of a special suffix is not exhibited. The verbal stem to which this suffix is added must be preceded by the negative particles $k\bar{u}^i$, $kum\hat{i}'nte$ not (see § 131). An explanation of the parallel occurrence of $-\bar{\imath}t$ and $-a^{\bar{\imath}}t$ is given in § 2.

a^u s- to sleep 23.9	$kum\hat{\imath}'ntc^{\mathbf{E}}nxan\ a^{u'}s\bar{\imath}t$ not we (excl.)
<i>xîntm</i> - to travel 12.10	sleep 70.19 kumî'nte nī'k!a xî'ntmīt not alone
<i>cî'nx</i> ī- to think	he traveled 94.11 kumî'nte nîcteī'te cî'nxīl not (of)
	anything he was thinking 60. 20, 21
cî'l'x- to move, to shake 27.2	$k\bar{u}^i$ $c\hat{\imath}'l$: $x\bar{\imath}l$ not he moved 27.2, 3

§§ 52-53

 $w\bar{\imath}lw$ - to affirm, to answer 17.7 $k\bar{u}^i\ y\bar{a}'tsa\ w\bar{\imath}'lw\bar{\imath}l$ not (for) a long time he answered 74.4 ta^i - to live 32.21 $sq\bar{u}'ma\ ^ul\ kum\hat{\imath}'ntc\ ta'\bar{\imath}l\ \hat{\imath}nq!a'\bar{\imath}tc$ pelican did not live in the bay 44.1 $s\hat{\imath}nq!$ - to be hungry 44.11 $uln\ kum\hat{\imath}'ntc\ s\hat{\imath}'nq!a^{\bar{\imath}}l\ I$ (am) not hungry 44.15, 16 $xa\bar{u}$ - to die 40.21 $kum\hat{\imath}'ntc\ xa'u\bar{\imath}l\ he does not die 15.8$

Modal Elements of the Passive Voice (§§ 54-59)

§ 54. Introductory

Siuslaw employs a great number of suffixes for the purpose of expressing the passive voice. Many of these suffixes express, besides the passive idea, some other grammatical category, and according to this secondary function they may be divided into the following classes:

- (1) Pure passive suffixes.
- (2) Suffixes conveying the passive voice and temporal categories.
- (3) Passive suffixes indicating pronominal and possessive interrelations.

The suffixes of the last category have been fully discussed in §§ 38 and 39.

§ 55. Present Passive -xam

It expresses the present tense of the passive voice, and may be added directly to the stem or may be preceded by the verbalizing suffix $-a^i$ (- $\bar{\imath}$) (see §§ 75, 2). In the latter case it conveys an inchoative passive idea. In narratives this suffix assumes the function of an historic present. Stems ending in a consonant insert a weak vowel between their final sound and the suffix (see § 4).

$L!^owa'x$ - to send 7.7	"\langle wan \(L!\) \(\bar{o}xa'xam \) then finally he was sent 16.10
qaa- to enter 44.4	sexa ^w tc qaa'xam into a canoe it was put in 34.5
waa'- to speak 7.1	$waa'xam\ s^{\underline{s}}ats\overline{\imath}'tc$ he was told thus 8.1
wīlw- to affirm 17.7	<i>wīlwa'xam</i> he was answered "yes" 30.11
skwa'- to stand 10.9	skwaha'xam ants xa ⁱ tca'a ^ū placed was that roast (in the fire) 90.9
hate'- to ask 66.16	"I hatc'ī'xam he was asked 66.16
tak^u - to get, to take 7.5	tcîmtca'mî lokwī'xam an ax was seized 27.10

In two instances the verbal stem, to which this suffix is added, has been reduplicated (see § 107).

 $L\bar{\imath}'\bar{u}$ he comes 9.3

 $t_{\rm E}m\bar{u}$ - to assemble 7.3

" wàn L!īL!wa'xam finally he was approached 16.3

t! Emt! ma'xam wan they come to see him now (literally, he is assembled about, now) 23.3, 4

For forms in -xamltx, expressing passives with indirect object, the grammatical subject being the property of the indirect object, see § 39.

§ 56. Future Passives in -atam, -ī (-a¹), -aat

These suffixes indicate the future tense of the passive voice. No explanation for the occurrence of the variety of forms can be given. Similarly, all attempts to correlate these different suffixes with certain stems have been without results.

-atam is added directly to stems. Stems ending in a-vowels contract this vowel with the initial a of the suffix (see § 9). Final $\bar{\imath}$ and \bar{u} of the stem are diphthongized into ya and wa respectively before the addition of the suffix (see § 7).

 $tem\bar{u}$ - to assemble 7.3

 qn^{u^*} - to find 34.12 $s^{E}a'tsa$ thus 8.7

k/a'- to invite 16.3 waa'- to speak 7.1 hīn- to take along 23.2 nîcteī'te*teî te temuwa'tam . . . why these you, will be assembled 30.17

qnw wa'tamîn I will be found s at at at tamîn thus it will (be done) to me

k!aha'tamanx you will be invited waa'tam he will be told hīna'tam it will be taken along

By adding to -atam the objective form $-\bar{u}n$ (see § 28) a compound suffix $-atam\bar{u}n$ is obtained which exercises the function of a causative passive for the future tense. No examples of this formation have been found in the texts.

hīn- to take along 23.2

skwa'- to stand 10.9

 $h\bar{\imath}na'tam\bar{\imath}u$ he will cause him to be taken along

skwaha'tamūn I will cause him to be placed

 $skwaha'tam\bar{u}n = skwaha'tam\bar{u}n\hat{v}n$ (see § 15)

 $t\bar{u}$ 'n- to invite 16.2

tū'na'tamūn I will cause him to be invited

 $-\bar{\imath}$ (- $a\bar{\imath}$). This suffix must not be confounded with the nominalizing suffix of identical phonetic value. The stem to which it is added invariably undergoes a phonetic change, which may be called stemamplification (see § 112). An explanation for the parallel occurrence of $-\bar{\imath}$ and $-a^{\bar{\imath}}$ is found in § 2.

 $h\bar{\imath}n$ - to take along 23.2 $k\bar{u}$ 'n- to beat 72.17 rōt- to hit hakw- to fall 8.7

ana'x- to give up 16.8

 $L/x\bar{u}x^u$ - reduplicated form of $L/x\bar{u}$ - to know 40.16

 $h^i y a' n \bar{\imath} n$ I shall be taken along $k^{u}wa'$ ' $n\bar{\imath}n$ I shall be beaten Lowa'līnx you will get hit ułaux tcī'watc hakwa'aī they two into the water will be thrown 88.7.8

 $n\bar{\imath}ctx \ k^u \ a'naxa^{\bar{\imath}}$ suppose he be given up 64.26

L!xuwa'xwīn I shall be known

-aa" occurs more frequently than the two previously discussed suffixes, and is added to the bare stem. Stems ending in α contract their final vowel with the initial α of the suffix (see § 9). Sometimes, but not as a rule, the stem is amplified before adding the future passive $-aa^{u}$. This suffix usually requires the accent.

 $xn\bar{\imath}^w n$ - to do 10.5

 $L/xma\bar{\imath}'$ - to kill 15.3

 $t\bar{u}$ 'n- to invite

 $ma'q/\bar{\imath}$ - to dance 28.7

 $L/\bar{o}x$ - to send 16.10

 $xa\bar{u}$ - to die 40.21

 $h\bar{\imath}n$ - to take along 9.5

 $y\bar{a}^{a'}xa^i h\bar{u}tca^{\bar{i}'} xn\bar{i}^w na'a^u$ much playing will be done 9.6, 7

uln kumî'ntc sî'nixyūn L!xmaya'au I not want it (that) he shall be killed 15.8, 16.2

 $s^{E}a'tsa t\bar{u}'na'a^{u}$ thus he will be invited 16.2

atsī'te waa'xam meq!ēina'au thus it was said, "A dance will be arranged for him" 19.1, 2

cî'nixyat!ya ants hītc L!ōxa'au was thinking that man (who) was going to be sent 19.8, 9

 $s\hat{\imath}'n^ixy\bar{u}'nE\ xawa'a^u$ it was desired (that) he be killed 24.1

 $w an h \bar{n} a' a^u$ now he will be taken along 25.1

 $t\bar{u}$ 'tc- to spear 62.2 tak^u - to get 7.5

towatca'au it will be speared 62.8 kumî'ntcenx txū takwa'au, tūha'aunx yūa'xa not for nothing they will get you, they will buy you big (literally, not you just taken will be, bought you will be much) 74.16, 17

§ 57. Past Passive -xamyax

This suffix is (loosely) composed of the present passive -xam (see § 55) and of the suffix for the past tense -yax (see § 74).

$qn\bar{u}$ '- to find 56.9	Lîmna''q qnu'wa'xamyax elk was found 34.12, 13
$\ell a k^u$ - to seize 7.5	ants hīte lōkwī'xamyax that man
s ^E a'tsa thus 11.10	(who) was seized 60.12 $s^{E}ats\bar{i}'xamyax$ thus it was (done)
	32.16
hīq!- to start 15.1	$s^{\mathbf{z}}a'tsa\ h\bar{\imath}q/a'xamyax$ thus it was started 32.16

 $xa\bar{u}'$ he died 40.21

xauwī'xamyax he was killed 29.6

That the composition of this suffix is felt to be rather loose may be best inferred from the fact that the sign of the past (-yax) may precede the passive suffix -xam, as is shown in the following instances:

cî'nixyaxam sEatsī'tc it was thought
thus 27.6
$h\bar{u}^{i}'yaxan$ (I) got lost 68.2
yāk!ītcya'xam xwā'katc into pieces
was (cut) his head 29.4, 5
tc!haucya'xam wàn gladness was felt now 23.3

In all these instances the suffix -yaxam has resulted from an original -yaxxam (see § 15).

\S 58. Passive Verbs in - \bar{u} tn- (- $a^{\bar{u}}$ tn-), - \bar{u} 'nE (- $a^{\bar{u}}$ 'nE)

These suffixes are extensively employed in the formation of the passive voice; alone they do not express any particular tense. They may be added either directly to the stem, or to the stem verbalized by means of the suffix $-\alpha^i$ (see § 75). The subjective suffixes are added to these suffixes by means of a weak vowel (see § 4); but since the third person singular has no distinct form, and as clusters of

consonants in final position are inadmissible, the form of this suffix in terminal position is always $-\bar{u}tn_E$ ($-a^{\bar{u}}tn_E$).

The form $-\bar{u}$ 'ne has resulted from the change of the t of $-\bar{u}tn$ - to a weak aspiration (see § 16). The interchange between \bar{u} and $a^{\bar{u}}$ has been discussed in § 2.

$qalx$ - to count 8.5 $xn\bar{\imath}^w n$ - to do 10.5	$u\bar{t} \ qa' L x \bar{u} t n_E$ then it was counted $s^E a' t s a \ x n \bar{i}'^w n \bar{u} t n_E$ thus it was done 62.9
waa- to speak 7.1	kumî'ntc nîctcī'tc waa'aātne nothing was said 18.3
$gatc\bar{u}^{i'}tx$ he drinks	$p\bar{a}'l'\bar{u}$ $qatc\bar{u}^{i'}txa^{\bar{u}}tn\varepsilon$ (from the) well it is drunk 76.12
thatī'tx- to shout continually 11.10	thatitvaitne he is continually shouted at
waa'' he says 8.9	$ats\bar{\imath}'tc^in\ waa'y\bar{\imath}tn_E$ thus I am told 20.6
$t\bar{u}$ ' $tca^{i'}$ he spears 62.2	$t\bar{u}$ ' $tca'y\bar{u}tn_E$ it is speared 8.7
$x\bar{a}_L/a^{i'}$ he makes 50.8	tsī'L!ī L!a'ai ul xāL!a'yūtne many arrows are made 78.6
$xn\bar{\imath}^w n$ - to do 10.5	$s^{E}a'tsa \ xn\bar{t}'^{w}n\bar{u}'^{n}E$ thus it is done 74.2
mîltc- to burn 26.9	ma'ltcū'ne ants hītsī'i a fire was built (in) that house 25.2
waa'' he says 8.9	s ^E atsī'tc waa'yū'ne ants hītc thus was told that man 30.2, 3
$x\bar{a}_L/a^{i'}$ he makes 50.8	k!īx tE'q xāL!a'yū'nE everything is made 78.5, 6
k/a'- to invite 16.3	k!aha'yū'nîn I am invited 17.9
	k!aha'yū'nanx thou art invited
	k!aha'yū'natcî you are invited 30.10
$sî'nx\bar{i}$ - to desire 18.5	$s\hat{z}'n^ixy\bar{u}'nanx$ $\iota\bar{\imath}'\bar{u}t\bar{u}x$ you are wanted (to) come 19.7, 8
L!ōnītx- to tell continually	atsī'tc L!ōnī'txaū'nE thus it is frequently said 16.9

When preceded by the sign of the past tense, -yax (see § 74), these suffixes denote the passive voice of the past tense.

hatc'- to ask 66.16

atsī'tc waa'' ants ha'tc'yaxa''tnE thus said that one (who) was asked 66.24, 25 haw- to finish 14.6

. . . ants hītsī'i hauwai'styaxaūtne (when) that house began to be finished

§ 59. Durative Passives in -īsūtn- (-īsū'nE), -ūsn-

 $-\bar{\imath}s\bar{u}tn$ - $(-\bar{\imath}s\bar{u}'nE)$. This suffix is composed of the durative $-\bar{\imath}s$ (see § 69) and of the passive $-\bar{u}tn$ - (see § 58). It denotes a passive action of long duration. Owing to its durative character, the verbal stem to which this suffix is added is frequently amplified (see § 112) or duplicated (see § 107). $-\bar{\imath}s\bar{u}tn$ - interchanges constantly with $-a^{\bar{\imath}}s\bar{u}tn$ - (see §§ 2, 69). The subjective pronouns are added by means of a weak vowel. In final position it occurs as $-\bar{\imath}s\bar{u}tnE$, because a final cluster of t+n is inadmissible (see § 4). The change of the t to a weak aspiration in $-\bar{\imath}s\bar{u}'nE$ has been fully discussed in § 16 (see also § 58).

$t\bar{a}n$ - to call by name	tā'nīsūtne ants hītc he is constantly called, that man 23.7
cîl·x- to shake 27.3	$ci'l\cdot x\bar{i}s\bar{u}tn_E$ he is constantly shaken 27.2
waa'- to speak 7.1	$atsar{v}'te\ wa'a^{ar{\imath}}sar{u}`n_E ext{ thus he is always} \ ext{told } 24.2$
hīts- to put on 11.8	$h^i y a' t s \bar{\imath} s \bar{u} t n \bar{\iota}$ it is frequently put on 11.7
$L\bar{\imath}'\bar{u}$ (they) come 9.3	L!īL!wī'sūtnE he is being approached 26.2
yaq^{u^*} - to look 23.9	$ya'q^uh\bar{\imath}s\bar{u}`nE$ he is continually watched 26.1
qalx- to count 8.5	$qa'_Lx\bar{\imath}s\bar{u}`_{nE}$ it is being counted 62.11
waa'- to speak 7.1	$ats\bar{\imath}'tc\ waa^{\bar{\imath}'}s\bar{u}'n_E$ thus he is being told 23.10
hal- to shout 13.11	thatī'sū'ne he is continually shouted at 14.2
$L/x\bar{u}$ - to know 40.16	$kar{u}^i$ $L!xar{u}'xar{u}^isar{u}^c$ ne teattei'te ants $x\hat{i}nt$ not it was known where that one went 64.15, 16

 $-\bar{u}sn$ - is a combined suffix. Its first element is undoubtedly the durative $-\bar{u}s$ (see § 69); while the second component seems to represent an abbreviated form of the passive suffix $-\bar{u}tn$ -, discussed in § 58. It indicates a passive action of long duration or frequent occurrence, and may best be rendered by IT WOULD . . .

This suffix is always added to the verbal stem by means of the verbalizing $-a^i$ (changed into $-\bar{\imath}$; see § 75). Both $-\bar{\imath}$ and $-a^i$ are subject to consonantization before the initial vowel of the passive suffix, so that this suffix invariably occurs as $-\bar{\imath}\nu\bar{y}\bar{u}sn$ - or $-a\nu\bar{y}sn$ - (see § 8). In a few instances it appears as $-\bar{e}^i\nu\bar{y}\bar{u}sn$ - (see § 2). The subjective pronouns beginning with a consonant are added to this suffix by means of a weak vowel; and as a third person singular has no special form, and since a terminal cluster of s+n is inadmissible, these suffixes in terminal position always appear as $-\bar{u}sn\bar{e}$, $-\bar{\imath}\nu\bar{u}sn\bar{e}$ or $-a\nu\bar{u}sn\bar{e}$ (see § 4).

$tq\bar{u}l$ - to shout 52.8	tqūlī'yūsne ants tcîxnī'ne he is always shouted at, that raccoon 76.16, 17
hal- to shout 13.11	$hat\bar{\imath}'y\bar{\imath}_{SNE}$ he would be shouted at 70.22
waa'- to speak 7.1	atsī'tc waa'yūsnE thus he would be told 24.7
$l\bar{a}n$ - to call 23.7	lānat!ī'yūsnE he is continually called 76.17, 18
$t\bar{u}$ '- to buy 74.17	$t\bar{u}ha'y\bar{u}sn_E$ she would be bought 74.18, 19
$xn\bar{\imath}^w n$ - to do 10.15	$s^{\underline{r}}a'tsa \ xn\bar{\imath}^{w}n\bar{\imath}'y\bar{\imath}sn_{E}$ thus it would be done 76.5
<i>īlq</i> - to dig 84.2	$\mathcal{U}q\bar{e}^{i\prime}y\bar{u}sn_E$ ants $L!a'^{ai}$ dug would be the ground 80.6
$x\bar{a}_L$ '- to make 50.8	$x\bar{a}_L!\bar{\imath}'y\bar{u}sn_E$ ants $h\bar{\imath}ts\bar{\imath}'^i$ made is that house 80.13

In one instance this suffix has been added to a verbal stem by means of the verbalizing $-\bar{u}^i$ (see § 75).

 $tc\hat{\imath}n^u$ - to pack

tcîn^wū'yūsne ^ut qatc^Enī'yūsne they pack it and go (literally, it is packed and carried off) 100.20

In another instance the suffix appears as $-w\bar{u}snE$.

 $L\bar{\imath}'\bar{u}$ (they) come 9.3

L!mî'kcū Līwī'wūsnE flounder is brought continually 100.10

This occurrence of the w before $-\bar{u}sn_E$ may be explained as due to retrogressive assimilation; that is to say, the original y has been changed into w to agree in character with the w of the stem $L\bar{\iota}wa^{i'}$ HE COMES.

Modal Elements of the Imperative and Exhortative Modes (§§ 60-64)

§ 60. Introductory

Attention has been called in § 40 to the variety of suffixes that are employed in Siuslaw for the purpose of expressing the imperative mode. By far the majority of these suffixes indicate, besides the imperative idea, also pronominal and possessive interrelations between subject and object. These have been treated as primarily objective forms, and have been fully discussed in §§ 40–48. In the following sections only such suffixes will be discussed the primary functions of which are those of an imperative mode.

Siuslaw makes a clear distinction between a true imperative, a prohibitive, and an exhortative mode, and expresses these three varieties by means of distinct formative elements.

The difference between the ideas expressed by the imperative and exhortative is one of degree rather than of contents. The imperative expresses a command more or less peremptory; while the exhortative conveys an admonition, a wish. Furthermore, the exhortative rarely applies to the second person as the subject of the action. All exhortative expressions are preceded by the particle qa^il (see § 129) and are rendered by LET ME, HIM . . . , PERMIT ME TO . . . , MAY I . . . , etc

§ 61. Imperative Suffix for Intransitive Verbs -Em

This suffix is added to intransitive verbs only, regardless of whether they express a real active idea or a mere condition. It is suffixed directly to the verbal stem; and when added to stems that end in a vowel, the obscure E of the suffix is contracted with the vowel of the stem. In such contractions the quality and quantity of the stem-vowel usually predominate (see § 9). The second person singular is not expressed. The imperative for the second persons dual and plural is obtained by suffixing to E the subjective pronouns E and E respectively (see § 24). These pronouns are added by means of a weak E-vowel (see § 4).

līt!- to eat 13.10 kwīs- to wake up 40.9 waa'- to speak 7.1 qatc*n- to go 8.2 ma'q!ī- to dance 28.7 §§ 60-61 lī't'.Em eat! 40.26
kwī'sEm wake up! 58.5
wa'am speak!
qa'tcnEm go!
maq!yEm dance!

haw- to quit, to end 14.6
$qatc^{E}n$ - to go 8.2
$tq\bar{u}t$ - to shout 52.8
$q\bar{a}tx$ - to cry 58.15
xalin- to climb up 12.4

ha'ūm quit!
qa'tcnemats you two go!
tqū'lemats you two shout!
qā'txematcî you cry!
xa'lnematcî you climb up!

In negative sentences the imperative suffix $-\varepsilon m$ is replaced by the durative -is (see § 69). The whole phrase is preceded by the particle of negation $k\bar{u}^i$, $kum\hat{v}'ntc$ not (see § 131), to which are added the subjective pronouns for the second persons (see §§ 24, 26).

x î ntm - to travel 12.10 a^us - to sleep 24.1 $qa^iha'ntc$ far 10.3	kwī'nx xî'ntmīs don't travel! kwīnx a ^w 'sīs don't sleep! 23.9 kwīnx qa ⁱ ha'ntcīs don't (go) far
waa'- to speak 7.1	away! 56.21 $kw\bar{\imath}nx$ $s^{\underline{\imath}}ats\bar{\imath}'tc$ $wa'a^{\bar{\imath}}s$ don't thus
gatc ^E n- to go 8.2	say! 50.1 $k\bar{u}^i ts \ qa' tc^{\mathbf{E}} n\bar{\imath} s$ don't you two go!
,	54.23, 56.1
$ma'q/\bar{\imath}$ - to dance 28.7	kumî'ntc*tcî ma'q!īs don't ye dance!

By suffixing to the imperative tne subjective pronouns for the first persons dual and plural (see § 24), an exhortative mode for these persons is obtained.

tca'xum go!	tca'xumans let us two (incl.) go!
	58.5
$t\bar{\imath}'t'_{Em}$ eat! 40.26	$t\bar{t}'t'$ Emans let us two (incl.) eat!
	$l\bar{\imath}'t'$ Eman l let us (incl.) eat!
na'lem start!	na'temant let us (incl.) start!

§ 62. Imperative Suffix for Transitive Verbs -īs (-aīs)

This suffix expresses an imperative transitive idea. It must not be confused with the durative suffix $-\bar{\imath}s$ (see § 69), the phonetic resemblance between these two suffixes being purely accidental. It must be borne in mind that the durative $-\bar{\imath}s$ indicates an intransitive action, and is made transitive by the addition of the transitive $-\bar{u}n$ (see § 28).

The student is easily apt to confuse these two suffixes, because in the prohibitive mode the transitivized durative $-\bar{\imath}s\bar{u}n$ (see p. 518) is used; but this use is perfectly logical, since a transitive prohibitive is intimately connected with the idea of a (negated) action of long duration performed by a second person as subject.

The following table may best serve to distinguish at a glance between the different suffixes in -īs that occur in Siuslaw:

Not related1s transitive imperative -1s intransitive durative Related1sūn transitive prohibitive -1sūn transitive durative	
--	--

The imperative for the second persons dual und plural is not often expressed by suffixing to $-\bar{\imath}s$ the subjective pronouns -ts and $-tc\hat{\imath}$ respectively (see § 24), because the subjective pronouns are usually suffixed to attributes and particles that precede the verbal term (see § 26). The interchange between $-\bar{\imath}$ and $-a^{\bar{\imath}}$ has been discussed in § 2.

waa'- to talk 7.1	$wa'a^{\bar{\imath}}s$ talk to him! 76.18
L!wan- to tell 7.3	$L!w\bar{a}'n\bar{\imath}s$ tell him! 30.13
	$h\bar{\imath}'satc\hat{\imath}$ $L!w\bar{a}'n\bar{\imath}s$ well you tell
	(them)! 30.3
$t\bar{u}$ ' tc - to spear 62.2	towa'tcīs spear it! 64.2
$h\bar{\imath}n$ - to take along 9.5	$h\bar{\imath}'n\bar{\imath}s$ take it along!
skwa'- to stand 10.9	skwa'hais set it up!
hamx- to tie 8.6	ha'mxīs tie it!
qatc ^E n- to go 8.2	qa'tc ^E nīsats you two make him go!
<i>līt!</i> - to eat 13.10	lī't!īsatcî you eat it!

In negative sentences the imperative suffix is replaced by the transitive form of the durative $-\bar{\imath}s\bar{u}n$ (see § 69). The verb is preceded by the negative particle $k\bar{u}^i$, $kum\hat{\imath}'ntc$, used in connection with the subjective pronouns for the second persons (see §§ 131, 40).

L!wan- to tell 7.3	kwī'nx L!wā'nīsūn don't you tell
	him! 17.1, 2
qatc ^E n- to go 8.2	$kw\bar{\imath}nx~qa'tc^{\scriptscriptstyle E}n\bar{\imath}s\bar{u}n~{ m don't}$ you make
	him go!
$h\bar{\imath}n$ - to take along 9.5	$kum\hat{\imath}'ntc^inx$ $h\bar{\imath}'n\bar{\imath}s\bar{u}n$ don't you
	take it along!

The exhortative for the first persons is formed by adding to -is the subjective pronouns for these persons (see § 24).

 lak^u - to take 7.5 $la'kw\bar{\imath}sans$ let us two (incl.) take it! haw- to quit, to stop 14.6 $ha'w\bar{\imath}sanl$ let us (incl.) stop it!

§ 63. Intransitive Exhortative -īxmî (-aīxmî)

This suffix expresses an admonition, addressed to a first or third person, to perform an action that has no object. The verb must be preceded by the exhortative particle $qa^{i}l$ (see § 129), and the subjective

pronouns indicating the subject of the action are added to this particle and never to the exhortative suffix (see § 26).

The reasons for the interchange between $-\bar{\imath}xm\hat{\imath}$ and $-a^{\bar{\imath}}xm\hat{\imath}$ are discussed in § 2.

qail qatc*nī'xmî let him go! gatcen- to go 8.2 $a^{u}s$ - to sleep 23.9 $qa^{i}ln \ a^{u}s\bar{\imath}'xm\hat{\imath}$ let me sleep! waa'- to speak 7.1 $qa^{i'}l^{\underline{\nu}}ns \ waa^{\overline{\imath}'}xm\hat{\imath}$ let us two (incl.) speak! $qa^{i'}l^{E}nxan mag!\bar{\imath}'xm\hat{\imath}$ let us (excl.) $ma'q!^{i\bar{\imath}}$ to dance 28.7 dance! $qa^{i'}l^{E}nl$ $hal\bar{\imath}'xm\hat{\imath}$ let us (incl.) hat- to shout 13.11 shout! $qa^{i'}l^{\mathbb{E}}nx \ qatc\bar{u}^{i'}xm\hat{\imath}$ let them drink! $qatc\bar{u}$ - to drink 76.12 qail līt!ī'xmî let him eat! $t\bar{\imath}t'$ - to eat 13.10

In one single instance the exhortative for a second person (singular) occurs. The suffix is followed by the future passive $-\bar{\imath}$ (see § 56), and the exhortative particle is missing.

malte- to burn 25.2

mûlteï'xmīnx you may get burned (literally, to burn [exhortative, future passive] thou) 26.9

§ 64. Exhortative -1

This suffix admonishes the speaker to perform an act, the object of which must be one of the second persons, and may best be rendered into English by LET ME, THEE.... The object of the action is expressed by adding the subjective pronouns to this suffix (see § 24) by means of a weak a-vowel (see § 4). Singular subjects are not expressed phonetically; duality or plurality of subject is indicated by means of the independent personal pronouns (see § 113). The particle k^u (see § 127) frequently follows these exhortative forms, and, when preceding a form with the second person singular as the object (-lanx), it changes the final x into a (see § 4).

 $L/w\bar{a}n$ - to tell 17.1 $L\bar{o}l$ - to hit hatc'- to ask 66.16 $L/w\bar{a}n$ - to tell 17.1 L!wā'nlanx let me tell thee!

Lōle'lats let me hit you two!

ha'tc'latcî let me ask you!

L!wā'nlanaku let me tell thee!

<L!wā'nlanx ku

For other devices employed in Siuslaw for the purpose of expressing the exhortative mode, see § 129.

TEMPORAL SUFFIXES (§§ 65-74)

§ 65. Introductory

Siuslaw shows a rich development of the category of time, and employs a variety of suffixes for the purpose of denoting the different tenses of actions and conditions. The simple form of the verb has an indefinite character and is used to denote past and present occurrences, but otherwise the temporal classification is strictly adhered to.

All temporal suffixes may be divided into semi-temporal and true temporal suffixes. Primarily, each of these suffixes expresses the tense of an intransitive action only; but by suffixing to the tense sign transitive suffixes, such as $-\bar{u}n$, $-\bar{u}ts$, etc., the same idea of time for transitive occurrences is obtained. The only exceptions are found in the intentional and future tenses, which show two separate forms—one for intransitive verbs and the other for transitive actions (see §§ 41, 70, 73).

Semi-temporal Suffixes (§§ 66-70)

§ 66. Inchoative -st

This suffix denotes the commencement of an action, and assumes in some instances a transitional significance. Stems ending in a consonant insert a weak vowel between the final consonant and the initial element of the suffix (see § 4). When it is desired to express the inchoative tense of a transitive action, the transitive $-\bar{u}n$ or any of the other transitive forms is added to the suffix (see §§ 27 et seq.).

qwaxtc- to go towards 62.8.

malté- to burn 25.2 L!xatate'- to attempt to run

 $qa^{i}n^{u}$ to be tired

 $q\bar{a}tx$ - to cry 58.15

wîttc- to send

matc- to lie 38.21

"

qwa'xtcîst tcī'watc and she began to go towards the water 90.22 mî'ttcîst he began to burn 29.3

Lxa'tatc'îst k!ēxū'tc L!aya'tc he begins to attempt to run in all directions 13.8, 9

 $qa^{i'}n\bar{u}st\ a'nts^{\underline{v}}tc\ m^u\bar{u}'sk^u$ he began to get tired, his younger brother 58.11

ulaux stīm qa'txast and they two there began to cry 58.17

qamîta'te wî'lteîstūn her father (discriminative) began to send her 92.20

 $s^{\mathbf{z}}ats\bar{\imath}'tc$ $m\hat{\imath}'tc\hat{\imath}st\bar{\imath}u$. . . thus he began to fell . . . 94.7, 8

In a few instances this suffix will be found added to a stem after the same has been verbalized by means of the suffix $-a^i$ (see § 75).

xîntm- to travel about 12.10	k!ēxū'te L!aya'te ulɛnx xî'ntmaist everywhere they began to travel about 72.20 shaitū'nî pelī'te xî'ntmaistūn the
wusī- to be sleepy	big one first he began to take along 92.18 wusya'a ⁱ st ants mī'k!a hītc began to feel sleepy that bad man 26.
Text 4 4 40 40	1, 2 wusya'a ⁱ stîn I begin to feel sleepy 26.8
<i>līt!</i> - to eat 13.10	$w\bar{a}'nw\hat{\imath}tstt'.\bar{\imath}'st\bar{u}n$ already he (had) commenced to devour him 94.19 $(\bar{\imath}=a^i\text{ see }\S 2)$

It sometimes follows the other true temporal suffixes, lending to the inchoative action a definite tense.

płanyait- to be sorry (present	płanya''tîstūtsme ha'tc he began
tense)	to feel sorry for his (boy) 40.21
matte- to burn 25.2	ul maltcī'ūst he will begin to build a
	fire 90.6

In a number of cases this suffix expresses an adjectival idea.

ptn- to be sick 40.21	ants plaast he (who) begins to get
	sick, he (who) is sick: hence the
	sick (man) 86.15
$y\hat{\imath}'g!a^{u}$ - to split	$y\hat{\imath}'q/a^ust\ q/a'\bar{\imath}\bar{\imath}$ pitch (that) begins
	to split, split pitch
haw- to finish 14.6	$ha^uwa^{i\prime}st$ finished
	tsîma'st any kind of a place (sic)
	66.6

§ 67. Terminative -īxai (-aīxai)

This suffix expresses termination of an action. The stem to which it is suffixed must be preceded by some form of the verb $ha\bar{u}$ - to end, to finish. For the interchange between $-\bar{\imath}xa^i$ and $-a^{\bar{\imath}}xa^i$ see § 2.

pîtc- to go over 88.15	$ha\bar{u}'\bar{u}n \ p\hat{\iota}tca^{\bar{\imath}\prime}xa^i \ \mathrm{I} \ \mathrm{quit} \ \mathrm{going} \ \mathrm{over}$ (logs)
$q\bar{a}tx$ - to cry 58.15	haū'ūn qatxa [†] 'xa [†] I quit crying
walt- to snow	haū'tx waltī'xai it stopped snow- ing
hal- to shout 13.11	$ha\bar{u}'\bar{t}xan\ hala^{\bar{\imath}\prime}xa^i$ I stopped shouting
hamx- to tie 8.6	$ha\bar{u}'\bar{t}n hamx\bar{\iota}'xa^i I quit tying$ his
<i>ln</i> - to call	haū'ln lnaī'xai līnte I quit calling his name
waa'- to talk 7.1	haū'ln waa ^ī 'xa ⁱ I quit talking to him

It seems that the terminative suffix is frequently subject to the law of vocalic harmony, in spite of the fact that Siuslaw makes but little attempt at the harmonization of its vowels (see § 11). I have found a few examples showing that the initial vowel of the suffix has been assimilated to the quality of the vowel of the stem. Whether this rule applies to all cases could not be determined with any degree of certainty.

$x\bar{u}n$ - to snore 27.9	$ha\bar{u}'txan\ x\bar{u}n\bar{u}^{i'}xa^{i}$ (and not $x\bar{u}na^{\bar{i}'}$ -
	xa^i) I quit snoring
$h\bar{u}n$ - it gets dark 34.8	$ha\bar{u}'txh\bar{u}n\bar{u}^{i'}xa^{i}_{L}!a^{'ai}$ (and not $h\bar{u}$ -
	na ⁱ 'xa ⁱ) it stopped getting dark
$t = m\bar{u}'$ - to assemble 7.3	$ha\bar{u}'tx \ tEma^uya^{u'}xa^i \ h\bar{\imath}t\bar{u}'tc$ (and
	not $t = ma^{\bar{u}}ya^{\bar{i}'}xa^i$) he quit as-
	sembling (the) people

§ 68. Frequentatives -at!ī, -ītx (-a^Itx)

-at! $\bar{\imath}$ denotes frequency of action, and may best be rendered by FREQUENTLY, ALWAYS. In the first person singular the final long vowel of this suffix is shortened (see § 24). In terminal position the suffix -at! $\bar{\imath}$ is often changed into -at!ya (see §§ 7, 24).

$c\hat{\imath}'nx\bar{\imath}$ - to think 60.21	cî'niwyat!ya he is always thinking
hakw- to fall 8.7	ha'kwat!ya it always falls down
qatc ^E n- to go 8.2	qa'tcinat!ya he frequently goes
nakwai- to be poor	14.5 nākwa'yatyanxan we (excl.) are always poor 76.19

$L\bar{\iota}'\bar{u}$ - to come 9.2	nî'ctcîm sqaîk tī'wat!ī because there he came frequently 68.4, 5
ta^i - to live 16.2	pī''tsîs ta'yat!ī in the ocean he always lived 44.18
qaa'- to enter 34.5	$n\hat{\epsilon}tc\bar{\epsilon}'tcanx \ tanx \ k\bar{u}^i \ qaa't!\bar{\epsilon} \ \hat{\epsilon}n-q!a'a^{\bar{\epsilon}}tc$ why do you, this one,
	not frequently come into the river? 44.3, 4

In one instance this suffix occurs as -t.'ī.

k!ap- low tide 36.18 $t \in k!apa^{i'}t!\bar{\imath} \; \hat{\imath}nq!a'a^{\bar{\imath}} \; \text{(so that) always dry (may be) this river 38.2}$

When frequency of action in transitive verbs is to be expressed, the transitive suffixes are added to the frequentative $-at/\bar{\imath}$. This suffix amalgamates with the transitive $-\bar{u}n$ into $-at/y\bar{u}n$ (see § 8).

cî'nxī- to think 60.21	cînixyat!yūn mîta'īn I am always thinking of my father
cîl·x- to shake 27.2	cî'l·xyat!yūn qnà I always shake it
$planya^{i'}$ he is sorry	tsī'k'ya planya''t'yūn ha'tc (everybody) is very sorry for him, (everybody) hates him 19.2, 3
	$(< p\bar{l}anya^iya't!y\bar{u}n).$
ta^i - to sit to live 16.2	ants $t/\bar{v}'t/y\bar{u}n$ ($< taya't/y\bar{u}n$) that (on which) he was sitting 94.6

- $\bar{\imath}tx$ has the same function as $-at/\bar{\imath}$, and was invariably rendered by constantly, always. It is usually preceded or followed by the temporal adverb $\bar{\imath}nat$ always (see § 120). The phonetic resemblance between this suffix and the objective $-\bar{\imath}tx$ (see § 33) I believe to be purely accidental. This suffix occurs often as $-a^{\bar{\imath}}tx$ (see § 2).

$qatc^{E}n$ - to go 8.2	$yar{a}^{a\prime}xa^{u}x$ 1. $'ar{o}na^{i\prime}$ $a'ntsux$ $qatc^{\mathbf{z}}nar{\imath}'tx$
6	much they two talk, those two
•	(who) keep on going 56.7
$p^a a^{i\prime} Ln$ - to hunt 15.3	$ts\hat{\imath}'mqmatc\ ^{u}l^{x}nx\ paln\bar{\imath}'tx\ { m some\ of}$
	them are constantly hunting
	82.16, 17
$m\alpha'q/\bar{\imath}$ - to dance 28.7	$m_{Eq}/a^{v}tx$ he always dances 86.2

$x\hat{\imath}l\cdot xc\bar{\imath}$ - to work 48.10	xî'l·xcītxa ^u x a'ntsîtcx ^u mā'tī they two were constantly fixing those their (dual) dams 50.3, 4
$s\hat{a}'nx\bar{\imath}$ - to desire 18.5	sî'nxītx tetc mîctcī'i he always wants that her younger sister 92.13, 14
$t\bar{a}qn$ - to be full 60.19	taqanī'tx hītū'stc it is always full of people 70.3, 4
yîxum- to watch	yîxumî' txana ^u x they two were constantly watching him 94.1
<i>qatc</i> ^E n- to go 8.2	qatcînī'txa ^ū n lnàt I always make him go

In a few instances, especially when following other suffixes, the frequentative $-\bar{\imath}tx$ seems to lose its initial $\bar{\imath}$.

quentative $-\bar{\imath}tx$ seems to lose its	initial $\bar{\imath}$.
$hawa^{i\prime}$ it ends 14.6	hawa''stx ants Līya'wa he begins to finish (kindling) that fire (hawa''stx < hawa''st+-tx, see § 15) 90.7, 8
t!\bar{u}hatc\bar{v}\bar{n}\- to try to sell severally (?)	yaxa [†] /txa ^u x ta'to ^w ax lq/ā'nū ula ^u x t/ūhato'ī'ntxa ^u x (when) they begin to multiply (have much) these their (dual) hides, then they two constantly tried to sell them 100.19
$y\bar{u}_L$!- to break	$y\bar{u}^{wi}\iota!a'tx\ qa^{u}x\hat{u}n\bar{u}'$ it constantly broke on the top 94.4

These three examples may also be explained as demonstrating the application of the pronominal suffix $-\bar{\imath}tx$ (see § 33).

\S 69. Duratives -īs (-āɪs), -ūs

Duration of action is expressed in Siuslaw by means of the suffix -s, which, however, never occurs alone. It invariably enters into composition with other suffixes, such as the suffix for the past tense, for the passive voice, etc., or it is preceded by either $\bar{\imath}$ or \bar{u} . It is not inconceivable that this durative -s may be related to the auxiliary -s (see § 76). The difference between $-\bar{\imath}s$ and $-\bar{u}s$ seems to be of a true temporal nature.

 $-\bar{\imath}s$ ($-a^{\bar{\imath}}s$) denotes duration, continuation of action of a clearly marked future significance, and, owing to this future character, it is employed extensively in the formation of the imperative mode (see

tcī'wans xî'ntīs to the water we two

 $st\bar{\imath}m \ ta'\bar{\imath}s$ there he kept on staying

 $wa^{i} y\bar{a}'tsa uln m\bar{a}'q!\bar{\imath}s$ even for a

salmon continually came 98.16

\$ 69

hauwainī'yūsaux wàn they two fin-

ish it finally 84.6, 7

(incl.) will keep on traveling 92.9

xînt- to travel 23.1

 ta^{i} - to live, to stay 16.2

 $ma'q/\bar{\imath}$ - to dance 28.7

hauwainai- to finish

§§ 60, 62). Transitive verbs add $-\bar{u}n$ or its equivalents (see § 28) to the durative $-\bar{\imath}s$. For the interchange between $-\bar{\imath}s$ and $-\alpha^{\bar{\imath}}s$ see § 2.

70.12

ma qui co anno zon	long time I still keep on dancing 72.10
$xnar{\imath}^wn$ - to do 10.5	$s^{\underline{z}}a'tsan\overline{t}$ $xn\overline{t}'^{\underline{w}}n\overline{t}s$ thus we (incl.) will do every time 72.14, 15
waa'- to speak 7. 1	atsī'te wa'aīs ants hīte thus kept on saying the man 25.9
skwa'- to stand 10.9	skwa'ha's ants hītc continually standing is that man 64.11
$xn\bar{\imath}^w n$ - to do 10.5	$qn\bar{\imath}'xts^{\bar{z}}nx \ xn\bar{\imath}'^{w}n\bar{\imath}s\bar{u}n$ you will continually do it 70.11, 12
waa'- to speak 7. 1	atsī'te wa'aīsūn thus he kept on saying to him 64.14
$tk\bar{u}m$ - to make a dam 48.8	"lns tkwa'mīsūn and we two (incl.) still will keep on making dams 48.14
qalx- to count 62.8	qa'ıxēsūn ants tsxayū'wi (they) keep on counting those days 8.5
$-\bar{u}s$ is suffixed mostly to stems t	hat have been verbalized by means
of the suffix $-a^i$ (see § 75), and ex	
formed in the present tense. It	
_	
a third person object. Examples	for similar forms with a second
person object were not obtained.	
$\hat{u}qa^{i\prime}$ he digs 84. 2	a'ntsux ûqa'yūs ants L!a'ai those two (who) continually dig that ground
(L/xmay- to kill 16.1)	uł szàs L!xmaī'yūs uł līt!ī'yūs and
$\{l./xmay$ - to kill 16.1 $\{l\bar{\imath}t./$ - to eat 13.10	he would kill and devour him 15.3, 4
tkūm- to make a dam 48.8	tcī'kwax tkwamī'yūs L!a'ai where- ever they two were making dams 52.24
$L\bar{\imath}'\bar{u}$ (they) come 9.3	${}^u l a^u x l t' \bar{\imath}' a^{\bar{\imath}} {}_L l' \bar{\imath} L l' w \bar{\imath}' y \bar{u} s {}_{ m to} {}_{ m them} {}_{ m two}$

yax- to see 20.10

 qn^{u} w to find 34.12

 $y\bar{a}x\bar{i}'\bar{u}s^in$ te $s\bar{i}'xa^{\bar{i}}$ (whenever) I saw that canoe (coming) 100.8, 9 ${}^{u}\bar{l}^{e}nx$ $qn\bar{u}`w\bar{i}'w\bar{u}s$ $y\bar{a}^{a'}xa^{i}$ $h\bar{t}tc\bar{u}'^{wi}$ they would find lots of people $(qn\bar{u}`w\bar{i}'w\bar{u}s < qn\bar{u}w\bar{i}'y\bar{u}s)$ 66.22

By suffixing the durative -s to the sign for the past tense, -yax (see \S 74) a compound suffix -yaxs is obtained which denotes an action of long duration performed in the past. This suffix is often contracted into $-\bar{\imath}xs$ (see \S 9).

 $a^{u}s$ - to sleep 24.1

gatcuw- to drink 76.11

 $l\bar{t}t'$ - to eat 13.10 $pE k\bar{u}'^u$ - to play shinny 9.4

a^u'syaxsîn, a^u'sīxsîn I had been sleeping

qa'tcwaⁱxs, qa'tcwayaxs he had been drinking

 $l\bar{\imath}'t'.yaxs\hat{\imath}n$ I have been eating $p\bar{a}'k\bar{u}^ixs\hat{\imath}n$, $p\bar{a}'k^uyaxs\hat{\imath}n$ I have been playing shinny

§ 70. Intentionals -awax, -awun

-awax. This suffix indicates intention to perform a certain action. Hence it was usually rendered by I (THOU)... AM ABOUT TO, I (THOU)... AM GOING TO, I (THOU)... WILL, I (THOU)... WANT TO. It is used with intransitive verbs only; and it is contracted with the subjective pronouns, for persons other than the first person singular and the second dual and plural, into -awanx, -awans, -awanx, -awanx, -awanx, and -awanx (see § 24).

 $\bar{a}q$ - to run away 52.10

 $L\bar{\imath}'\bar{u}$ (they) come 9.3 $yaq^{u'}$ - to look 23.9

qaqū'n- to listen

 $h\bar{u}tc$ - to play, to have fun 7.2

pīūl- to hunt

 $m\bar{\imath}k^{u}$ - to cut 90.5

āqa'waxan I intend to run away 90.21

ants płna'st uł cî'nixyat!ya āqa'wax that siek (man) always thought of running away 86.15

Līwa'wanx you intend to come 25.8 yoq''ya'wax he intended to see 70.8 yaq''ya'wanxan we (excl.) are going to see

qaqūʻna'wax L!a'ai they were going to listen 30.18

 $h\bar{u}'tcawans$ we two (incl.) are going to play 10.5

pīūla'waxuxûn we two (excl.) intend to go hunting 54.22
mīkwa'waxts you two will cut

xaitc- to roast 90.9	"la"x xa"tca'wa"x and they two finally intend roasting 90.8
$L\bar{l}'\bar{u}$ (they) come 9.3	to arrive now 66.1
$t = m\bar{u}'$ - to assemble 7.3 $ma^a tc$ it lay 32.22	temūa'waxtcî you will assemble metca'wanx they intended to lie down 38.23

 $-a^w \bar{u} n$. This suffix expresses the same idea as -awax, from which it differs in so far only as it implies a transitive action that has a third person as its object. It is probable that by some process of contraction this suffix represents an abbreviation from an original $-awaxa^{\bar{u}}n$ or $-awax\bar{u}n$.

$h\bar{\imath}n$ - to take along 9.5	hīna'wūn ants plna'st she intends taking along that sick (man) 88.1, 2
waa'- to speak 7.1	"t waa'" ūn ants hītc L!a'a' and he was about to talk to these people
lak^{u} - to take, to get 7.5	yāa'xai t!āmc lakwa'wūn many children he wants to have (to get)
$t = m \bar{u}'$ - to assemble 7.3	temūa'wūn ants L!a'ai hītc many people are about to assemble 30.8
yaq^{u^i} - to look 23.9	sqā'tmaux yoqu'ya'wūn from there they two intended to watch 62.18, 19

True Temporal Suffixes (§§ 71-74)

§ 71. Introductory

Siuslaw distinguishes between three true temporal categories, namely, present, future, and past. Excepting for the first of these, which is used to denote present and past, this differentiation is clearly marked and strictly adhered to.

§ 72. Present -t

It denotes an action performed at the present time. Stems ending in a vowel lengthen the vowel before adding the suffix -t; stems ending in a t insert an obscure (or weak) vowel between their final consonant and the suffix (see § 4). Transitive present actions are expressed by adding to the -t the transitive suffixes $-\bar{u}n$ and $-\bar{u}ts$ (see §§ 28, 29).

wīłw- to affirm 30.11	$ula^ux \ wan \ w\bar{v}'l\bar{u}t$ they two finally affirmed 90.6
$\hbar \bar{i}q$!- to start 15.1	$s^{E}ats\bar{i}'tc$ waa' $u\bar{t}$ $h\bar{i}'q/a^{\bar{i}}t$ thus he talks and starts (off) 22.5, 6
$s\hat{n}'nx\bar{\imath}$ to desire 11.7	sî'nxīt tāqa''na he wants something 18.5
$wa's \iota s \bar{\imath}$ - to be angry	wa'sısīt ants tsîmî'l'ä was angry that muskrat 52.17
tca'xu- to turn back 58.5	$ut tca'xa^{\bar{u}}t$ he turns back 16.5
$qatc^{E}n$ - to go 8.2	$qa'tc^int$ he goes 12.9
	ga'tcintaux they two are going 23.1
xaln- to climb up 62.7	$tx\bar{u}$ $xa't^int$ he just climbs up 12.4
qaiha'ntc way off 10.3	qaiha'ntctant wàn we (incl.) have come far now 66.3, 4
maltc- to burn 25.2	hai'mūt ma'ttcit everything burned (down) 34.18
$qaq\bar{u}$ 'n- to listen 30.18	qa'quhantūn pī'ū hītc he heard (make) noise (the) people 36.23, 24
$l\bar{\imath}t$!- to eat 13.10	$t\bar{t}'t'$ tun he ate him (up) 94.19
yaq^{u^*} - to see 23.9	$yo'q^uha^it\bar{u}n$ ants $\hat{i}nq/a'a^i$ he looked at that river 36.21, 22
$w\bar{\imath}tw$ - to affirm, to agree 30.11	$ul m\bar{a}'q^uL w\bar{\imath}'l\bar{u}t\bar{u}n$ then Crow agreed to it 36.6, 7

§ 73. Future -tūx

This suffix is added to intransitive stems only, and it denotes an action that is to take place in the future. Stems ending in a vowel lengthen the same before adding this suffix. When added to stems that end in a t, an obscure (or weak) vowel is inserted between the final t of the stem and the initial consonant of the ending (see § 4).

Whenever $-t\bar{u}x$ is to be followed by the subjective pronouns for the second person singular, inclusive and exclusive dual and plural, and the third person plural, it is contracted with them into $-t\bar{u}nx$, $-t\bar{u}ns$, $-ta^ux\hat{u}n$ (?), $-t\bar{u}nl$, $-t\bar{u}nxan$, and $-t\bar{u}nx$ respectively (see § 24). The transitive future is rendered by means of the suffixes $-y\bar{u}n$, $-\bar{\iota}^wy\bar{u}n$ (see § 41).

 $qatc^{x}n$ - to go 8.2 qa'tc $nt\bar{u}xan$ I will go 22.2 $qa'tc^{t}nt\bar{u}nx$ thou shalt go 22.2 $L/w\bar{a}n$ - to tell, to relate 17.1 $L/w\bar{a}'nt\bar{u}nx$ thou shalt tell 30.12 $L/wa'nt\bar{u}xtc\hat{i}$ you will tell 7.3

 $sm\bar{u}t$ '- to end 9.1 $sm\bar{u}'t'^{E}t\bar{u}x$ it will end 20.5 $L\bar{\imath}'\bar{u}$ - to come 9.2, 3 $L\bar{\imath}'\bar{u}t\bar{u}x$ he will come 9.2 $L\bar{\imath}'\bar{u}t\bar{u}nxan$ we (excl.) will come 30.11 qwaxtc- to go down to the $n\bar{\imath}'k!an\bar{t}$ $qwa'xtc^it\bar{u}x$ alone river 48.18 (incl.) will go down 62.14 $h\bar{u}'tct\bar{u}ns$ we shall play 10.6 $h\bar{u}tc$ - to play 7.2 $h\bar{u}'tct\bar{u}nl$ we (incl.) shall play 7.2 $\bar{a}'qt\bar{u}ns$ we two (incl.) will run $\bar{a}q$ - to run away 52.10 away 92.2 sîng!- to be hungry 44.11 sî'nq!tauxûn we two (excl.) will be hungry $m\bar{\imath}'k^ut\bar{u}xts$ $lt'\bar{\imath}aya'$ you two will $m\bar{\imath}k^{u}$ - to cut cut salmon 90.5 $xa\bar{u}'$ he died 40.21 $xa'\bar{u}t\bar{u}xa^ux$ they two will die 88.7 $xw\bar{\imath}_L$ to turn back 12.6 $xw\bar{\imath}' L!t\bar{u}n\bar{t}$ we (incl.) will turn back 60.9 $k/\hat{\imath}nk'y$ - to look for 16.1 $tqa^{u}w\bar{\imath}'tc^{i}ns$ $k!\hat{\imath}'nk'\bar{\imath}t\bar{u}x$ upstream we two will look for . . . 56.17

§ 74. Past -yax

This suffix expresses an act performed long ago. The idea of a past transitive action is conveyed by suffixing to -yax the transitive $-\bar{u}n$ and $-\bar{u}ts$ (see §§ 28, 29, 2). It is subject to contraction whenever followed by the subjective pronouns for the second person singular, inclusive and exclusive dual, third dual, inclusive and exclusive plural, and third plural (see § 24). The contracted forms for these persons are -yanx, -yans, $-ya^ux^un$, $-ya^ux$, -yant, -yanxan, and -yanx. This suffix always requires that the accent be placed on the first syllable of the word.

 $q\bar{u}^it$ '- to dream $h\bar{\imath}tc$ $q\bar{u}^{i'}t'yax$ a person dreamt 68.21 $tk\bar{u}m$ - to close 48.8 ants thwa'myax (when) it closed 78.3 $L\bar{\imath}ha$ - to pass by 80.12 Qa'a' cīx lī'hayax along North Fork it passed by 32.19 ta^{i} - to live 16.2 $m^{E}y\bar{o}^{\varepsilon}k^{u}s ta^{\bar{\imath}\prime}yax L!aya'$ in the beginning (they) lived in a place 82.11, 12 \hat{xint} - to start 20.3 ułn sīhī'tc xî'ntyax (when) I began to grow up (literally, then I [into] growing started) 100.18 $L\bar{\imath}'\bar{u}yans$ we two (incl.) came $L\bar{\imath}'\bar{u}$ (they) come 9.3 \$ 74

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hūtc- to play 7.2	$h\bar{u}'tcyans$ (when) we two (incl.) play 78.9
	$h\bar{u}'tcyant$ (when) we (incl.) play 78.13
$L\bar{\imath}'\bar{u}$ (they) came 9.3	$L\bar{\imath}'\bar{u}yanxan$ we (excl.) came
xîntm- to travel 12.10	"l xî'ntmiyaxa"n and he took (them) along 92.13
$s\hat{\imath}'nx\bar{\imath}$ - to desire 18.5	$tc\hat{\imath}na'ta^u s\hat{\imath}'n^ixyaxa^{\bar{\imath}}n$ whoever desired it 11.6, 7
hīn- to take along 9.5	$qa^iha'ntc$ $h\bar{\imath}'nyaxa^{\bar{\imath}}n$ $ya^{\epsilon}k^{u}s$ way off took him seal 68.17, 18
waa'- to speak 7.1	$s^{\underline{s}}ats\overline{i}tc$ $wa^{a\prime}yaxa^{\overline{u}}n$ thus he told him 36.11
$L/w\bar{a}n$ - to relate 17.1	$s^{E}ats\bar{v}'tc\ L.'wa^{a'}nyaxa^{\bar{u}}n$ thus he related to him 38.8

The past suffix is frequently added to a duplicated stem, denoting a past action of long-continued duration (see § 108).

$tak^{u_{-}}$ to get, to have 7.5	lā'kukyax hītū'te texmū'nya she was taking a male person
$h\bar{\imath}q$!- to start 22.6	$s^{\underline{z}}a'tsa \ h\bar{\imath}'q!aq!yax$ thus it started 15.1
ha^iq - shore 44.7	$tc\bar{v}'wane ha^{i'}q\hat{q}qyax \text{from the}$ water ashore it had come 56.13
$qa^{i}x$ darkness, night 38.21	qa''xîxyax te L!a'a' it was getting dark 34.4
tūʻtc- to spear 62.2	t°wa'tcîtcyaxa ^ū n te ya ^c k ^u s I have been spearing this seal 66.17

In a few instances it has been found following the present -t, although for what purpose could not be ascertained.

$h\bar{i}q$!- to start 22.6	$h\bar{\imath}'q!a^{\bar{\imath}}t$ 22.6	$a'ntsux\ har{\imath}'q!a^ityax\ p^ukwa^{ar{\imath}'}t$
		those two who had started
		to play shinny 78.15
t!îm $ct!$ i- to raise	$t!\hat{\imath}'mct!\bar{\imath}t$	ula^ux wan $t!\hat{i}'mct!\bar{i}tyax$
children 30.23		then they two finally
		raised children
wīlw- to affirm	$w\bar{\imath}'\bar{\imath}\bar{u}t$ 90.6	wī'lūtyaxan I agreed
30.11		
qatc ^E n- to go 8.2	$qa'tc^int \ 12.1$	qa'tcintyaxan I went away
ma^atc - to lie 32.22	$m_{\it E'}tc{\hat{\imath}}t$	$m\hat{\imath}'tc^{i}tyaxa^{\bar{u}}n$ L! $ay\bar{u}'stc$ I
		laid it down on the ground
$xa^{i}tc$ - to roast 90.8	$xa^{i\prime}tc\hat{\imath}t$	$xa^{i\prime}tc\hat{\imath}tyaxa^{\bar{u}}n$ he roasted it

(For the idiomatic use of the past suffix in conditional clauses see § 136.)

VERBALIZING SUFFIXES (§§ 75-77)

§ 75. Verbalizing $-a^i$, $-\overline{u}^i$

While the majority of Siuslaw stems do not require the addition of a specific verbal suffix in order to convey a general verbal idea, these two suffixes have been found added to a large number of neutral stems, especially in the present tense. They may therefore be explained as verbalizing a neutral stem and as expressing an intransitive action of present occurrence. They are frequently used to denote an action performed by the third person singular, for which person Siuslaw has no distinct suffix (see § 24). There can be no doubt, however, that these suffixes are identical with the Alsea inchoative -aai, $-\bar{u}i$, and that $-a^i$ bears some relation to the Coos intransitive -aai. While no difference in the use of these two suffixes could be detected, it was observed that $-\bar{u}^i$ is never added to stems that end in a q, p, or in a.

pln- to be sick 15.4 $h\bar{u}tc$ - to play 7.2 waa'- to speak, to say 7.1 $l\bar{t}t'$ - to eat 13.10 ha^iq - shore 44.7 yax- to see, to look 20.10 skwa'- to stand 10.9 $sm\bar{u}t'$ - to finish, to end 11.1 a^us - to dream, to sleep, 23.9 ιxas - to fly, to jump $\iota q\bar{u}l$ - to shout 52.8 $s\bar{u}n$ - to dive 64.21

 $plna^{i'}$ he was sick 40.21 $h\bar{u}tca^{i'}$ 72.6, $h\bar{u}tc\bar{u}^{i'}$ 23.8 he plays $waa^{i'}$ he says 8.9 $l^it.'a^{i'}$ he comes ashore 82.5 $y\hat{v}xa^{i'}$ he looks 66.6 $skwaha^{i'}$ he stands 14.4 $sm\hat{v}l^i\bar{u}^{i'}$ it ends 14.6 $as\bar{u}^{i'}$ he dreams 68.22 llooler llooler

That these suffixes are not essentially necessary for the purpose of expressing a verbal idea, but that, like their Alsea equivalents, they may have originally conveyed inchoative ideas, is best shown by the fact that all such verbalized forms are parallel to bare stem-forms. In all such cases the amplified form seems to denote inception and (at times) finality of action.

 $w an w \bar{\imath} lwa'$ now he affirms 58.9 $w an w \bar{\imath} lwa''$ he begins to affirm 17.7 $u l tc \bar{\imath} n$ and he came back 7.7 $tc \hat{\imath} na''$ he came back 68.16

$L\bar{\imath}'\bar{u}$ (they) arrive 9.3	tcî'ntau hītc Līwa' whatever person came 24.7
$x\bar{a}\bar{u}'$ he died 40.21	xawa'' hītc (when a) person dies 42.11
$ats\bar{v}'tc \ L'wa^an$ thus he tells 58.22	$y\bar{a}^{a'}xa^{u}x$ $L.'\bar{o}na^{i'}$ much they two begin to talk 56.7
$a'nts^{E}nx \ xn\bar{\imath}'^{w}nE$ those (who) do it 78.20	$s^{x}\alpha' tsanx \ xn\bar{\imath}^{w}n\alpha^{i'}$ thus they begin to do (it) 78.19
tai he is sitting, he lives 16.2	tqa"wītc taya" upstream (they) commence to live 82.12, 13
kumî'ntc yax not (he) sees 34.4	yîxa'' wàn (they) commence to look 66.9
$ulnx \ ha\bar{u}'$ they quit 11.4	sqa [†] k wàn hawa ^{i'} here finally it ends 14.6
"t wàn skwaha' now he stands (up) 28.8	skwaha'' he stands 14.4
$u\bar{t}$ waa' then he says 11.2 $sm\bar{u}'t'a$ it ends 11.1	$waa^{i'}$ he says 8.9 $sm\hat{\imath}t^{i}\bar{\imath}^{i'}$ it ends 14.6

§ 76. Auxiliary -s, -t

These suffixes express our ideas to have, to be with. A peculiarity that remains unexplained is the fact that they are always added to the locative noun-forms that end in $-\alpha$ or $-\bar{u}s$ (see § 86).

-s is always added to the locative form ending in $-\alpha$, and never to the $-\bar{u}s$ form, which may be due to phonetic causes. The use of this suffix is rather restricted. It is not inconceivable that it may be related to the durative $-\bar{\imath}s$ (see § 69).

Absolutive	Locative	Auxiliary
$ts\bar{\imath}'_L/\bar{\imath}$ arrow 50.14	tsī1!ya' 50.9	na'han utn tsīl!iya's I will
4		have an arrow 50.16
qal·tc knife	$qal \cdot tcya'$	<i>qa'l'tcyas</i> he has a knife
łkwa'nî pipe	$\bar{l}kwa'nya$	tkwa'nyasîn I am with a
		pipe
$lqa^{i'c}t\bar{u}\log 32.21$	$lqa't^uwa$	<i>lqa'tuwas</i> he has a stick

-t occurs very often, and is added to all forms of the locative case. It can never be confused with the sign of the present tense -t, because it is invariably preceded by the locative forms in - α or $-\bar{u}s$, while the suffix for the present tense follows vowels and consonants other than α or s (see § 72).

Absolutive	Locative	Auxiliary
<i>qīūtcū'nî</i> woman 30.21	$q\bar{\imath}\bar{u}tc\bar{u}'nya$ 76.7	qīūtcūnya't he has a wife 48.8
$k\bar{o}'tan$ horse 34.9	kōtana'	kumî'nte kōtana't not they had horses 100.20, 102.1
t'îx tooth	$t'\hat{\imath}xa'$	$t'\hat{\imath}xa't$ $c\bar{a}'ya$ teeth has (his) penis 90.19
yîktî'l·ma big 40.6	yî k tî' l ' ma	yîktî'l·mat cā'ya he has a big penis 92.1
$t\bar{\imath}'t'a^{\bar{\imath}}$ food 34.23	łīt!aya' 13.7	kumî'ntc līt!aya't(they) had no food 34.10
$k l ar{\imath}' n ar{u}$ ladder	k ł $\bar{\imath}'nwa$	klī'nwat ants hītsī'i a ladder has that house 80.12
t_E g something 13.2.	$t\bar{a}qa^{i\prime}na~18.5$	ha''mūt kumî'ntc tāqa''- natitc hī'qū' they all had no hair (literally, all not with something is their hair) 68.12
$s\bar{\imath}xa^{\bar{\imath}}$ canoe 56.5	$sexa^{\bar{u}'}$ 48.18	$sexa^{u'}t$ în I have a canoe
$tc\bar{\imath}'t'/\bar{\imath} \text{ wind}$	$tcar{\imath}t!yar{u}'s$	$kum\hat{\imath}'ntc$ $tc\bar{\imath}t!y\bar{u}'st$ (there) was no wind
$m\hat{\imath}t\hat{\alpha}$ father 54.22	$m\hat{\imath}ta'y\bar{u}s$	$m\hat{\imath}ta'y\bar{u}st$ he has a father
mîlà mother 54.23	$m \hat{\imath} t a' y ar{u} s$	<i>mîla'yūst</i> he has a mother
$lqa^{i'}t\bar{u}$ log, stick 32.21	$lqat\bar{u}w\bar{\imath}y\bar{u}'s$ 88.16	<i>lqatūwī'yūst</i> he has a stick
$h\bar{\imath}ts\bar{\imath}'^i$ house 25.2	$h\bar{\imath}ts\hat{\imath}'s$ 48.7	<i>hītsî'st</i> he has a house
<i>Lî′mstī</i> raw	Lîmstī's	tcīk ants Lîmî'stīst L'a'ai where (there was) that green place 34.2, 3

§ 77. Suffix Transitivizing Verbs that Express Natural Phenomena -L!

A suffix with a similar function is, as far as my knowledge goes, to be found in but one other American Indian language; namely, in Alsea. This suffix is added exclusively to stems expressing meteorological phenomena, such as it snows, it rains, the wind blows, night approaches, etc.; and it signifies that such an occurrence, otherwise impersonal, has become transitivized by receiving the third person singular as the object of the action. Its function may best be compared with our English idiomatic expression rain, snow overtakes

HIM, NIGHT COMES UPON HIM, etc. By adding to -L! the subjective pronouns for the first and second persons (see § 24), the same expressions with these persons as objects are obtained. This suffix always follows the tense signs, and immediately precedes the pronominal suffixes.

$qa^{i}x$ night, darkness 38.21	"lxûn stīmk qa"xtūxL! us two (excl.) there night will overtake 94.18
$tcar{\imath}'t'ar{\imath} ext{ wind}$	$tc\bar{\imath}'t'\bar{\imath}_{L}!$ a storm overtook him
tsxaya'' day breaks 50.3	tsxaya'' L.'a''x (when) day came upon them two 48.9
k!ap- low tide 36.18	k!a'ptūxL! low tide will overtake (them) 36.18
$\bar{u}'lt\bar{\imath} \text{ snow } 76.10$	wa'lt*tūxL!în snow will overtake me
$\hbar \hat{v}' n^{e} k \bar{\imath} t$ it rains	$h \hat{v}' n^{\epsilon} k / \bar{\imath} t^{i} L / anx$ rain pours down upon them

It is not inconceivable that this suffix may represent an abbreviation of the stem L/a'^{ai} PLACE, WORLD, UNIVERSE (see § 133), which the Siuslaw always employs whenever he wants to express a natural phenomenon.

 $tsxaya^{i'}$ L/a'^{ai} day breaks 50.3 $h\hat{v}'n^{\epsilon}k'ya$ L/a'^{ai} it rains 78.1 $k'uw\hat{v}na^{i'}$ L/a'^{ai} (there was) ice all over 76.11 $qa^{i'}x\hat{v}xyax$ t L/a'^{ai} it got dark 34.4

PLURAL FORMATIONS (§§ 78-80)

§ 78. Introductory

The idea of plurality in verbal expressions may refer either to the subject or object of the action. In most American Indian languages that have developed such a category, and that indicate it by means of some grammatical device, plurality of subject is exhibited in intransitive verbs, while plurality of object is found in transitive verbs. Such plurality does not necessarily coincide with our definition of this term. It may, and as a matter of fact it does, in the majority of cases, denote what we commonly call distribution or collectivity. Thus the Siuslaw idea of plurality is of a purely collective character, and seems to have been confined to the subject of intransitive verbs only. Even the contrivance so frequently employed by other American Indian languages, of differentiating singularity and plurality of objects by

BOAS]

means of two separate verbal stems—one for singular and the other for plural objects—is not found in Siuslaw.1 One and the same verbal stem is used in all cases; and when it becomes necessary to indicate that there are more than one recipient of a transitive action, this is accomplished by the use of the numeral particle $y\bar{a}^{a'}xa^{i}$ (see § 139) or of the stem L/a'^{ai} (see § 133), as may be seen from the following examples:

 $yuwa'y\bar{u}n\ y\bar{a}^{a'}xa^{i}\ ants\ q!a'\bar{\imath}\bar{l}\ (they)$ $yuwa'y\bar{u}n$ ants $q!a'\bar{\imath}t$ he gathered pitch gathered lots (of) that pitch 88.5, 6 yîxa'yūn yāa'xai hītc I saw many $y\hat{i}xa'y\bar{u}n\ h\bar{i}tc\ I$ saw a person people waa'aütsme ants L!a'ai hītc he said wa'aūtsme ants hītc he said to to all (of) his people 7.1 his man L!ōxa'xaūtsme hītc L!a'ai he sent $L!\bar{o}xa'xa^{\bar{u}}tsm_E\ h\bar{\iota}tc$ he sent his many people 30.1, 2 man

But if Siuslaw does not employ a distinct grammatical process for the purpose of pointing out plurality of objects of transitive actions, it has developed devices to indicate collectivity of subjects of intransitive verbs. For that purpose it uses, besides the numeral particle $y\bar{a}^{a'}xa^i$ (see § 139) and the stem L/a'ai (see § 133), two suffixes $(-\bar{u}^u$ and -tx) that are added directly to the verbal stem. These suffixes are always added to verbal stems that denote an intransitive act, and their functions may best be compared to the functions exercised by the French on or German man in sentences like on dit and man sagt.

§ 79. Plural $-\bar{u}^u$, $-\bar{u}^{wi}$

This suffix expresses an action that is performed collectively by more than one subject. Etymologically it is the same suffix as the verbal abstract of identical phonetic composition (see § 97), and the use of one and the same suffix in two functions apparently so different may be explained as due to the fact that there exists an intimate psychological connection between an abstract verbal idea and the concept of the same act performed in general.2 The following example, taken

 $^{^{1}}$ I have found only one case of such a differentiation. I was told that the stem qaa- to enter, to PUT IN, refers to singular objects, while the stem Lxaa- can be used with plural objects only. But as this information was conveyed to me after much deliberation and upon my own suggestion, I am inclined to doubt the correctness of this interpretation. It is rather probable that these two stems are synonymes.

² The same phenomenon occurs in Dakota.

at random, will serve to illustrate the comparison more clearly. The Siuslaw word $x\hat{\imath}l\cdot xc\bar{\imath}'^{wi}$ (stem $x\hat{\imath}l\cdot xc\bar{\imath}$ - to work) may have two distinct meanings. When used nominally (as a verbal abstract), it may best be rendered by the concept of working, work; when used verbally, it is to be translated by to WORK IN GENERAL, ALL (MANY) WORK. This psychological connection between such terms as WORK and to work generally, collectively, may have led to the use of one and the same suffix in a nominal and verbal capacity (see § 22). This suffix is added directly to the verbal stem, and its double form may be due to rapidity of speech rather than to any phonetic causes. It is frequently preceded by the temporal suffixes, especially the present -t (see § 72), and it was always rendered by they . . . The subject of the action is usually emphasized by the use of the numeral particles $ha^{i}m\bar{u}t$ ALL, $y\bar{a}^{a'}xa^{i}$ MANY (see § 124), and of the stem L/a'^{ai} (see § 133). The particle either precedes or follows the verb. This suffix requires the accent.

 $tem\bar{u}'$ - to assemble 7.3 $h\bar{u}tc$ - to play 7.2 $pek\bar{u}'$ - to play shinny 9.4

 $h^{i}yats$ - to live

hal- to shout 13.11

 $ma'q/\bar{\imath}$ - to dance 28.7 $xn\bar{\imath}^wn$ - to do 10.5

 $m\bar{\imath}k^{u_{-}}$ to cut 90.5

qatc^En- to go 8.2 tsîl:- to shoot 10.3

 ma^atc - to lay 32.22

 $t extit{Em} ar{u}'^u$ they came together 30.16 $h ar{u} t c ar{u}'^u \ L / a'^{ai}$ they play 8.8 $p extit{Ek} ar{u}'^{wi} \ L / a'^{ai}$ they play shinny 70.10

 $y\bar{a}^{a'}xa^i \ h^iyats\bar{u}'^{wi}$ lots (of people)

hatū'u ants hīte L!a'ai shout collectively, those people 70.9

meq!yū'u L!a'ai they dance 28.8 sza'tsa xnīwnū'u ants L!a'ai thus do it collectively, those people 70.22, 23

qīūtcū'nî L!a'ai ul mīkū'u lt'īaia'
many women cut salmon 82.14
qatc^Enatū'u they walk about 34.19
tsīL!atū'u yāa'xai L!a'ai they are
shooting 8.6

ya'qu'yūn ants lī't!aī mîtcū'wi
L!a'ai he saw that food lying
(around in great quantities)
36.26, 27

Owing to the frequent interchange between the \bar{u} -vowel and the diphthong $a^{\bar{u}}$ (see § 2), this suffix occurs often as $-aa^{\bar{u}}$, $-aa^{\bar{u}wi}$.

skwa'- to stand 10.9 $st\bar{\imath}m$ $skwaha^{\bar{\imath}\nu wi}$ ${\it L}'a'^{ai}$ there they are standing (collectively) 28.9 $h\bar{\imath}q'$ - to start 15.1 $s^{\it E}a'tsa$ $h\bar{\imath}q'!ya^{\bar{\imath}\nu'wi}$ ants ${\it L}'a'^{ai}$ thus they (will) start $s^{\it E}a'tsa$ thus 11.10 $s^{\it E}atsa^{\bar{\imath}\nu'wi}$ $t_{\it E}$ $h\bar{\imath}tc$ ${\it L}'!a'^{ai}$ thus (they do it) these people $k!\hat{\imath}nk'$ - to go and see 16.1 $k!\hat{\imath}nk'ya'a^{\bar{\imath}u}$ $n\hat{\imath}'ctca$ $t_{\it E}$ ta^i many (were) going to see how this (one was) living

§ 80. Plural -tx

This suffix exercises the same function as the preceding $-\bar{u}^u$, differing from it in so far only as its subjects must be human beings. It is added either to the bare stem or to the stem verbalized by means of the suffixes $-a^i$, $-\bar{u}^i$ (see § 75), or it follows any of the temporal suffixes. The function of this suffix as a personal plural is substantiated by the fact that the verb to which it is added must be followed by the collective forms of $h\bar{\iota}tc$ PERSON, $h\bar{\iota}tc\bar{u}^{u'}$, $h\bar{\iota}tc\bar{u}'^{ui}$ (see § 97). Whenever this suffix is added to a stem that has been verbalized by means of the suffixes $-a^i$, $-\bar{u}^i$, it coincides in phonetic structure with the temporal and objective form $-\bar{\iota}tx$ (see §§ 33, 68). But the following collective $h\bar{\iota}tc\bar{u}'^u$ differentiates these two forms. Stems ending in an alveolar or affricative add this suffix by means of a weak a-vowel (see § 4). This suffix is always rendered by THEY, PEOPLE.

$t = m \bar{u}'$ - to assemble 7.3	$ult wan tem \bar{u}'tx h \bar{t}tc \bar{u}'^u$ finally the people assembled 7.6 $tem^u wa^i'tx h \bar{t}tc \bar{u}'^{wi} sqa^i k$ people assembled there 66.15
$s^{\mathbf{E}}a'tsa$ thus 11.10	"t wàn s atsa'tx hītcū'" now they (began to do it) thus 7.5, 6
hūtc- to play 7.2	" l wàn $h\bar{u}tca'tx$ $h\bar{t}tc\bar{u}'^u$ now they (commence to) play 9.3
waa'- to talk 7.1	ut wàn waa'tx hītcū'u then finally people said 16.1
	atsī'tc waa''mxustx $h\bar{\imath}tc\bar{u}'^u$ thus they began to talk to each other $64, 20, 21$
qatc ^z n- to go 8.2	"l wan qa'tcintx finally they went 16.2
ta^i - to live 16.2	$ha^{i\prime}mar{u}t\ tqa^{u\prime}war{\imath}tc\ taya^{i\prime}tx\ har{\imath}tcar{u}^{\prime}wi$

all up-stream they lived 82.13

 $p_E k \bar{u}'^{u_-}$ to play shinny 9.4

hat- to shout

pākwa''tx hītcū'u te L!a'a' these people play shinny 78.7 hali'tx hītcū'u people shout 13.11

§ 81. IRREGULAR SUFFIXES -n $(-\bar{\imath}n)$, -myax (-m)

Here belong two suffixes whose exact function and etymology can no longer be analyzed. It is even impossible to tell whether they represent petrified formative elements, or elements of an exceedingly restricted scope, which may be responsible for their sporadic appearance.

The first of these suffixes to be discussed here is the suffix -n- or $-\bar{n}n$ -. It never occurs independently, being always followed by another verbal suffix, such as the transitive $-\bar{u}n$ (see § 28), the temporal (see §§ 65–74) and the passive suffixes (see §§ 38, 39, 54–59). It seems to be related to the reciprocal -naw (a), and its function may be characterized as expressing a transitive action involving reciprocality or mutuality.

 $t!\bar{u}'hatc'$ - to try to sell

 $ma'q/\bar{\imath}$ - to dance 28.7

ma q.1- to dance 28.7

mînq!- to buy (in exchange for a slave) (?)

 $L\bar{\imath}'\bar{u}$ - to come 9.3

 $t/\bar{u}hatc'\bar{v}'n\bar{u}n^1$ I try to sell it $u\bar{t}a^ux$ $t/\bar{u}hat'c\bar{v}'ntxa^ux^1$ they two

try to sell their (hides) 100.19 maq!ēna'wūn I will cure him (lit-

erally, dance for him) $meq/\bar{e}^i na'a^u$ a dance will be arranged for him 19.2

s^Eà ata's ants ma'q!īnūtnE (for) him only this dance is arranged

l mî'nq!īnū'nE tsxax she is bought in exchange for a slave 76.3

 $L\bar{n}\bar{u}na^{u'w}ya^{u}x^{2}$ (when) they two come together 46.7

The other irregular suffix is -m, which, however, occurs by itself in only one instance. It is usually followed by the suffix for the past tense -yax (see § 74), and expresses in such cases an action that almost took place. It was invariably rendered by Almost, VERY NEAR.

¹ The use of this suffix may be justified here by the fact that the idea to sell requires a seller and a buyer.

 $^{^2\,\}mathrm{The}\,\textsc{-}n$ is used here because the action involves two persons—one that comes, and another that is approached.

 $x \hat{i} n t$ he goes, he travels 20.3 $p \bar{i}'' t s \hat{i} s x \hat{i}' n t m a$ in the ocean he travels (around ?) 44.1, 2 hakw- to fall 8.7 ha'kumyaxan I almost fell down $a^u s$ - to sleep 24.1 $a^u s m^i y a x a n$ I very nearly fell asleep $q a t c^E n$ - to go 8.2 $q a' t c n^i m y a x a n$ I very nearly went $k \bar{u}' n$ - to beat 72.17 $k \bar{u}'' n a m y a x a n$ I almost beat him $q \bar{a} t x$ - to cry 58.15 $q \bar{u}' t x^E m y a x$ he very nearly cried

Nominal Suffixes (§§ 82-105)

§ 82. INTRODUCTORY

The number of nominal suffixes found in Siuslaw is, comparatively speaking, rather small, and the ideas they express do not differ materially from the ideas conveyed by the nominal suffixes of the neighboring languages. There is, however, one striking exception, for among the neighboring languages (Coos and Alsea) Siuslaw alone possesses nominal cases. Another interesting feature of the Siuslaw nominal suffixes is the large number of suffixed formative elements that require the accent, and their phonetic strength (see § 12).

§ 83. DIMINUTIVE -îsk'în

This suffix conveys our diminutive idea, and may be added to stems that express nominal and adjectival concepts. Under the influence of the consonant preceding it, it may be changed into $-ask^2n.^1$ When added to stems that end in a vowel, the vowel of the suffix is contracted with the final vowel of the stem (see § 9). When followed by the augmentative $-n.^2m.^2$, the $-n.^2$ element of this suffix disappears (see § 84). This suffix requires the accent.

$t/\bar{a}mc$ infant 40.19	t!āmcî'sk'în a little boy 94.16
$tt^{\flat}\bar{\imath}'a^{\bar{\imath}}$ fish 56.1	$tt'\bar{\imath}'sk'\hat{\imath}n$ $\iota!a'^{ai}$ many small fish
	46.6, 7
$q\bar{\imath}\bar{u}tc\bar{u}'n\hat{\imath}$ woman 30.21	qīūtcūnî'sk'în a little woman, a girl
mîtà father 54.22	mît!a'sk'nī'tîn my step-father (lit-
	erally, my little father) 100.3, 4
<i>lî'pxan</i> niece (?) 92.17	$l\hat{i}pxan\hat{i}'sk'\hat{i}ntc^wax$ they two (were)
	his little nieces 92.15, 16
$k\bar{o}'tan$ horse 34.9	$k\bar{o}tan\hat{\imath}'sk'\hat{\imath}n$ a small horse, a pony

¹Owing to the fact that most of the texts and examples were obtained from William Smith, an Alsea Indian (see p. 438), whose native tongue has no true alveolar spirants (s, c), this suffix appears frequently in the texts as -4ck'in.

 $L/m\bar{a}k'$ - short $y\bar{a}k$ - small 29.4 xyal'x almost, very nearly 11.1

hī'catca a while

L!māk'î'sk'în very short 50.18

yaa'k!î'sk'în very small 36.23

xyal'xî'sk'în qa'tcint qaiha'ntc he

went a little ways (literally, almost, a little, he goes, far) 12.1

hīcatca'sk'în a little while 64.8

§ 84. AUGMENTATIVE -îl·mä

-îl·mä expresses the idea of largeness, and, in terms of relationship, that of AGE; and it may be suffixed to stems expressing, besides nominal, also adjectival ideas. When added to stems that end in a lateral, the lateral of the suffix disappears in accordance with the law of simplification of consonants (see § 15). This suffix requires the accent.

 $q\bar{\imath}'\bar{\imath}tc$ woman 48.17 $q\bar{\imath}tc'il\cdot m\ddot{a}$ or $l\hat{\imath}p_L$ - grandfather $l\hat{\imath}p_L'm\ddot{a}$ grandmother 96.22 $waa^{\bar{\imath}'}tx$ ants to that he $t'.\bar{a}mc$ infant 40.19 $t'.\bar{a}mc^{\bar{\imath}'}l\cdot m\ddot{a}$ young (matexam strong 10.1 $texm\hat{\imath}'l\cdot m\ddot{a}$ hence old of $pen\hat{\imath}'s$ skunk 86.1 $pen\hat{\imath}'s$ skunk 86.1 $pen\hat{\imath}'s$ $v\hat{\imath}'t$ mate $v\hat{\imath}'s$ $v\hat{\imath}'t$ big 48.8 $v\hat{\imath}'t$ $v\hat{\imath}'t$

qīūtcî'l·mä old woman 94.22
Lîpl'mä grandfather
waaī'tx ants kaml'mate she said
to that her grandmother 96.21
t!āmcî'l·mä old infant, hence
young (man) 54.22
texmî'l·mä very strong (man),
hence old (man) 40.10
penîsî'l·mä a large skunk
yîktî'l·ma very big 40.6

The diminutive suffix is not infrequently added to the augmentative for the purpose of mitigating the impression made by the augmentative, and *vice versâ*.

 $t/\bar{a}mc$ infant 40.19 $m\hat{s}l\hat{a}$ mother 54.23

t/āmcîl·ma'sk'în little big infant, hence little boy 94.20 mîlask'î'l·mä¹ step-mother (literally, little old mother)

CASE-ENDINGS (§§ 85-87)

§ 85. Introductory

Unlike the languages spoken by the neighboring tribes, Siuslaw shows a rich development of nominal cases. Two of these, the genitive or relative case and the locative, are formed by means of separate suffixes, while the discriminative case is formed by means of a vocalic change (see § 111). In addition to these distinct case-endings,

¹ The contraction of $milask'i'l'm\ddot{a}$ from $milask'inl'lm\ddot{a}$ may be explained as due to the assimilation of n to l following the contraction of the vowels.

^{\$\$ 84-85}

there exists a great number of nominalizing suffixes indicating nominal ideas of an absolutive (nominative) form; so that the Siuslaw noun may be said to show four possible cases,—the nominative or absolutive case, the discriminative, the genitive or relative case, and the locative, which has an extended meaning. In discussing these case-endings it will be found preferable to begin with the locative case, because of the important position it occupies in the language.

§ 86. The Locative Case -a, $-\overline{u}s$

These two suffixes indicated originally local ideas of rest, and, as such, are best rendered by our local adverbs on, in, at, to, etc. It would seem, however, that this primary function was extended so that these suffixes may also mark the noun as the object of an action, thereby exercising the function of an accusative case-ending. The use of these suffixes for the purpose of expressing objects of action and the adverbial idea of rest may be explained by the intimate psychological connection that exists between these two apparently distinct concepts. The following example will serve to illustrate this connection. The sentence I cut salmon may, and as a matter of fact does, denote the idea I cut on the salmon.

The correctness of this interpretation is furthermore brought out by the fact that the verb, upon which these suffixes are dependent, can under no circumstance appear in transitive form. Should, however, such a verb appear with a transitive suffix, the noun will then occur in the absolutive form; and, since confusion might arise as to the identity of the subject and object of the action, the subject of the action is always discriminated (see §§ 21, 111).

The importance of these two suffixes as formative elements may be deduced from the fact that they enter into the formation of the forms expressing our periphrastic conjugation to have, to be with (see § 76) and that the adverbial suffixes (see §§ 90, 91, 93) can be added only to nouns that occur with these locative endings.

-a expresses, besides the nominal object of an action, also the local idea of rest. There is a tendency to have the accent fall upon this suffix.

 $lt'\bar{\imath}'a^{\bar{\imath}}$ fish 56.1

 $t\bar{s}/aln$ fire 25.5 ts/aln pitch 26.6

 $m\bar{\imath}'k^{u}t\bar{u}xts\ tt'\bar{\imath}aya'$ you two shall cut salmon 90.5

haⁱ'qmas μ̄ya'wa near the fire 26.1 yuwa'ya^uxûn yā^a'xaⁱ ts!îlna' we two (will) get much pitch 94.17, 18 $q\bar{\imath}\bar{u}tc\bar{u}'n\hat{\imath}$ woman 30.21

 $p_E k \bar{u}'^{u_-}$ to play shinny 9.4

 $tc\bar{\imath}$ water 36.20

L!a'ai ground, place 7.1

 $k\bar{o}'tan$ horse 34.9

 $t'\hat{\imath}x$ tooth $tc\bar{\imath}$ water 36.20

 $tc\hat{\imath}mtca'm\hat{\imath}$ ax 27.10

hītc sî'nixya qīūtcū'nya (a) person wants a woman 76.7

 $p_E k \bar{u}' y a x \bar{a}_L ! a^{i'}_L ! a'^{ai}$ many shinny sticks (they) make 78.5

 $tc\bar{v}'wa\ ma^atc\ ants$. . . in the water lay that . . . 32.22

 $tc\bar{\imath}'wa$ $u\bar{\imath}t$ $k/u^xw\hat{\imath}na^{\bar{\imath}\prime}$ on the water ice appeared 76.13

 $m\bar{\imath}k/a^{\bar{\imath}\prime}$ L!aya' in a bad place 12.10; 13.1

kumî'ntc kōtana't not they had horses 100.20; 102.1

t'îxa't (it) has teeth 90.19

"la" x teī'wate hakwa'a" they two into the water thrown will be 88.7, 8

teī'wane hai'qîqyax from the water (it) came ashore 56.13

tcîmtca'myatc xawa'au with an ax (he) killed will be 28.1

 $-\bar{u}s$. Like the preceding -a, it is employed for the purpose of forming the locative case of nouns and of expressing the local idea of rest. It is suffixed to nouns in $-\bar{u}$ (see § 97) and in $-\bar{\iota}$ (see § 98). When added to nouns in $-\bar{\iota}$, the $-\bar{\iota}$ of the noun is consonantized, so that the suffix appears to be $-\bar{\iota}y\bar{u}s$ (see § 8); while, when suffixed to nouns in $-\bar{u}$, the $-\bar{u}$ of the suffix is contracted with the \bar{u} of the noun (see § 9).

 $k!u^xw\bar{\imath}'n\bar{\imath}$ ice

 $pk'\bar{\imath}'t\bar{\imath}$ lake 62.18

 $ts\bar{o}'t\bar{\imath}$ sand beach

 $p_E k \bar{u}'^u$ shinny game

 $h\bar{u}tc\bar{u}'^{wi}$ fun 8.5

u'mlī thunder

 $qa^uxa^{\bar{\imath}'}x \, k/u^xw\hat{\imath}n\bar{\imath}y\bar{u}'s$ on top of the ice 76.14, 15

 $tsi'sqan\ pk'itiy\bar{u}'s\ tem\bar{u}'yax\ deer$ at (the) lake assembled 34.11.

ta'īs tsîtīyū's (you) will keep on living on the sand beach 46.15

s^Ea ku nū'tswa pɛkū'us L!aya' he always beats (people) at shinny 78.18, 19

a'l'tūtūnx hūtcūu'stc thou also shalt come to the fun 22.8

 $um l \bar{\imath} y \bar{u}' stc \, \iota \bar{\imath} \bar{\imath} u'$ to thunder (it) came 36.8, 9

A number of nouns undergo unexplained phonetic changes whenever the locative suffix is added, while others employ an abbreviated form of this case-ending. Since no fixed rules can be given that will cover each of these cases, it will be best to tabulate all such nouns, giving their absolutive and locative forms. These nouns are as follows:

Absolutive case	Locative case
$m\hat{\imath}s\bar{\imath}'a^{\bar{\imath}}$ elder sister 90.23	$m\hat{i}sa'y\bar{u}s$ 40.12, 13
$m\hat{\imath}ctc\bar{\imath}'^{i}$ younger sister 40.2	$m\hat{\imath}ctca'yar{u}s$
$m\hat{\imath}t\hat{a}$ father 54.22	$m\hat{\imath}ta'yar{u}s$
mîtà mother 54.23	$m \hat{\imath} l a' y ar{u} s$
L/a'^{ai} earth, many 7.1	$L!ay\bar{u}'s$ 76.10
$lqa^{i''}t\bar{u} \log 32.21$	lgatūwīyū's 88.16
$a^{u'}tc\bar{\imath}s\hat{\imath}$ camas 96.20	$\bar{a^u}tc\bar{\imath}y\bar{u}'s$ 98.11, 12
$h\bar{\imath}tc$ person 15.2	$h\bar{\imath}t\bar{u}'s$ 66.14
$s\hat{\imath}'max^u$ landing-place	$\hat{sima'}x^us~48.21$
$tseha^{u'}ya$ grass 8.6	$tseha^{u\prime}ya^{ar{\imath}}s$
$ya^{\bar{u}'}xa$ fern-root 80.18	$ya^{\bar{u}'}xa^{u}s$
$h\bar{\imath}ts\bar{\imath}'^i$ house 25.2	$h\bar{\imath}ts\hat{\imath}'s$ 58.8

In many cases one and the same noun shows in its locative forms both case-endings, as may be seen from the following examples:

L!a'ai ground, many 7.1	L!aya' 13.1 and L!ayū's 76.10
$a^{u'}tc\bar{\imath}s\hat{\imath}$ camas 96.20	$a^{u'}tc\bar{\imath}sya$ and $a^{u}tc\bar{\imath}y\bar{u}'s$ 98.11, 12
$h\bar{\imath}tc$ person 7.1	$h\bar{\imath}t\bar{u}'s$ 66.14 and $h\bar{\imath}t\bar{u}'tc$ 7.5

A few nouns appear with locative case-endings that seem to bear no relation to the suffixes -a, $-\bar{u}s$. The following have been found:

Absolutive	Locative
$s\bar{\imath}'xa^{\bar{\imath}}$ boat 56.5	$sexa^{\bar{u}'1}$ 48.18
	sexa ^a 'tc qaa'xam into a canoe it
	was put 34.5
hamī''tcī whale 82.5	$hamar{\imath}tcar{u}'$
	$ha^{i\prime}m\bar{u}t\ ham\bar{\imath}tc\bar{u}'\ l^ikwa^{i\prime}$ all (some)
	whale got 82.6
$\hat{u}_q w a^{a'} t_{EM}$ alder tree 92.5, 6	$\hat{\imath} t q u t m \bar{\imath}'$
_	$i\bar{t}q\bar{u}tm\bar{i}'a^{u}x\ qaa^{i'}$ an alder tree they
•	two entered 92.6
$xw\bar{a}'ka$ head 29.5	$xwar{a}kar{\imath}'$
	$\ell a^{i\prime}qat\ skwaha^{\bar{\imath}\prime}tx\ xw\bar{a}k\bar{\imath}'$ feathers
	(they) placed on their heads 10.9
$Lxa\bar{u}'$ spear 64.7	$Lxa^{u\prime}h\bar{\imath}$ 64.11

¹ The locative form $sexa^{\overline{u}'}$ may be explained as a noun with the local suffix of rest used as the object of an action (see § 91).

$h\bar{\imath}tc$ person 7.1	$har{\imath}tar{u}'tc$
	$la'k^{u}t/w\hat{\imath}$ $h\bar{\imath}t\bar{u}'tc$ a sheriff 7.5
$m\bar{a}'q^{u_L}$ crow 34.23	$m^u qwa'$ ı 34.21
$qay\bar{u}'^{wi}nts$ stone	qayuna'ts 62.7
$q^u \iota \bar{\imath}' mt$ anus 86.9	q^u Lî $mar{\imath}'t$
$ya^{\varepsilon}k^{u}s$ seal 62.4	y e $k\bar{u}'$ s 62.2
Laa' mouth 28.2	Laaya' 29.2, 96.7

Nouns that end in the augmentative suffix $-il \cdot m\ddot{a}$ (see § 84) change the final \ddot{a} into a clear a-vowel whenever the locative is to be expressed.

 $y \hat{\imath} k t \hat{\imath}' l \cdot m a$ very big 40.6 $y \hat{\imath} k t \hat{\imath}' l \cdot m a t$ $c \bar{a}' y a$ he has a big penis 92.1 $q \bar{\imath} \bar{u} t c \hat{\imath}' l \cdot m \ddot{a}$ old woman 96.15 $q \bar{\imath} \bar{u} t c \hat{\imath}' l \cdot m a t c$ to the old woman 94.16

In a few instances the locative suffix -a has the function of an adverbial suffix of instrumentality.

tcîmtca'mî ax 27.10

"la" x wàn tcîmtcî'mya qa'tcint and
they two now an ax take along
(literally, with an ax go) 96.10,
11

skwaha"'wi L!a'ai ha''mūt ants tcîmtcî'mya they are standing, all
those who have axes 28.9; 29.1

§ 87. The Relative or Genitive Case -Emt, -Em

These suffixes have the function of the Indo-European genitive case-endings.

-Emt is suffixed to the absolutive form of the noun; and when added to nouns that end in a long vowel, its obscure E is contracted with the long vowel of the noun and disappears (see § 9). The noun to which this suffix is added is always the object of the action.

 $tt'\bar{\imath}'a^{i}$ salmon 56.1 $tt'\bar{\imath}ay\epsilon'm\bar{t}$ $txa^{i}n^{\epsilon}$ salmon's tracks $tq/\bar{a}'n\bar{u}$ hide 100.15 $tq/\bar{a}n\bar{u}^{i'm}l^{1}$ $y\hat{\imath}x\bar{\imath}'^{i}$ many hides (literally, of hides a multitude) 102. 1, 2 $t/\bar{\imath}$, $t/\bar{\imath}'ya^{i}$ bear 56.11; 58.14 $t/\bar{\imath}yay\epsilon'm\bar{t}$ $txa^{i}n^{\epsilon}$ bear tracks 56.10 $p\hat{\imath}'lq^{u}ts$ raccoon $p\hat{\imath}lq^{u}ts\epsilon'm\bar{t}$ $lq/\bar{a}'n\bar{u}$ raccoon-hide $t\epsilon xm\bar{u}'n\hat{\imath}$ man 30.21 $t\epsilon xm\bar{u}'ny\epsilon m\bar{t}$ $t/xm\bar{\imath}'t\bar{\imath}$ a man's bow

This suffix may be added to pronouns and particles, as may be seen from the following examples:

nà I 21.8	nî'ctcîm ^E nx na'm ^E l tE'q because
	thou (art) of me (a) relative 21.5
$ha^{i\prime}m\bar{u}t$ all 10.9	$ha^{i}m\bar{u}t\bar{u}'m\bar{t}^{1}$ $m^{a}\bar{a}'t\bar{\imath}$ of all (the)chief

This suffix is also employed in the formation of the independent possessive pronouns (see § 114).

-Em differs from the preceding -Eml in so far as it can be added only to the locative form of the noun, and that in the few examples that were obtained it denotes the subject of an action.

Absolutive	Objective	Relative
$m\bar{a}'q^{u_L}$ crow 34.23	$m^{u}qwa'$ L	muqwa'lem wa'as Crow's
_		language 34.21.
$u'ml\bar{\imath}$ thunder	$um l ar{\imath}' y ar{u} s$	<i>umlī'yūsem wa'as</i> Thun-
		der's language 36.8
$h\bar{\imath}tc$ a person 7.1	$h\bar{\imath}t\bar{u}'tc$ 7.5	hītū'tcem L!xmī'tī (an) In-
		dian's bow
$h\bar{\imath}ts\bar{\imath}'^i$ house 25.2	$h\bar{\imath}ts\hat{\imath}'s$ 58.8	$h\bar{\imath}ts\hat{\imath}'s$ em $teqyar{u}'^{wi}$ of house
		(the) frame

When followed by other suffixes, the obscure E of -Em drops out, and the consonants are combined into a cluster.

Absolutive	Objective	Relative
mîlà mother 54.23	$m \hat{\imath} t a' y ar{u} s$	<i>mîta'yūsmītîn mîtà</i> of my
		mother (her) father; my
		grandfather
$m\bar{a}t!\bar{\imath}'$ elder brother	$mar{a}t!ar{\imath}'yar{u}s$	$m\bar{a}t!\bar{i}'y\bar{u}sm\bar{i}t\hat{i}n$ $t!\bar{a}mc$ my
58.11		elder brother's boy

§ 88. THE POSSESSIVE SUFFIXES

Possessive relations of the noun are expressed in Siuslaw by means of the suffix $-\bar{\imath}$ that is followed by the subjective pronouns (see § 24). Posssession for the third person singular is expressed by the suffix -tc added to the noun without the aid of the sign of possession, $-\bar{\imath}$. Possession for the third persons dual and plural is indicated by adding the subjective pronouns $-a^ux$ and -nx to the suffix -tc. Thus it would seem that Siuslaw employs two distinct suffixes for the purpose of expressing possession: $-\bar{\imath}$ used for the first and second persons, and -tc for the third persons.

The possessive suffixes are verbalized by adding the auxiliary suffix -t (see § 76) to the sign of possession; so that Siuslaw may be said to possess two sets of possessive suffixes,—one purely nominal set and one with a verbal significance. In the latter set the suffixes for the third persons are missing.

All possessive suffixes stand in terminal position following even the case-endings and the adverbial suffixes.

The following table will serve to illustrate the formation of the possessive suffixes:

		Nominal	Verbal
Singular	1st person	-īn -īnx -tc	-ītin -ītinx -
Dual	Inclusive Exclusive	-īns -īxûn -īts -tcwax	−ītins −ītauxûn −ītits −
Plural	Inclusive Exclusive	$-tnl$ $-tnxan$ $-ttct$ $-tc^{E}nx$	−ītinī −ītinxan −ītitci −

The pronominal suffix for the exclusive dual $-a^ux\hat{u}n$, $-ax\hat{u}n$, has been abbreviated here to $-x\hat{u}n$. This abbreviation may be the result of contraction. The $\bar{\imath}$ of the possessive suffixes appears frequently as a diphthong $a^{\bar{\imath}}$ (see § 2). The possessive suffixes follow all other nominal suffixes.

 $ts'\hat{\imath}l\cdot m\bar{u}'t$ friend 23.4 $m\hat{\imath}t\dot{\alpha}$ father 54.22

hītsī'i house 25.2

 $l\bar{i}n$ name 13.10

 txa^in^ε track, path 56.10

 $m\hat{i}s\hat{i}'a^{\hat{i}}$ elder sister 90.23 wa'as language 34.21

 $ts'\hat{\imath}l\cdot m\bar{u}'t\bar{\imath}n$ my friend 36.15

mîta'a[‡]tîn . . . mîta'a[‡]tîn my father . . . my mother (literally, I have a father . . . a mother) 100.1

tca'xumans hītsî'stcīn let us two go back to my house! 58.5

tī'tc^Et lī'nīnx cougar (will be) thy name 13.5, 6

 $ma^atc \ txa^in\bar{\imath}'tc\bar{\imath}nx$ it lies in thy path 48.22

mîsī'aⁱtc her elder sister 40.11 s^zatsī'tc wa'astc thus he said (literally, thus his language) 40.26

t!āmcīns tcī'ntūx our (dual incl.) t!āmc child 40.19 boys will return 42.7 $k\bar{o}pxa^{\bar{\imath}\prime}x\hat{u}n$ our (dual excl.) eves $k\bar{o}px$ eye 36.16 tcī'līts your (dual) hands $tc\bar{\imath}_L$ hand 50.18 mîta'tewax their (dual) father 52.8 mîtà father 54.22 xwā'kaīnt our (incl.) heads $xw\bar{a}'ka$ head 29.5 $m^a \bar{a} t \bar{\imath}' n x a n$ our (excl.) chief $m^a \bar{a}' t \bar{\imath}$ chief 11.2 $m^a \bar{d}t \bar{i}' t c \hat{i}$ vour chief $xu'nha^{\bar{\imath}}tc^{\bar{x}}nx$ their bets 70.7 $xu'nha^{\dagger}$ a bet 78.15

The possessive suffixes may be added to particles and attributive elements that precede the noun. This is due to a tendency inherent in the language to keep the principal parts of speech free from all pronominal elements, and which finds its counterpart in the tendency to add all subjective suffixes to the adverbs that precede the verb instead of to the verbal stem (see § 26).

I	n many instances the independe	nt possessive pronouns (see § 114)
'e	used in addition to the possess	sive suffixes. This is done for the
	_	cases the suffixes are added to the
	ependent pronouns, and not to t	
	$s^{\underline{z}}ats\overline{\imath}'tc$ thus 8.1	s atsī'tcīn ha' thus I think (literally, thus my mind) 21.7
	nà I 21.8	wa' a [†] s ^E nx na' m ^E lītîn wa' as you will continually speak my language 36.13
	nîctcī'tc how, manner 36.4	nîctcī'tcīnx ha¹ how (is) thy mind 40.3
	hīs good 38.21	hī'sīnx ha¹ haū'tūx you will feel better (literally, good thy heart will become)
	$s^{\mathbf{z}}a'tsa$ thus 11.10	$s^{\mathbf{E}}a'tsate$ $n\hat{c}etc\hat{n}a^{\epsilon}m\bar{u}$ thus (is) his custom 38.16
	$s^{\mathbf{z}}a^{i\prime}na$ he, that one 15.4	s ^z a ⁱ na'mltc wa'as wa ^a 'syaxa ^z n his language he spoke 36.14
	nà I 21.8	$na'm^{\underline{z}}l\bar{\imath}ns$ $k\bar{o}'tan$ our (incl. dual) horses
	$k\tilde{\imath}x^{\underline{s}}s$ ten 8.1	kī'x stc wax haū'yax t'āmc they two had ten children (literally, ten their two, had become, children) 60.16, 17
	7 7	7-1/ - 7 7 1

hīs good 38.21

 $h\bar{\imath}'^i s\bar{\imath} nl$ ha^i we are glad (literally, good our [incl.] heart) 72.18

$h\bar{\imath}s \bmod 38.21$	$h\bar{t}^{i'}s\bar{i}nxan$ $h\bar{i}ts\bar{i}'^i$ good (was) our (excl.) house 100.13
nà I 21.8	na'mɛlīnxan te'q our (excl.) relative 102.5
ants that there 7.1	t/ī'ya' łakwa'kū'n a'ntsîn māt/ī' (a) bear caught that there my elder brother 58.18

Nominal possessive suffixes are added to verbal stems in many cases when the object stands in some possessive relation to the subject of the sentence (see § 33). Siuslaw uses for that purpose the verbal set of possessive suffixes (see table on p. 546); and, since the pronouns indicating the subject of the action are added to particles and attributive elements preceding the verb (see § 26), these suffixes occur mostly in terminal position.

a ^t q- to leave	ta ^ī 'k̄s aya'qātī tɛ sī'xā here we two (incl.) shall leave our canoe 56.5
$ha\bar{u}$ - to become	ha ^{i'} nanx ha ^{ū'} tūxa ^ī tī ha ^ī different will become thy mind 60.14
$y\bar{a}^{a'}xa^i$ much 8.5	s ^z a'tsan ^u l ⁱ n yā'xa ⁱ tī ha ⁱ that's why I (know) much (in) my mind 20.9
hīs well 38.21	$ts\bar{\imath}'k'yanxan\ h\bar{\imath}'s\bar{\imath}t\bar{\imath}\ ha^i$ we (excl.) are very glad 24.5, 6
waa'- to speak 7.1	atsī'tcɛnx wa'a¹sītī tsî'mqma thus you shall tell your people 78.10
$y\bar{a}^{a'}xa^i$ much, many 8.5	"lenx yāa'xaitc lī't!aī they have much food (literally, and they much their food) 80.17
$Lx\bar{u}'\bar{\imath}s$ dry 60.19	Lxū'īstc ^E nx ants lt'ī'a [†] dry (is) that their salmon 80.17, 18

The possessive suffixes are sometimes added to the verbal stem, especially the suffix for the third person singular.

$xw\bar{\imath}'_{L}/t\bar{u}_{X}$ he will return	sî'nxītx ants t!āmc xwī'ı!tūxtc he
	wanted his boy to come back (lit-
	erally, he desired his, that boy,
•	shall come back, his) 42.5, 6
waa'' he says 8.9	kumî'nte wa'aite ants qaslī'ū not
	she said (to) that her husband
$L/x\bar{u}x^u$ - reduplicated form of	$k\bar{u}^i _L!x\bar{u}'x^utc ha^i$ not he knew his
$L/x\bar{u}$ - to know 40.16	mind 58.4

The subjective pronouns may at times perform the function of the possessive suffixes. This is especially true in the case of the pronoun for the first person singular when used in connection with a demonstrative pronoun.

tāak this here 32.13 $t/\bar{\imath}'ya^i \, takwa'k\bar{\imath}^u n \, t\bar{a}'k\hat{\imath}n \, t/\bar{a}mc$ (a)
bear caught this my boy 60.9, 10 $wa'a^it\hat{\imath}n \, t\bar{a}'k\hat{\imath}n \, wa'as$ speak to me
(with) this my language 36.10 $t/\bar{\imath}'ya^i \, takwa'k\bar{\imath}^u n \, a'nt\hat{\imath}n \, m\bar{a}t/\bar{\imath}'$ (a) bear caught that there my
elder brother 58.18

ADVERBIAL SUFFIXES (§§ 89-96)

§ 89. Introductory

Siuslaw expresses all adverbial relations derived from nouns by means of suffixes, that precede even the pronominal suffixes. Of these, the local suffixes indicating motion and rest, and the local suffix expressing the ablative idea from, can be added only to the locative forms of the noun (see § 86). It is rather interesting to note that there is no special suffix denoting instrumentality. This idea is either expressed by means of the locative -a (see § 86), or it is conveyed through the medium of the local suffix of motion -tc (see § 90) and of the local -ya (see § 93), or it may be contained in the suffix of modality $-\bar{t}tc$ (see § 94). All these ideas are so closely interwoven with that of instrumentality, that the instrumental use of elements denoting primarily objects, motion, and modality, presents no difficulty whatsoever.

§ 90. Local Suffix Indicating Motion -tc

It is added to the locative forms of the noun (see § 86), and may be best rendered by TO, INTO, AT, ON, UPON, TOWARDS.

<i>tcī</i> water 64.24	"la"x tcī'watc hakwa'a" and they two into the water will be
	thrown 88.7, 8
$h\bar{\imath}ts\bar{\imath}'^i$ house 25.2	"lnx wàn tcīin hītsî'stc they now returned into the house 60.10,
	11
$m\hat{\imath}s\bar{\imath}'a^{\bar{\imath}}$ elder sister 90.23	wî'ltcîstūn mîsa'yūstc he sent her to her elder sister 92.20

L!a'ai ground 76.10	$L!ay\bar{u}'stc$ to the ground 94.8
$s\bar{\imath}'xa^{\bar{\imath}}$ canoe 56.5	sexa ^u 'tc qaa'xam into a canoe were put 34.5
$pk'\bar{\imath}'t\bar{\imath}$ lake 62.18	pk'ītīyū'stc temū'yax at the lake (they) came together 34.13, 14
qīūtcî'l'mä old woman 94.22	tīū'wa"x qīūtcî'l'ma'tc they two came to an old woman 94.16
$qayar{u}'^{wi}nts$ rock	xalnai qayuna'tsitc (one) climbs up the rock 62.7
$m\bar{a}'q^u$ L crow 34.23	$L\bar{\imath}\bar{u}'$ $m^uqwa'L^itc$ he came to Crow 36.3
k!ī x $L!a'$ a i everywhere	$k!\bar{e}x\bar{u}'tc$ $L!aya'tc$ $waa'\bar{u}n$ everywhere he said 7.2

Local adverbs and stems denoting local phrases are not considered as nouns. Hence they can have no locative forms, and the adverbial suffixes are added directly to such words.

ha^iq shore 44.7	$y\hat{\imath}xa^{i'}$ $ha^{i}qtc$ (they) looked ashore
	66.6
$ln\bar{u}$ outside 38.23	$ul_{\bar{z}}nx ln\bar{u}'tc \ L\bar{\iota}ha'$ and they outside
	went 38.23
$q\bar{o}'x^um$ away from shore 34.6	$g = g \bar{g}' x^u mtc ha^{i'} m \bar{u}t qwa'xtc^i st \text{out}$
	into the water all went 34.15
$qa'x\hat{u}n$ up, above 34.21	qa'xûntc hakwa'yū'ne upwards it
	is thrown 8.7
$qa^ih\bar{a}'n$ far 56.8	qaiha'ntc tsî1!ai' he shot far 10.3
	*

In like manner the local suffix is added to the independent pronouns; and all such pronouns, when followed by this suffix, have the function of objective pronouns (see § 113).

nà I 21.8	temū'tūxtcî nàtc you shall come to
	me 72.11
$n\bar{\imath}x^ats$ thou	$kum\hat{\imath}'ntc\ h\bar{\imath}^{i}'sa\ n\bar{\imath}'x^atc\ not\ good\ (it$
	is) on you 12.5

In a few instances the local suffix -tc has been found added to the absolutive form of nouns. This ungrammatical suffixation may be due either to imperfect perception on my part, or to errors on the part of the informant. The instances referred to are as follows:

$paa^{\bar{u}'}w\hat{\imath}$ sand beach	$paa^{\bar{u}'}w\bar{\iota}tc\bar{\iota}x$ $qatc^{\underline{\iota}}nat\bar{u}'^{\underline{\iota}}$ along the
$lk/\bar{\imath}'a^{\bar{\imath}}$ mouth of the river	sand beach they walked 34.14 $t\bar{\imath}\bar{u}'wanx \bar{\imath}k/\bar{\imath}'a^{\bar{\imath}}tc$ they came to the
	mouth of the river 66.11

înq/a'ī river, creek 30.23

ulaux Līū' înq!a'ītc and they two came to a creek 56.4

In many instances the locative form of a noun or pronoun followed by the local suffix of motion -tc indicates the idea of instrumentality.

<i>tcī</i> water 64.24	$h\bar{\imath}ts\bar{\imath}'^it\bar{a}'qn\hat{\imath}stc\bar{\imath}wa'tc$ the house (is) full of water
$h\bar{\imath}tc$ person 7.1	$taqanar{\imath}'tx\ har{\imath}tar{u}'stc$ it was always full
tcîmtca'mî ax 27.10	of people 70.3, 4 teîmtea'myate xawa'a ^u with an ax
$l\bar{\imath}'t!a^{\bar{\imath}}$ food 34.6	he will be killed 28.1 tā'qnîs līt!aya'tc ants hītsī'i full
ts!aln pitch 26.6	with food (was) that house 54.5 $s\hat{v}'n^ixy\bar{u}'nE$ $ts!\hat{v}lna'tc$ $xawa'a^u$ it
	was desired (that) with pitch he should be killed 24.1
$s^{E}\hat{a}$ that one 10.1	s ^E a ⁱ na'tc xawa'a ^u with that (thing) he will be killed 26.6

§ 91. Local Suffix Indicating Rest $-\bar{u}$ ($-a\bar{u}$)

This suffix is added to such stems as are not considered nominal, and hence can not express the local idea of rest by means of the locative -a or $-\bar{u}s$ (see § 86). It is consequently suffixed to adjectives—which are really intransitive verbs—and it performs for such terms the additional function of a locative case-ending. The only noun to which this suffix has been found added in its local and objective meaning is the stem $s\bar{v}'xa^{\bar{v}}$ canoe (see § 86). This apparently exceptional use of the local suffix $-\bar{u}$ in connection with a noun may be due to the fact that the informant, unable to recall a single instance of the noun $s\bar{v}'xa^{\bar{v}}$ in its proper objective form ($s\bar{v}xaya'$?), and not conscious of the grammatical processes of her language, has endeavored to form the objective case according to her own idea. The idea implied by this suffix may be rendered by IN, AT, ON. The interchange between $-\bar{u}$ and $-a^{\bar{u}}$ has been discussed in § 2.

$m\tilde{v}'k/a$ bad 14.7	$n\hat{\imath}'ctc\bar{\imath}$ tex $x\hat{\imath}'ntm\bar{\imath}s$ $h\bar{\imath}tc$ $m\bar{\imath}k!a^{\bar{\imath}'}$ $\iota!aya'$ how (can) always travel
	a person in a bad place? 12.10; 13.1
$k/\bar{\imath}x$ each, every 24.4	$tx\bar{u}'nx \ k/\bar{e}x\bar{u}' \ L/aya' \ x\hat{v}'ntm\bar{v}$ just you everywhere will continually travel 13.6, 7

 $k/\bar{\imath}x$ each, every 24.4

 $s^{\mathbf{E}}a^{i}t^{\mathbf{E}}$ such, in that manner 15.1

 $ya^{a\prime}k/\hat{\imath}'sk'\hat{\imath}n$ very small 36.23

 $s\bar{\imath}'xa^{\bar{\imath}}$ boat 56.5

k!ēxū' L!aya' ul sēaitē on each place such (was the world) 14.6; 15.1 ulēnx sqaīk lit!ai' sēaitū' and they eat on such (a place) 62.5, 6 yāk!îsk'înū' L!aya' ul tīyū'wi on a very small place they lived 38.19 lqai''tū txū maatc ants sexaū' sticks merely were lying in that boat 48.20, 21

Instances where this suffix has the function of a locative caseending may be given as follows:

 $k/\bar{\imath}x$ each, every 24.4.

 $m\bar{\imath}'k/a$ bad 14.6

 $s\bar{\imath}'xa^{\bar{\imath}}$ canoe 56.5

k/ē'xū'tc L!aya'tc L!ōxa'xaūtsmE to each place he sent his . . .30.1 Lī'ū mī'k!aūtc L!aya'tc he came to a bad place sexaū'n sî'nixya a canoe I want sexaū'tc qaa'xam into a canoe were put 34.5

§ 92. Local Suffix -ix $(-a^ix, -yax)$

This suffix is used chiefly in connection with verbs of motion, and is added to nouns, adjectives, and adverbs. Its function may best be compared to the function performed by our adverbs on, over, along, when used in connection with verbs of motion. The long $\bar{\imath}$ of the suffix is often changed into $a^{\bar{\imath}}$ (see § 2) or diphthongized into ya (see § 7).

Qa'aitc a tributary of the Siuslaw river called at present North Fork

 $paa^{\bar{u}'}w\hat{\imath}$ sand beach

 $ha^{i}q$ shore 44.7

 $qa^{u}x$ high, up 80.9

 $h\bar{\imath}s$ well, straight 38.21

 $qa^{u'}x\hat{u}n$ sky

 $tc\bar{\imath}k$ where 34.2

Qa'aitcīx pelī'tc līha'yax along North Fork at first it passed 32.19

paa^ū'wītcīx qatc^Enatū'^u along (its) sand beach they walked 34.14

 $ha^{i\prime}qa^{\bar{\imath}}xanl$ $tca'xw\bar{\imath}t\bar{u}x$ along the shore we will go back 66.12, 13 $qa^{u}xa^{\bar{\imath}\prime}x$ $k!u^{x}w\hat{\imath}n\bar{\imath}y\bar{u}'s$ on top of

the ice 76.14, 15

 $tc\bar{v}'watc\ h\bar{v}'sa^{\bar{\imath}}x\ \iota\bar{\imath}\bar{u}'$ to the water on (a) straight (line) it was coming 32.20

 $qa^{w'}x\hat{u}nyax x\hat{i}nt$ along the sky it traveled 32.19

tcī'kyax līhai' te hītc whereon climb up people 80.13

In one instance this suffix is added to a demonstrative pronoun.

 s^{E} à that one 10.1

s^Ea^T'xa^ux pîtca'' over that one they two stepped 88.18

§ 93. Local Suffixes -ya, -nE

-ya is added to those locative forms of the personal pronouns and nouns that end in an alveolar or affricative consonant (t, s, tc) and to adverbs the final consonant of which belongs to the same series.

g^{u} $\iota \bar{\imath}' mt$ anus 86.9	q^{u} Lîmī'tyatc Līha' from his anus he came out 94.20
pī''tsîs ocean (locative form) 44.1	pī'tsîsya haiqai' from the ocean he came ashore 82.4
$qar{u}'ar{\imath}tc$ Umpqua river	$q\bar{u}'\bar{\imath}tcyaa^{\bar{u}}$ from the Umpoua river (they came) 100.15
$h\bar{\imath}ts\bar{\imath}'^i$ house 25.2	$h\bar{\imath}ts\hat{\imath}'sya$ from the house
nà I 21.8	<i>na'tcya</i> from me
ha^iq shore 44.7	ha''qa'tcya go away from the fire! (literally, what is shore like from it you go away) 26.7
qantc where	qa'ntcyanx Līū' from where (dost) thou come 66.16

-nE is suffixed to nouns and to personal pronouns whose locative forms end in a vowel (see § 86), and to such stems as form the locative cases by means of the local suffix of rest - \bar{u} (see § 91).

$k!\bar{\imath}x \; {\scriptscriptstyle L}!a'^{ai}$ every place	$k/\bar{e}x\bar{u}'n_E L/aya'n_E$ from each place,
	from everywhere 8.2
tcī water 64.24	$tc\bar{\imath}'wan E ha^{i\prime}q\hat{\imath}qyax$ from the water
	he came ashore 56.13
$xw\bar{a}'ka$ head 29.5	$xw\bar{a}k\bar{\imath}'nE$ from the head
$s\bar{\imath}'xa^{\bar{\imath}}$ canoe 56.5	$sexa^{\bar{u}'}ne$ from the canoe

These local suffixes are frequently used as implying the idea of instrumentality.

qal·tc knife	L!xmaī'yūn qa'l·tcya he killed him with a knife (literally, from a knife)
teīz hand 50.18	$tc\bar{l}'Lne \ L\bar{o}\bar{l}e'l\bar{u}n$ with the hand he struck him
$Lxa\bar{u}'$ spear 64.7	Lxa ^u /hīne ants hītc skwaha ⁱ with a spear (in his hand) that person stood up 64.11, 12

§ 94. Adverbial Suffixes Indicating Modality - $\bar{\imath}tc$ (- $a\bar{\imath}tc$), -'na

 $-\bar{\imath}tc$. This suffix has both a nominal and a verbal function. As a nominal suffix it signifies LIKE. It is found suffixed to a number of modal adverbs (see § 121), and it invariably requires the accent. The interchange between the long $\bar{\imath}$ and the diphthong $a^{\bar{\imath}}$ has been discussed in § 2.

$ckar{o}$ ' te hill 46.10	qa'xûntc qa'tcint ckō'tcī'tc he went up a hill (literally, upwards he goes, hill-like) 12.9
txa^in^ε tracks, road 56.10	tcīk ants lqa'''tū Lowa'' txa'nī'tc wherever that tree falls across the road (literally, road-like) 84.2, 3
al^aq one 18.7	a'lqa'tcîn L!xū'yūn qnà half I know it (literally, one [half] like I know it) 92.12
$s^{\mathbf{E}}a'tsa$ thus 11.10	$waa'xam\ s^{x}ats\overline{i}'tc$ he was told thus 8.1
nî'etea something, how 16.2	kwī'nx nîctcī'tc L'wā'nīsūn don't you tell him anything 17.1, 2

My informant frequently rendered this suffix by the phrase what you would call a . . . , some kind of . . . , especially in cases where the noun employed did not convey the exact idea that was wanted.

$m^a \bar{a}' t \bar{\imath}$ chief 10.2	m ^a ā'tīte te qwo'txa ^ī beaver (was) (what you would call a) chief 50.6, 7
$m\bar{a}t\bar{v}'y\bar{u}^{wi}$ chief, general	s ^E atsī'tc waa' ants mātī'wītc ants sī'xa ^ī thus said that (what you would call) captain (of) that boat 64.26; 66.1
lna ^{u'wi} rich man 86.4	lna" wite ants hite (what you would call a) chief (was) that man 76.3
$t = q y \bar{u}'^u$ frame 80.7	teqyū'wīte (what you would call a) frame
$lk.'\bar{\imath}'a^{\bar{\imath}}$ mouth (of river)	$lk/\bar{\imath}'a^{\bar{\imath}}w\bar{\imath}tc$ ants $pk'\bar{\imath}'t\bar{\imath}$ (something like the) mouth (of) that lake

When added to adverbs that convey local ideas, it must be preceded by the local suffix of motion -te (see § 90).

 $sqa^{\bar{\imath}}k$ there 14.6 $sqa^{\bar{\imath}}ktc\bar{\imath}'tc$ $qa'tc^{\bar{\imath}}nt\bar{u}x$ there (they)
will go 30.22 $qan\hat{\imath}s$ - down $qan\hat{\imath}stc\bar{\imath}'tc$ $tx\bar{u}$ $s.\bar{\iota}\bar{\iota}xu'x^u$ down simply he went (slid) 12.6 $tqa^uw\bar{\imath}'$ - up-stream 56.8 $qa'tc^xnt$ $tqa^uw\bar{\imath}tc\bar{\imath}'tc$ he went upstream 58.12

This modal suffix may also express the idea of instrumentality, as will be seen from the following examples:

 $ts\bar{\imath}' \iota . / \bar{\imath}$ arrow 50.7 $tum\hat{\imath}' ntc \ xa'w\bar{\imath}t \ ts\hat{\imath}\iota . / \bar{\imath}' tc$ not he can die through (literally, with) an arrow 15.8 $t\bar{\imath}ax^u \text{ slave } 76.3$ $t\bar{\imath}uha'ha^{\bar{\imath}}n \ ts\bar{\imath}xw\bar{\imath}' tc$ he bought her

in exchange for a slave

When added to verbal stems, $-\bar{\imath}tc$ is almost invariably followed or preceded by the verbs $x\bar{\imath}nt$ - to go, to start, and $h\bar{\imath}q$!- to start, to begin; and the idea conveyed by such a phrase may best be compared with our English sentences I go into a state of . . ., I start . . . -Ly. The Siuslaw informant, unable to express this native phrase in English, usually rendered it by I, thou, he almost . . .

 $tc\bar{\imath}^i$ n- to go home, to return $q\bar{a}tx$ $tcen\bar{\imath}'tc$ $x\hat{\imath}nt$ he cried as he went home (literally, he cries 12.10 when homewards he starts) 58.15, 16 $t E m \bar{u}^{i} t c x \hat{i} n t L / a'^{ai}$ people came $t_{\rm E}m\bar{u}'$ - to assemble 7.3 together (literally, into a state of coming together go many) 30.15, 16 Līwī'tcwax wàn xînt they two are $L\bar{\imath}'\bar{u}$ - to arrive 9.2 almost home (literally, in the manner of arriving they two finally go) 23.1 $k\bar{\imath}'x^{E}s$ $tsxay\bar{u}'^{wi}$ $a'nts\hat{\imath}n$ $tcExw\bar{\imath}'tc$ $tcax^{\underline{u}}$ to go back, to return 30.14 xînt for ten days I was going back (literally, ten days this I returningly went) 66.20, 21 $xa\bar{u}'$ he died 40.21 $x = w \bar{\imath}' t c^E n x h \bar{\imath}' q / y a$ (when) you are near death (literally, [when] in the manner of dying you start)

34.25

k!ap- low tide 36.18

sī'- to grow 98.10

"" k!apī'te xîntî't ants teī and the water began to get low (literally, into a state of low tide went that water) 36.20

sīhī'tcîn xî'ntyax (when) I began to grow up (literally, [when] into a state of growing I went) 100.17

In one instance this suffix occurs as $-a^{\bar{a}}tc$, and is preceded by the stem *qaten*- TO GO.

yax- to see 20.10

^ul qa'tc^Ent yExa^u'tc a'ntsⁱtc tcmā'nī he went to see his cousin 40.24

The verbs $x \hat{i} n t$ - and $h \bar{i} q /$ - may be omitted, as is shown in the following example:

tcdq- to spear 68.8

qaⁱha'ntc hī'nyaxa^ūn ya^ɛk^us tcaqa^ī'tc the seal took him way off as he speared him (literally, way off took him, seal, spearingly) 68.17, 18

-'na is added to adjectives only, and expresses an idea similar to that of the English suffix -Ly.

 $m\bar{\imath}'k!a$ bad 14.7

kwī'nx L!wā'nīsūn mī'k!a'na don't tell it to him badly 17.1, 2 kumî'ntc mī'k!a'na sînixna'wīs not badly (we shall) keep on thinking of each other 78.12, 13 nî'ctcîm t!ī'sa'nanx līt!a'wax because greasy (things) they are

going to eat 82.8

t!ī'sa grease

§ 95. Adverbial Suffixes Indicating Time -tīta, -īta

These suffixes are added to nouns that indicate division of time, and to verbs expressing celestial phenomena, and they may best be rendered by TOWARDS, WHEN THE TIME OF . . . COMES. Both suffixes require the accent.

 $p\bar{\imath}ctcEm$ summer 46.11

pîctcemtīta' "lenx sqaīk taya" towards summer (hence, in the spring-time) they there live 62.2, 3 $q! \mathbf{z} x a^u y \bar{u}' w \hat{\imath}$ salmon season

 $q\bar{\imath}\bar{u}'nem$ winter 80.18, 19 $hi'n^ek'\bar{\imath}$ - to rain 76.18 qa^ix night 38.21 $nicteinwa^{i'}$ spring comes

q!exauyu'witīta' ut tqau'wītc tayai'
when salmon-time comes (they)
up-stream live 82.12, 13
qīū'nemtīta' towards winter
hînek!īta' in the rainy season
qaixīta' towards night-time
nîctcînawīta' utaux sēa'tsa xnī'une
towards spring-time they two
thus do it 98.5

§ 96. Modal Adverbs in -a

This suffix may be called the suffix of modality par excellence. By its means all stems expressing adjectival ideas, and all particles, are transformed into adverbs. Many of these stems (amplified by means of the modal suffix -a) do not occur in their original form, being used adverbially only. All such stems are denoted here by an asterisk (*). Whether this suffix may not be ultimately related to the locative -a (see § 86) is a debatable question.

<i>hīs</i> good 38.21	$kum\hat{i}'ntc\ h\bar{\imath}^{i'}sa\ n\grave{a}tc\ not\ well\ (it\ is)$ on me 12.2
$L\bar{\imath}'\bar{u}$ near 40.12	Līū'wa kunà înq!a'ītc te tai near, perhaps, the creek, these live 66.7, 8
$y\bar{a}^{a'}xa^i$ much, many 8.5	$h\bar{u}'tct\bar{u}ns$ $y\bar{a}^{a'}xa$ we shall play a great deal 10.6
yîkt big, large 48.8	qanîstcî'tc îlqa'yūsne yî'kta very deep it would be dug (liter- ally, down-like it is dug largely) 84.3, 4
* <i>Lîmq</i> - quick	<i>Lî'mqan tcī'ntūx</i> right away I shall return 56.22
*hain- different	$ha^{i\prime}na$ differently 58.9
*nīk!- alone	$n\bar{\imath}'k/a$ alone 94.11
*sEats- thus	$s^{z}a'tsa$ thus, in that manner 18.4
*tsīk!- much, very	tsī'k!ya very, very much 13.9

GENERAL NOMINALIZING SUFFIXES (§§ 97-105)

§ 97. Nominal $-\overline{u}^u$ $(-a^{\overline{u}})$, $-\overline{u}^{wi}$

This suffix conveys a general nominal idea, changing any neutral stem into a noun, and is employed extensively in the formation of verbal abstract nouns. It is also used to express collectivity of action,

an application that is in perfect harmony with its nominal character, as has been explained in § 78. The forms $-\bar{u}^u$ and $-\bar{u}^{wi}$ may be explained as due to imperfect perception on my part, while the double occurrence of $-\bar{u}^u$ and $-a^{\bar{u}}$ is caused by the phonetic relation that exists between the \bar{u} and the diphthong $a^{\bar{u}}$ (see § 2).

 $h\bar{u}tc$ - to play 7.2 $t = m\bar{u}'$ - to gather 7.3

paln- to hunt 82.17

 $x\hat{\imath}l\cdot xc\bar{\imath}$ - to work 48.10

sī- to grow 98.10

Lxat- to run 12.3 xîntm- to travel 12.10

yalq- to dig 84.5 $xa^{i}tc$ - to roast 90.8 $anx\bar{\imath}$ - to sing

 $h\bar{u}tc\bar{u}'^{wi}$, $h\bar{u}tc\bar{u}'^{u}$ fun, 8.5; 16.6 $tc\bar{\imath}k$ ants $L!a'^{ai}$ $tEm^u\bar{u}'^u$ where (there is) that big assembly 88.3 qwà'tc L!xū'yūn palnū'wi (he) who knows (the art of) hunting 82.18 $ts\bar{\imath}'k!ya$ $L!x\bar{u}'y\bar{u}n$ $x\hat{\imath}l\cdot xcy\bar{u}'^u$ very (well) he knows (the art of) working 52.22, 23 $s^{\mathbf{E}}a'tsatc$ $s\bar{\imath}'ya'a^{\bar{\imath}}$ such (was) her

growth 98.6 $Lxat\bar{u}'^{wi}$ a race 78.18

 $w\hat{\imath}'nxanx\ tc\bar{\imath}'wa\ x\hat{\imath}ntm\bar{u}'^{wi}$ thou art afraid to go to the ocean (literally, thou fearest to water the journey)

 $yalqa'a^{\bar{u}}$ a hole 84.6 $xa^{i}tca'a^{\bar{u}}$ roast 90.9 $anxy\bar{u}'^{wi}$ a song

stems can no longer be analyzed.

 $ha^{u}w\bar{\imath}'y\bar{u}$ shaft $paa^{\bar{u}'}w\hat{\imath}$ sand beach 34.14 $pah\bar{u}'^{wi}$ codfish $p\bar{a}'l\cdot\bar{u}$ spring, well 76.12 $ma'tc\bar{u}$ bed (place of lying?) ma'ltcū chimney, stove (place of burning?) $t = q y \bar{u}'^u$ frame (of a house) 80.7 $t\bar{u}qya'a^{\bar{u}}$ up the river 32.22 t'ū'nîxyū pocket $n\hat{i}ctc\hat{i}ma^{\epsilon}m\bar{u}$ custom, fashion 36,28 cîmī'ttxū upper lip

 $tsxay\bar{u}'^{wi}$ day, sun, weather 8.1

This suffix is found in a great number of nouns whose original The following list may be given:

> $tcm\hat{\imath}lq\bar{u}'^{wi}$ ring $(tcm\hat{\imath}lq$ finger) $k^{u}ts\bar{u}'^{wi}$ saliva $k\bar{u}'c\bar{u}$ hog (from French through medium of the Chinook jargon) $k\bar{u}''tc\hat{\imath}y\bar{u}$ sea-otter $km\bar{u}'k\bar{u}$ pipe-stem $kc\hat{\imath}ky\bar{u}'^{wi}$ wall $k t \bar{\imath}' n \bar{u}$ ladder, stairway $kw\bar{\imath}n\bar{\imath}'ntx\bar{u}$ throat $k!a'l\cdot ap\bar{u}$ navel $qasl\bar{\imath}'\bar{u}$ husband 48.20 $qa^iwa'a^{\bar{u}}$ bay, down-stream 80.6 $qa^{u}t\bar{\imath}'\bar{u}$ bark 90.8q!Exa u yu'w $\bar{\imath}$ salmon-time 82.12 *lnau'wi* rich man, chief 86.4

 $lk^wuna'ats\bar{u}$ live-coals $lqa^{i''}t\bar{u}$ tree, log 32.21 $lq/\bar{u}'n\bar{u}$ hide, skin 100.15

 $L\bar{t}ya'a^{\bar{u}}$ fire 25.5 $Lxa\bar{u}'$ pole, spear 64.7 $L/m\hat{t}'kc\bar{u}$ flounder 100.10

When added to the numeral particle $y\bar{a}^{a'}xa^i$ much, many, it denotes the idea expressed by a noun of quality. This particle is to all appearances a stem amplified by means of the nominal suffix $-a^{\bar{\imath}}$ (see § 98); and since two nominal suffixes of a similar function can not be added to one and the same stem, the $-a^{\bar{\imath}}$ disappears, and the suffix $-a^{\bar{\imath}}$ is added to the bare stem $y\bar{a}x$.

 $y\bar{a}^{a'}xa^i$ much, many 8.5

tcî'nt^Ete ya'xa^ā xalna^{i'} how many had climbed up (literally, what their number climbed up) 62.11 tcî'nt^Ete ya'xa^ā tɛ'qte ants qāūteū'nî as many relatives as that woman had (literally, how much their number [of] her relatives [of] that woman) 76.1

Lxa^{i'}pⁱste ya'xa^ā five their number 100.15

§ 98. Nominal $-\bar{\imath}$ $(-a\bar{\imath})$

This suffix is found in a large number of nouns expressing a variety of concepts. It occurs with nouns indicating instrumentality, with verbal abstract nouns, with nouns of relationship, with terms designating animals, with stems expressing natural objects, etc. It is not altogether inconceivable that this nominal formative element may be identical with the verbalizing suffix $-a^i$ (see § 75), even though its nominalizing function can no longer be explained in a majority of cases. In many instances the original stem to which this suffix has been added does not occur in its independent form. The substitution of the diphthong $-a^i$ for the long $\bar{\imath}$ has been discussed in § 2.

 $pEk\bar{u}'$ - to play shinny 9.4 $ts\bar{\iota}\iota$!- to shoot 8.6 $m\hat{\imath}nx^{u}$ - to lighten 38.5 $w\hat{\imath}'nk\bar{\imath}$ - to work 50.6 ta^{i} he sits 16.2

pā'kwī shinny stick tsī' L!ī arrow 50.7 mî'ni wī lightning 38.2 wî'nakī work tī' taī chair $t\bar{t}'t'$ - to eat 13.10

 $h\bar{u}'tc$ - to play 7.2 aswît'ī' blanket $\hat{\imath}_{nq}/a'a^{\bar{\imath}}$, $\hat{\imath}_{nq}/a'\bar{\imath}$, river 30.20, $um t\bar{\imath}'$ thunder 36.8 $\bar{u}'lt\bar{\imath}$ snow 76.10 hamī'ctcī whale 82.4 ha'kwī mussels 82.2 $h\bar{\imath}'a^{\bar{\imath}}$ clouds $h\bar{\imath}ts\bar{\imath}'^{i}$ house 25.2 ha^{i} heart, mind 8.9 $pk'\bar{\imath}'t\bar{\imath}$ lake 62.18 $m_E k l \bar{l}'$ father-in-law ma'ī kidney $m^a\bar{a}'t\bar{\imath}$ chief 10.2 $m\bar{a}'t\bar{\imath}$ dam 48.10 $m\bar{a}t/\bar{\imath}'$ elder brother 58.11 $m\hat{\imath}s\bar{\imath}'a^{\bar{\imath}}$ elder sister 90.23 $m\hat{\imath}ctc\bar{\imath}'^{i}$ younger sister 40.2 mî'ck'la' something bad, vulva 26.5 $tq\bar{a}'t\bar{\imath}$ hook

 $h\bar{u}tca^{\bar{\imath}'}$ fun 10.5 $s\bar{\imath}'xa^{\bar{\imath}}$ canoe 56.5 $tsal\bar{\imath}'swal\bar{\imath}$ beads (?) $ts\hat{\imath}t\bar{\imath}'^i$ sand beach $ts\bar{o}'t\bar{\imath}$ waves, breakers

 $ts\bar{u}'t\bar{v}$ waves, breakers $tsxu'np\iota\bar{\iota}$ coyote 88.9 $tc\bar{\iota}$ water 36.20 $tc\bar{\iota}'t'\bar{\iota}$ wind $ts'\bar{\iota}\bar{u}'xw\bar{\iota}$ spoon $k^{\bar{\iota}}\bar{u}'n\bar{\iota}$ basket 90.21 $qa'x\bar{\iota}$ chicken-hawk

 $t\bar{\imath}'t/a^{\bar{\imath}}$ food 34.23

 $q\bar{a}'w\bar{\imath}$ blood $q^u n\hat{\imath}t\bar{\imath}'^i$ perforation in the ear

 $q^w unax \bar{\iota}'^i$ cheek $qwo'txa^{\bar{\imath}}$ beaver 48.6 $q'a'tct\bar{\imath}$ cedar

 $\bar{l}t'\bar{\imath}'a^{\bar{\imath}}$ salmon 56.1 $\bar{l}a/\bar{a}'s\bar{\imath}$ eel

 $L!xm\bar{i}'t\bar{i}$ bow

 L/a'^{ai} ground, world, earth, place, many 7.2 $L/\bar{\imath}' n\bar{\imath}$ floor

When added to stems that express adjectival ideas, this suffix forms nouns of quality.

 $h\bar{\imath}s \bmod 38.21$ $y\hat{\imath}kt \text{ big } 48.8$

tqu'nī smoke

yāx- much, many 8.5

hīsī'i goodness
hītsī'sɛm yîktī'i of the house the large (size)

lq!ānū''ml yîxī'i of hides a great number 102.1, 2

§ 99. Nouns of Quality in $-t'\overline{u}^u$ $(-t'\overline{u}^{wi})$

There can be little doubt that the vocalic elements of this suffix are identical with the nominalizing suffix discussed in \S 97. The etymology of the initial consonantic element is obscure. This suffix is added to adjectives and adverbs only. Owing to the fact that a number of adjectives end in -t (see \S 104) and that double consonants are invariably simplified, these adjectives drop their final consonant before adding the suffix (see \S 15).

hatca't long 76.1

tnawi rich 86.4 yîkt large 48.8 qa'xûn high 8.7 qain- deep hīs good 38.21 qaiha'n- far 10.3 tcî'nt*tc ha'tct'ū'u for a long time (literally, how much its long period) 48.2

period) 48.2 $lna^uw\hat{t}^i\bar{u}'^{wi}$ wealth $y\hat{i}kt^i\bar{u}'^{wi}$ large size $qax\hat{u}nt^i\bar{u}'^{wi}$ height $qa^int^i\bar{u}'^{wi}$ depth $h\bar{\imath}st^i\bar{u}'^{wi}$ kindness $qa^ihant^i\bar{u}'^{u}$ distance

§ 100. Nouns of Agency in $-ya^{u}x$, -it $(-a^{i}t)$, -t!, $-t!w^{i}$

Nomina actoris are formed by means of the following suffixes:

 $-ya^{u}x$ This suffix seems to have been used frequently.

 lak^u - to fetch, to catch 7.5

 $x\bar{u}^u n$ - to snore 27.9 la'wat!- to gamble ln- to call (?) $tem\bar{u}'$ - to gather 7.3

ta'kukyaux sheriff (literally, a catcher [of people])
xū'nyaux a snorer
ta'wat!yaux a gambler
tna'lyaux an interpreter
temau'yaux a person who assembles (people) 30.2

-it ($-a^it$). This suffix is easily confounded with the verbal negative suffix of similar phonetic structure (see § 53); but this similarity is purely accidental.

wî'nkī- to work

 $x\hat{\imath}l\cdot xc\bar{\imath}'$ - to work 48.10 $x\hat{\imath}ntm$ - to travel 12.10 waa' - to speak 7.1 $p = k\bar{u}'$ - to play shinny 9.4 stà tsī'k!ya wî'nkīt he (is a) very (good) worker 50.5, 6
xî'l'xcīt a workingman
xî'ntmīt a traveler
wa'a't a speaker
pa'kwīt a shinny player

-t! It is quite possible that this suffix may have some connection with the initial element of the suffix for nouns of quality, $-t'\bar{u}^u$ (see § 99).

 $L/w\hat{i}n$ to tell 8.2 $ts\bar{i}L/-$ to shoot 8.6

yuw- to pick, to dig 96.18

pain- to hunt 82.17 t/āmc child, infant 40.20

L!wānt! an informant
tsīL!t! a marksman
yū'yaūt! a person who picks (berries [reduplicated stem])
paL'nt! a hunter
t!îmct! one who raises children
30.23

§ 100

-t!wî seems to be another form of the preceding suffix.

 lak^{u} - to fetch

. . . $tE ext{ } la'k^ut/w\hat{\imath} ext{ } h\bar{\imath}t\bar{u}'tc ext{ } ext{this}$ gatherer of the people 7.5 $la'k^ut/w\hat{\imath}$ a fetcher 22.9

§ 101. Nouns in -ax

This suffix is used for the purpose of forming nouns from verbal stems, adverbs, and stems denoting geographical terms. When added to verbs or to adverbs, it is best rendered by PERSON, PEOPLE; while when used in connection with geographical terms, it denotes a tribal name and may be translated by INHABITING, BELONGING TO.

 $xa\bar{u}'$ he died 40.21

 $k\bar{u}^i$ nàts $x\bar{a}'wa^axa^{\bar{u}}tn\varepsilon$ if he had not been killed (literally, not had he been a person [who was] killed) 29.7

 $L/\bar{o}x$ - to send 16.10

tein ants hite L!owa'x returned this human messenger (literally, returned that person [who was] sent) 7.7

($L!^owa'x$ instead of $L!^owa'xax$, see § 24)

 $a^{u'}st\bar{u}x$ he will sleep 27.7

sî'nixyū'ne ts!îlna'tc xawa'au au'stūxax it was desired (that) with pitch killed shall be the person (who) will sleep 24.1

wā'nwîts long ago 14.7

nî'ctcîm s^za'tsa wā'nwîtsax because thus (did it) the old-timers (literally, [people belonging to] long ago) 68.13

nîctcîma^emū custom, fashion 36.28 s^zatsī'tc wā'nwîtsax nîctcîma^cmwax thus (was) the custom of the oldtimers (literally, thus [of people of] long ago the [things pertaining to their] customs) 76.6, 7

 $p_{E}l\bar{i}'tc$ first 32.19 Lxa^{wi} -? $q\bar{u}^{i}$ -, $q\bar{u}'\bar{i}tc$ south

pelī'tcax a first settler

Lxa''yax the other one, friend 42.8

qū'yax, qū'ītcax an Umpqua Indian

(literally, a person inhabiting
the south)

 qpa^{i} - north $qa^{i}xq$ - east $p\bar{\imath}'$ ' $ts\hat{\imath}s$ ocean 44.1 $ck\bar{o}$ ' tc mountain 46.10

qpa'yax an Alsea man qa''xqax a Kalapuya Indian pī''tsîsax inhabitants of the ocean ckō''tcītcax a mountaineer

§ 102. Nouns in $-\overline{u}n\hat{\imath}$ $(-a\overline{u}n\hat{\imath})$

This suffix is added to adjectives, a few adverbs used in an adjectival sense, and to nouns. It has a double function. When added to adjectives or to adverbs, it transforms them into nouns, just as any adjective is transformed into a noun by adding one to it (compare our phrases the big one, the good one, etc.). When used with other nouns, this suffix has an adjectival character, which may be best rendered by MADE OF, COMPOSED OF.

 $tex^a m$ strong 10.1 30.21 $Lxa^{u'}yax$ other 42.8 $y\hat{i}kt$ big 48.8 shait large $y\bar{a}k!$ - small 38.19 lîmnī'tc behind 86.11 $h\bar{\imath}'q/a$ beads, Indian money, dentalia shells 74.19 $p\hat{\imath}' t q^u t s$ coon $t/\bar{\imath}$ bear 12.4 $k/\bar{\imath}x$ te'q everything 24.4 of every sort (of) fun 10.5 ła'głag boards

texmū'nî the strong one, a man $Lxa^{u}yaxa^{\bar{u}'}n\hat{i}$ the other one 86.18 $y\hat{\imath}kt\bar{u}'n\hat{\imath}$ the big one $s^h a^i t \bar{u}' n \hat{\imath}$ the larger one 92.18 $t\bar{u} y\bar{a}k!a^{\bar{u}'}n\hat{\imath}$ that small one 88.12 lîmnītcū'nî mîctcī'i the youngest sister 40.2 hīq!ahaū'nî consisting of dentalia shells 78.14 pîlqutsū'nî tahā'nîk made of rac-

coon (-hide) quivers 70.23, 24 $t!\bar{\imath}y\bar{u}'n\hat{\imath}$ $tah\bar{a}'n\hat{\imath}k$ made of bear (-skin) quivers 70.24 $k/\bar{e}x\bar{u}'n\hat{i}t_{E}'qa\bar{u}'n\hat{i}h\bar{u}tca^{\bar{i}'}$ composed

laqlaqa^ū'nītc hītsī'i made of some kinds of boards the house 80.7

This suffix may be added to verbal stems provided the verb has been changed into an attribute of a following noun.

hamx- to tie

uł hamxaū'nî ants tsehau'ya and that made of tied grass . . . 8.6

\S 103. Nominalizing Suffix Indicating Place $-a^{arepsilon}m\overline{u}$

This suffix indicates the place where a certain action is performed. When added to stems ending in a velar or palatal consonant, it appears as $-ya^{\varepsilon}m\bar{u}$, and changes the final velar of the stem (q, q!) into a palatal k (see § 17). After all other consonants it occurs as $-a^{\varepsilon}m\bar{u}$. The short u-vowels following velar and palatal consonants disappear before this It is possible that the final \bar{u} of the suffix may be related to the general nominalizing suffix $-\bar{u}$ discussed in § 94 (see § 23).

 $ma'q!\bar{\imath}$ - to dance 28.7 $ya'q^{u'}$ - to see 23.9 $pEk\bar{u}'$ - to play shinny 9.4

nīctcat!- to fight tūhate'- to try to buy Lxat- to run 12.3

 $mEkya^{\epsilon}m\bar{u}$ a dance-hall yekya^emū a vantage point $pEkya^{\epsilon}m\bar{u}$ a place where shinny is played, ball-grounds $n\bar{\imath}ctcat/a^{\varepsilon}m\bar{u}$ battlefield $t\bar{u}hatc'a^{\varepsilon}m\bar{u}$ a store $Lxata^{\epsilon}m\bar{u}$ track (literally, a place where people run) $n\hat{i}ctc\hat{i}ma^{\epsilon}m\bar{u}$ custom, fashion 29.9

§ 104. Adjectives in -t

Siuslaw has no true adjectives. All stems denoting adjectival ideas are intransitive verbs, and may be used as such, as may be seen from the following examples:

 $m\bar{\imath}'k/a$ $h\bar{\imath}tc$ that bad man 23.2,3 $ts\bar{\imath}'k!ya$ $m\bar{\imath}'k!a$ very bad it was 14.7

dentalia shells 76.1

 $hatca't h\bar{\iota}'q/a \log (strings of) hatca't ants lqa'i't\bar{\iota}u$ there was a tall tree 92.21

Owing to this verbal significance, the Siuslaw adjective shows no special suffixes. A few stems denoting adjectival concepts appear in duplicated form, mostly those expressing color (see § 109). There will be found, however, a number of words expressing attributive ideas that end in -t.1 Whether this consonant is related to the auxiliary -t (see § 76) or whether it may be looked upon as a true adjectival suffix, is a question open to discussion. The following is a list of such adjectives:

yîkt big, large 48.8 hawā'tsît new hatca't long, tall 76.1 hīxt wild $p\bar{a}^a la'st^2$ spotted pînî'lt sharp mekct fat 90.16 tîmsqayā't bitter, sour tînt ripe tqatīya't dear, expensive

t'xulī't straight $s^h a^i t$ big, old 92.18 tsîng!t poor 16.10 tsîlt thick $k\hat{\imath}'k$ ' $\bar{\imath}t$ heavy 11.9 k!wī'act proud $q^{u}c\bar{\imath}'ct$ thin Lgut red $L/\bar{a}qt$ wet 56.13 L!nuwā'tît deep

§ 105. Irregular Suffixes -Em, $-is\hat{\imath}$, $-w\hat{\imath}$, $-y\bar{u}w\hat{\imath}$, $-iw\hat{\imath}$

These suffixes occur very seldom, and, while their function is to all appearances nominal, it can not be explained accurately.

¹ See also § 124.

² Dorsey: p'āl-last gray.

- Em occurs with a few nouns.

\$\text{lqwa}^a'tem \text{ root, alder tree} \\ 92.5, 6 \\ p\ti'ctcem \text{ summer } 98.8

tsamî'tsem chin qīū'nem winter 80.19 xa^{i'}tsem woman's basket

-īsî seems to denote an abstract idea.

pln- to be sick 40.21 qaix dark, night 38.21 hwu'nhwun black nî'ctca (?) how 16.2 nîctcînwai' spring comes plnī'sî sickness, cough qa'xī'sî darkness, night hō'nīsî dusk nî'ctcīsî arrival (?) 40.16 nîctcanū'wīsî year 92.12

The following nouns have analogous form:

 $a^{u'}tc\bar{\imath}\hat{\imath}$ camas 96.20 $l\bar{\imath}'xtsn\bar{\imath}\hat{\imath}$ small-pox

L!ntī''tcīsî crawfish

The nouns tswa'sî frost and Luwa'sî nose may also belong here.

- $w\hat{\imath}$ is found in a small number of nouns.

sî'na^uwî grouse tsna'wî bone $k!\bar{o}^{o'}xw\hat{\imath}$ gnat $q^{u}h\bar{a}'qw\hat{\imath}$ broom

In a few instances this suffix seems to form nouns of agency, and may be related to the suffixes discussed in §§ 97 and 99.

tsxan- to comb one's hair $qatc\bar{u}^i$ - to drink 76.12

tsxa'nwî a comb
qatcwī'wî a person who waters
animals (?)

 $c^u x \bar{u}$ - to drive away, to scare 56.11 \bar{u} lq- to dig 80.6

îlqa'wî one who digs holes

cūxwa'wî a driver (?)

 $-y\bar{u}w\hat{\imath}$, $-\bar{\imath}w\hat{\imath}$. These two suffixes have a peculiar function. They seem to denote the nominal object of an action performed by a noun of agency (see § 100). The most puzzling phenomenon connected with their function is the fact that they can be added only to the discriminative form of a noun (see § 111), which seems to stand in direct contradiction to its objective significance, because the discriminative case points to the noun as the subject of the action.

Absolutive penî's skunk 86.1

Discriminative pena's 86.7

Objective

tsīt!t! penasyū'wî a

skunk-shooter

Absolutive	Discriminative	Objective
hīte person 7.1	h ⁱ ya'tc 13.10; 15.2	$ts\bar{\imath}_L/t!$ $h^iyatc\bar{u}'w\hat{\imath}$ a man-killer
		tema ^ū 'ya ^u x hyatcī'wî a gatherer of people
swał grizzly bear	$sw\bar{a}l$ 15.2	tsīl!t! swālyū'wî a grizzly-shooter
(?) huckleberries	te $'$ xya	ta'kutlwî taxyū'wî a picker of huckle- berries
$qwo'txa^i$ beaver 48.6	$qwoa'txa^{\bar{\imath}}$ 52.4	tsīt!t! qwoatxī'wî a beaver-killer

Another nominalizing suffix that seems to be confined to one stem only is -as in the noun wa'as language, word, message 34.21, formed from the verbal stem waa- to speak, to talk.

Reduplication (§§ 106–109) § 106. Introductory

Reduplication as a factor in the formation of grammatical categories and processes does not play as important a rôle in Siuslaw as in many other American Indian languages.

Considered from a purely phonetic point of view, the process of reduplication may affect a single sound, a syllable, or the whole word, while from the standpoint of position of the reduplicated elements it may be either initial or final. In accordance with these processes, a given language may show the following possible forms of reduplication: Vocalic or consonantic initial reduplication; consonantic final reduplication, commonly called final reduplication; syllabic reduplication, usually referred to as doubling or reduplication of the syllable; and word-reduplication, better known as repetition of the stem.

Of the forms of reduplication known actually to occur in the American Indian languages, Siuslaw shows only duplication of the (first) syllable, duplication of the final consonant, and repetition of the stem. Syllabic duplication occurs rather seldom, final duplication is resorted to frequently, while repetition of the stem plays a not unimportant part in the formation of words.

Reduplication is confined chiefly to the verb; its use for expressing distribution—a phenomenon commonly found in American Indian languages—is entirely unknown to Siuslaw, which employs this process solely for the purpose of denoting repetition or duration of action.

§ 107. Duplication of the Initial Syllable

This process occurs in a few sporadic instances only. The repeated syllable occurs in its full form, the original syllable losing its vocalic elements. Initial stops of both the original and repeated syllables are usually changed into fortis (see § 17).

 $t = m\bar{u}'$ - to assemble 7.3

 $L\bar{\imath}'\bar{u}$ (they) come 9.3

 ta^{i} - to sit, to live 16.2

hat- to shout 13.11

yuw- to pick 96.18

t/Emt!ma'xam wan they come to see him (literally, he is assembled about) 23.3

L/īL/wa'xam he is approached 16.3 L/īL/wī'sūtnE he is continually approached 26.2

 $s^{E}a'tsanx \ t_{E} \ L.'\bar{v}' \ L.'\bar{u}t\bar{u}ts$ that's why I came (to see) you 21.6, 7

 $h^i y a' t c n^{\underline{x}} x a n$ $\underline{L}' \overline{l}' \underline{L}' \overline{u} t s$ people us came (to see) repeatedly 100.8

ants Tsxuna'pıī t!ī't!yūn (that) on which Coyote was sitting 94.6

thatī'yūsnɛ he would be shouted at 70.22 (this form may be explained as derived from an original hathatī'yūsnɛ)

 $lhal\bar{\imath}'txa^{\bar{u}'}n_E$ he is continually shouted at 11.10

 $y\bar{u}'ya^{\bar{u}w}t!$ one who picks

§ 108. Duplication of Final Consonants

This process is employed extensively, and consists in the repetition of the final consonant with insertion of a weak a- or i- vowel. In many instances the quality of the connecting vowel is affected by the vowel of the stem. This is especially true in cases where the stem ends in a u-vowel, after which the connective vowel is assimilated and becomes a weak u. The short vowel of the stem is not infrequently changed into a long vowel. This duplication plays an important part in the formation of the past tense (see § 74), and, in addition to denoting frequency and duration of action, it seems to be capable of expressing commencement, especially of intransitive actions.

 a^us - to sleep 23.9 gax dark 38.21

a^{u'}sî's he began to sleep 26.9 qaⁱxî'x wā'nwîts it got dark long ago 64.19

<i>xînt</i> - to go 20.3	**l wàn xîntî't he kept on going now 56.23
slōxu- to go down	" slōxu'x" wīl!a'xl! he came down again 12.6
ha^iq shore 44.7	haiqa'q wan he then went ashore 58.17
logw- to boil 96.1	ul txū lōqwa'qu and just he was boiling 96.7, 8
$m\bar{\imath}'k/a$ bad 14.7	mīk!a'k! ants tsxayū'wi began to get rough that weather 64.15
$sm\bar{u}t$ '- to end 11.1	wàn smūt'a't' it ends finally 9.1
$tc\bar{\imath}t'$ - to blow 94.5	$tc\bar{\imath}t'a't'$ the wind blew 94.5
hūtc- to play 7.2	utenx āl hūtca'tc and they now began to play 72.23, 24
<i>k!ap</i> - low water 36.18	$k/\bar{a}p\hat{\imath}'p$ low water (comes)
xwīl!- to go back 42.6	xwīl!a'l! wàn he finally came back 12.7
nal- to start	$sq\bar{a}'tem\ n\bar{a}l\hat{n}'l$ he started from there 68.10
$h\bar{\imath}'q$!- to start 22.6	$s^{x}a'tsa \ h\bar{\imath}'q!aq!yax$ thus it began 15.1
łak ^u - to take 7.5	$ula^ux lakwa'k\bar{u}^un$ they two took (them) away 52.16
	ła'kukyax she took 60.23
xumc- to come, to approach	xumca'ca ^u x wàn they two are approaching now 23.2
$h\bar{\imath}ts$ - to put on 11.8	hiyatsî'tsūn ants tai'qat he is put- ting that feather on 11.8
$t\bar{u}$ ' tc - to spear 62.2	towatcî'tcūnaux they two began to spear it 56.15, 16 towa'tcîtcyaxa ^ū n I have been spear-
	ing it 66.17
tcaq- to spear 68.18	$ula^{u}x tcaqa'qa^{\bar{u}}n$ and they two began to spear it 56.19
<i>yax</i> - to see 20.10	$ula^ux \ yaxî'x\bar{u}n$ they two saw it 56.15

A very interesting case of duplication applied to formative elements is presented by the nominal suffix -ax. This suffix signifies People, Belonging to, and, when added to the adverb $w\bar{a}'nw\hat{\imath}ts$ long ago, it was invariably rendered by old-timers (see § 101). Whenever the speaker wants to imply the intensive idea People of Very long ago, he usually repeats this suffix.

 $uln qn\bar{u}h\bar{u}'h\bar{u}^un$ I am finding it

 $qn\bar{u}$ '- to find 56.9

wā'nwîtsax old-timer 68.13

wā'nwîtsaxax people of long, long ago 29.9
sĒa'tsa xnīw'nūtne wā'nwîtsaxax thus it was done (by) people of long, long ago 62.9
wā'nwîtsaxax nîctcîmaʿmū (of) old, old-timers their custom 68.19

Similarly the modal-*ītc* (see § 94) is found repeated in a few instances.

 $tc\bar{a}$ where 34.4

tcaītcī'tc nī'ctūx where he will go 64.20

§ 109. Duplication of Stems

While this process is, strictly speaking, of a lexicographical character, and as such ought to be treated more properly under the heading "Vocabulary" (see § 137), it will nevertheless be found useful to give here a list of doubled stems. Barring a few nouns, most of these terms are adjectives denoting color and quality.

hwu'nhwun black
pxū''pxū' sorrel, yellow
tu'ktuk deaf
'n'k!'nk! soft
ki'k'ūt heavy 11.9
pūna'pūna' gopher, mole
96.19
mū'smūs cow¹
t!'a'l't!'al' tongue
tsîyî'ktsîyî'k wagon¹

qa'sqas stiff, hard
qu'LquL white 40.10,11
qtsî'nqtsîn blue, green
xu'sxus naked
lîma'tîm blind
tsînī'Ltsînī'L² little beaver (?)
50.15
tcîmtca'mî ax 27.10
qulaiL'qulaiL otter from ocean (?)
laqlaq board 80.7

Vocalic Changes (§§ 110–112)

§ 110. Introductory

Siuslaw expresses two distinct grammatical categories by means of vocalic change. Of these two categories, one is nominal, while the other has a strictly verbal character pertaining to intensity and frequency of action. When applied to nouns, vocalic change expresses the discriminative case.

§ 111. The Discriminative Case

The discriminative case is that form of the noun which singles it out as the performer of an action directed upon an object; i. e., it designates the nominal subject in sentences containing pronominal or nominal object.

The discriminative form of pronouns and of nouns of relationship is expressed by means of the prefix q- (see § 21). All other nouns express the discriminative form by means of a vocalic change that varies according to the quantity of the stem-vowel, and in polysyllabic stems according to the quantity of the vowel of the accented syllable. The following rules may be said to apply in all cases:

1. The discriminative form of nouns the stem-vowel of which is a long $\bar{\imath}$ or \bar{u} is obtained through the diphthongization of these vowels into ya and wa respectively (see § 7). For purely physiological reasons a weak vowel corresponding to the quality of the diphthongized vowel is inserted between the diphthong and its preceding consonant.

hīte person, people 7.1	$ut ya'q^{u'}y\bar{u}n h^iya'tc and people looked on 70.4$
$l\bar{\imath}'tc^{x}t$ cougar 13.3	l'ya'tc't h'yatsî'tsūn Cougar put it on 13.4
$m\bar{\imath}'k/a$ bad 14.7	$m^i y a' k / a$ $h^i y a' t c$ $l^i t ! a' y \bar{u} n$ a bad person devoured him 15.2
$h\bar{\imath}q^u$ wild-cat 34.17	$h^{i}yats''ts\bar{u}n \ h^{i}ya'q^{u}$ Wild-Cat put it on 11.11
$lk!an\bar{u}'k^u$ screech-owl 86.1	tsī'k!ya wî'nxa ^ū n ants pɛnî's tk!- an ^u wa'k ^u Screech-Owl feared that Skunk very much 86.3 hīna' ^w ūn ants płna'st lk!an ^u wa'k ^u
	Screech-Owl intended to take along that sick man 88.1, 2
$q\bar{\imath}\bar{u}tc\bar{u}'n\hat{\imath}$ woman 30.21	$c\hat{\imath}'l$: $x\bar{u}n$ $q\bar{\imath}\bar{u}tc^uwa'n\hat{\imath}$ (a) woman shook him 58.4
$texm\bar{u}'n\hat{\imath}$ man 30.21	$w\bar{\imath}'l\bar{u}n$ $t_{EXM}^{u}wa'n\hat{\imath}$ (the) man agreed with her 58.7
$tsxay\bar{u}'^{wi}$ sun, day 8.1	mîtkwî' tūtsîn tsxay ^u wa' wî (the) Sun had pity on me 72.14

Somewhat irregular discriminative forms are shown by the nouns $t!\bar{\imath}$ GRIZZLY BEAR and $q\bar{\imath}'\bar{u}tc$ wife, which occur as $t!\bar{\imath}ya^{i'}$ and $qa'y\bar{u}tc$ respectively.

$t/\bar{\imath}$ grizzly bear 12.4	$t!ar{\imath}ya^{i\prime}\ h^iyats\hat{\imath}'tsar{u}n$	Grizzly Bear
$qar{\imath}'ar{u}tc$ wife 48.17	put it on 12.3 $ma^a tc \ qa'y\bar{u}tc^xtc \text{ (he}$ had lain 60.13	and) his wife

2. Nouns with short stem-vowels, or with short vowels in the accented syllable, change these vowels into an a in their discriminative forms. Short a-vowels of the stem are lengthened into \bar{a} .

penî's skunk 86.1	t'na ^{u'wi} hīte ul lqaqa ^v txa ^ū n pena's (at) a rich man he always broke his wind,(namely) Skunk 86.6, 7
tsî'sqan deer 13.9	$h^iyatsî'ts\bar{u}n\;tsa'sq\hat{\imath}n\;{ m Deer\;put\;it\;on}$ 13.8
$qwo'txa^{\bar{\imath}}$ beaver 48.6	a'tsa ut kumî'nte sî'n'xyūn qwoa't- xa ⁵¹ ants qu'l'i'te that's why not liked Beaver that Otter 54.8, 9
$p\hat{\imath}lq^uts$ raccoon 70.23, 24	$pa'lq^uts \ h^iyats \hat{v}'ts \bar{u}n \ { m Raccoon \ put}$ it on
$q!a'xa^uxt$ wolf 13.2	q!ā'xa"xt h'iyatsî'tsūn Wolf put it on 12.8
swał grizzly bear	swāł lit/a'yūn Grizzly Bear devoured them 15.2
$sq\bar{u}ma'$ pelican 44.1	waa'a ^ū n sqūmā' ants lq!al·ō'mä said Pelican to Sea-Gull 44.17

3. Stems containing diphthongs, or stems whose accented syllables end in the diphthong a^i , add a short a to the diphthong for the purpose of forming the discriminative case.

$ha^{\nu}m\bar{u}t$ all 9.5	$haya'mar{u}t\ h^iya'tc\ {\scriptscriptstyle L}!xar{u}'yar{u}n$ all peo-
	ple know it 60.24, 25
	yaqu'yī'wyūtsatcî haya'mūt you all
	shall look at me 72.11, 12
$ha^{i\prime}na$ different 58.9	$haya'na \ h^{i}yatsî'ts\bar{u}n \ another \ (one)$
	put it on 12.8

4. Polysyllabic stems whose accented syllable ends in a consonant and is followed by a syllable beginning with a consonant form the discriminative case by inserting a short a between these two consonants.

tsxu'npıī coyote 88.9	ants $Tsxuna'pl\bar{\imath}\ t!\bar{\imath}'t!y\bar{u}n$ that (on
	which) he was sitting, (namely)
	Coyote 94.6
texmî'l·mä old people 58.25	texmîl·a'mî L!xū'yūn an old man
	knew it 76.15, 16

um'lī thunder

qīūtcî'l·mä old woman 96.15

 $tc\hat{\imath}'nta^u$ which one 90.1

szatsī'te waa'aūn uma'tī thus said to him Thunder 36.9 qīūteîl'a'mî ta'yūn ants tsī' L!ī the old woman kept that arrow 96.2

tcîna'ta" sî'nixyaxa"n ants . . . whoever wanted that . . . 11.6, 7

§ 112. Intensity and Duration of Action

Vocalic change as a means of expressing intensive and durative actions is of a twofold character. The change consists either in the diphthongization of the long $\bar{\imath}$ - and \bar{u} - vowels of the stem (see § 7), or in stem-amplification. In both cases the underlying principle may be described as the change of a monosyllabic root into a stem having two syllables.

Diphthongization is applied to those stems only whose vowels are either long $\bar{\imath}$ or \bar{u} . A verbal stem with a diphthongized vowel expresses durative actions only in connection with other proper devices, such as the temporal suffixes or duplication of final consonants (see §§ 41, 56, 69, 108). Owing to the fact that certain temporal suffixes—notably the inchoative, the frequentative, the durative, the present, the future, and the imperative—imply to a certain extent intensive actions, or actions that are being performed continually, the suffixes for these tenses are frequently found added to the verbal stem whose vowel has been diphthongized, while all other tenses are formed from the simple root.

L!ōn- to tell 16.9

 $k\bar{u}$ 'n- to bend down

 $tk\bar{u}m$ - to close, to shut 48.8

 $t\bar{u}$ 'tc- to spear 62.2

 $q\bar{u}$ 'n- to pour 29.2

L/ox- to send 16.10

szatsī'tc L!waan thus he was speaking 16.6

**l tx\bar{u} kwa'hunt and (they) would just bend down 11.9

"thwahuna't!ist and he would continually lower his head 13.5

"lns tkwa'mīsūn and we two shall keep on making dams (literally, closing [the river]) 48.14

towa'tcīs wàn spear it now! 64.2 towatcî'tcūnaux they two ar

spearing it 56.15, 16

qwa''nyūx pour it into his . . . !

L!ºwa'xyūn (I) shall keep on sending (them) 30.19

<i>L!xū</i> - to know 19.9	$L!x^uwa'x^uy\bar{u}tsa'tc\hat{\imath}$ you shall know me 30.17
lak^u - to take, to get 7.5	$wan \ lakwa'k\bar{u}^u n$ now (they two) were taking them 52.16
$h\bar{\imath}ts$ - to put on 11.8	$h^i y a t \hat{s} \hat{i}' t s \bar{u} n$ he is putting it on 11.8
cītx- to flop	ciyatx it is flopping 36.23
$\bar{\imath}lqa^{i\prime}$ he digs 84.2	ya'lqa ^a n (they two) are digging (holes) 84.5
tsīl!- to shoot 8.6	tsiyar!- to shoot

Intensity and duration of action of verbal stems whose root-vowels are vowels of quantities and qualities other than $\bar{\imath}$ and \bar{u} are expressed by means of amplification of the root by the insertion of a weak vowel between its two final consonants. This process occurs in a few rare instances.

anx- to give up 60.11	kumî'ntcînî ana'xyūn not we shall give it up 16.8
hamx- to tie 8.6	k!"' Lūn hama' xyūn tomorrow I will tie it up
$xn\bar{\imath}^w n$ - to do 10.5	s ^z a'tsa ^u xûn xnīyunī ^w 'yūn thus to them two I will do it 88.14, 15
	$s^{x}a'tsa^{u}x\hat{u}n$ $xn\bar{\imath}yuna'^{w}\bar{u}n$ thus to them two I intend doing it

Another example of stem-amplification for the purpose of expressing duration of action is furnished by the stem a^iq - to leave, which is changed into ayaq-.

ta"k" ns aya'qyūn here we two (incl.) will leave it 56.16, 17

Stem-amplification may have also caused the change of the root $L/xma^{\bar{i}}$ - TO KILL into $L/xm\bar{i}ya^{i}$ -.

 $y\bar{a}^{a'}xa^i$ $h\bar{\imath}tc$ $_L!xm\bar{\imath}ya'y\bar{u}n$ ants $Sw\bar{a}l$ many people he is killing, that Grizzly Bear 94.9

L!xmīya'yūnant we (incl.) are going to kill him 28.3

Siuslaw possesses a number of stems that occur in such double forms, and I give here a few of the most important.

$L./\bar{o}n-16.9$	$L/wa^a n$ - to tell 16.6
$k\bar{u}$ 'n-	$kwa^{hu}n$ - to lower one's head 11.9
$tk\bar{u}m$ - 48.8	tkwam- to close, to shut 48.14
$tar{u}$ ' tc - 62.2	towatc- to spear 56.15
$q\bar{u}$ 'n- 29.2	qwa'n- to pour 29.2
	§ 112

<i>L.</i> /ō <i>x</i> − 16.10	1
$k^u t_{s-}$	7.
Lō ł-	1
$ka^{\bar{u}}s$ - 92.7	7.
$\bar{u}lt$ - 76.10	\imath
lak^{u} - 7.5	ł
$xa\bar{u}'$ - 40.21	а
$ha\bar{u}'$ - 11.4	7
t/\bar{u} '- 74.5	t
$t/E'mx\bar{u}^u$ - 48.12	t
$w\bar{\imath}'l\bar{u}$ - 58.7	ı
yax- 40.11	3
hīts 11.8	7
$h\bar{\imath}n$ - 9.5	7
$\bar{\imath} tq$ - 80.6	3
$ts\bar{\imath}_L/-8.6$	t
$q!\bar{u}^ip$ -	9
$c\bar{\imath}tx$ - 36.23	0
<i>līt!</i> − 13.10	į
$tc\bar{\imath}^i n$ - 12.10	t
$a^{i}q$ -	a
hamx- 8.6	7
anx- 60.11	
$xn\bar{\imath}^w n$ - 10.5	a
$L!x\bar{u}$ - 19.9	1
$L!xma^{\bar{\imath}}$ -	
Liwiica -	I

/owax- to send 7.7 cwats- to paint one's face wat- to strike ciwas- to follow 92.3 valt- to snow akwa'- to take, to get, to fetch 52.16awa'- to die 15.5 a'wa- to be ready 23.10 $/\bar{u}ha'$ - to buy 74.5 !Emxwa- to cut into pieces $v\bar{\imath}lwa'$ - to agree 30.11 a'xa- to see 20.10 hiyats- to put on 11.7 hiyan- to take along *alq*- to dig 84.5 s^iya_L !- to shoot /wyap- to twinkle 36.14 *iyatx*- to flop 36.23 iyat!- to eat ciyan- to come back ya'q- to leave 56.5 amax- to tie ma'x- to give up 16.8 mīyun- to do 88.14, 15 $4x^{u}wa$ - to know 30.17 $!xm\bar{i}ya^i$ - to kill 28.3

Amplification of the stem seems to have been used in a few instances for the purpose of expressing intransitive actions performed by the third person singular. It will be remembered that this person has no special suffix, the same being understood in the stem or in the verbal suffixes. In some cases, however, Siuslaw adds a weak a to the stem, provided the same is not followed by any of the subjective suffixes (see § 24).

 $haar{u}'$ to quit, to be ready 28.2 $war{a}'nw\hat{\imath}ts$ ha'wa long ago it (was) ready 23.10 $txar{u}n$ xa'wa $s\hat{\imath}'n^ixyar{u}tnE$ just I to die am wanted 20.8, 9 $txar{u}nx$ ya'xa $s\hat{\imath}'n^ixyar{u}tnE$ merely thou to (be) see(n) art wanted 20.10

 $t!\bar{u}$ '- to buy

waa'- to speak 7.1

tsa'ntcî tū'ha sî'nixyūn if you to buy want her 74.8 "I waa' and he said 12.10

In one instance the quality of this weak vowel has been assimilated to that of the stem-vowel.

 $tq\bar{u}l$ - to shout 92.6

 $m\hat{t}ta'tc^wax$ ants $tq\bar{u}t\bar{u}'$ waa' their (dual) father, that one shouted (and) said $(tq\bar{u}'t\bar{u})$ instead of $tq\bar{u}'ta$) 52.8

The Pronoun (§§ 113–115)

§ 113. The Independent Personal Pronouns

The independent personal pronouns occur primarily in two forms, according to whether they are used as subjects or objects of an action; but, owing to the fact that from the subjective pronouns there is obtained by means of the prefix q- (see § 21) a discriminative form, the independent personal pronouns may be said to have three distinct forms—the discriminative, subjective, and objective or locative sets. Both the discriminative and subjective pronouns refer to the subject of the sentence, differing, however, in so far as the former applies to subjects of transitive actions, while the latter is used mostly in connection with intransitive verbs. The discriminative form, moreover, is employed whenever the sentence absolutely requires that subjectivity of action be indicated (see §§ 21, 111). To be sure, cases where the subjective pronouns are used with transitive verbs are by no means rare.

Siuslaw, like so many other Indian languages, has no distinct pronoun for the third person singular, this person being supplied by the demonstrative pronouns $s^{E}\dot{\alpha}$, $s^{E}a^{i}na$, $s^{E}\dot{\alpha}s$ (see § 115). The first person dual has two separate forms, one for the inclusive (I and thou), and the other for the exclusive (I and he). Similarly, in the first person plural are distinguished the inclusive (I and ye) and exclusive (I and they).

These pronouns perform the function of a whole sentence, and may be rendered by I, thou, he, etc., am the one who. . . .

The tabular presentation of the independent personal pronouns is as follows:

		Subjective	Objective	Discriminative
Singular	1st person 2d person	na'han, nà nīxats s ^E à	nàtc nīxatc s ^E a i'na, s ^E a i'natc	qna'han, qn à qnīxats s ^E às
Dual	Inclusive Exclusive	nans nau'xûn nīxats s ^E a'wax, s ^E aux	na'tc ^E ns na'tcauxún nī'xtc ^E ts s ^E aina'tcaux	$qnans$ $qna'x\hat{u}n$ $qn\bar{\imath}x^ats$ $s^Ea'sa^ux$
Plural	[Inclusive Exclusive	$nant$ $na'nxan$ $nar{v}'x^ats^Etc\hat{v}$ $s^E\grave{a}nx$	na'tcinl na'tcinxan nī'xtc ^E tci s ^E a ina'tcinx	qnanl qna'nxan qnī'xats ^E tci s ^E 'as ^E nx

This table shows that the independent pronouns are derived from two stems— $n\grave{a}$ for the first persons, and $n\bar{\imath}x$ or $n\bar{\imath}xts$ for the second persons; the first singular and all dual and plural persons being obtained by suffixing the subjective pronouns for these persons (see § 24) to the singular forms. Thus the inclusive and exclusive dual nans and $nax\hat{\imath}n$ are composed of the first person singular $n\grave{a}$ and of the subjective suffixes -ns and $-x\hat{\imath}n$. In like manner the inclusive and exclusive plural nanl and na'nxan consist of $n\grave{a}+-nl$ and $n\grave{a}'+-nxan$ respectively.

The second person dual $n\bar{\imath}x^ats$ is abbreviated from an original $n\bar{\imath}'xts^{\bar{\imath}}ts$. This abbreviation is due to simplification of double consonants (see § 15), causing a phonetic similarity between the pronouns for the second person singular and dual. In order to avoid possible confusion, duality of subject is indicated by suffixing to the verb the subjective pronouns for the second person dual. The second person plural is regular, consisting of the singular form for the second person plus the subjective suffix plural for that person.

The third persons dual and plural are obtained by adding the subjective pronouns for these persons to the subjective form of the demonstrative pronoun $s^E \hat{a}$.

The objective forms of the personal pronouns—that is to say, those forms that are used as objects of a sentence—are formed by adding to the subjective pronouns the local suffix indicating motion -tc (see § 90). The form for the second person singular is the result of an abbreviation from an original $n\bar{\imath}'xts^{z}tc$ caused perhaps by a reduction of the cluster of final consonants.

It will be noticed that the subjective suffixes employed in the formation of the corresponding dual and plural persons are added after the adverbial -tc, a trait which Siuslaw has in common with the Alsea language. The objective pronouns for the third persons have as their basis the corresponding forms of the demonstrative pronoun.

For the sake of emphasis the subjective suffixed pronouns are sometimes used in addition to the independent forms.

Examples of subjective pronouns:

na'han "ln tsīt!' ya's I have an arrow (literally, I am the one who [I] is arrow-having) 50.16

a'tsan te nà L!ōxa'xam that's why this I was sent 21.8

 $na'han\ a'nts^{\underline{\varepsilon}}nx\ s\hat{\imath}'n^ixy\bar{u}ts\ I$ am that one whom you wanted 40.14 $kum\hat{\imath}'ntc\hat{\imath}n\ na\ n\hat{\imath}ctc\bar{\imath}'tc\ wa'a^{\bar{\imath}}l$ not I anything will say (literally, not

I, I am the one who anything will say) 74.9

k!îxai' nà alone (was) I 100.3

nīxats ulɛnx qanī'nal hī'nīsītī you'll take along your knife (literally, you are the one, you, knife take along will, yours) 50.16, 17

 $n\bar{\imath}x^ats\ l^it/a^{i\prime}$ you are eating

 $ul s = \hat{a} p = l \bar{i}' t c^i t \bar{u} x$ and he will be first 10.1

nans hī'sa we two (incl.) are well

 $na^{u'}x\hat{u}n \ x\bar{a}'ts/\bar{u}$ we two (excl.) are two 36.15

 $s^{E}a^{u}x$ ata's $L/x\bar{u}'y\bar{u}n$ they two only knew it 98.9

szànx tsī'k!ya L!xū'yūn they very (well) know it 72.1, 2

Examples of objective pronouns:

kumî'ntc hī'sa nàtc it is not good for me 12.2

"Inx nate Li'wis then you shall come to me 44.6

kumî'nte hī'sa nī'xate it (does) not (look) good on you 12.5

 $kum\hat{\imath}'ntc\ na'tc^{E}ns\ s\hat{\imath}'n^{i}xya\ tE\ q\bar{\imath}\bar{u}tc\bar{u}'n\hat{\imath}$ not us two (incl.) like these women 52.13

Examples of objective and discriminative pronouns for the third persons will be found under "Demonstrative Pronouns" (see § 115), while the discriminative pronouns for the first and second persons have been illustrated in § 21.

§ 114. The Possessive Pronouns

The independent possessive pronouns are compound forms consisting of the following three separate elements: the independent personal pronoun (see § 113), the relative case-ending -*eml* (see § 87),

and the sign of possession $-\bar{\imath}$ (see § 88). The sign of possession is not present in forms that express the third persons as the possessor. To these compound forms are added the suffixed subjective pronouns (see § 24) for the purpose of indicating the person of the possessor. The suffixed pronouns, to be sure, agree always with the independent pronouns that form the initial elements of the compound. The following peculiarities will be observed in connection with the pronominal forms that enter into the composition of the independent possessive pronouns:

- 1. For the first and second persons (singular, dual and plural) the subjective forms of the independent pronoun are used. The stems $n\dot{a}$ and $n\bar{\imath}x$ are employed for that purpose.
- 2. For the third person (singular, dual and plural) the objective form of the independent pronoun $(s^{\underline{r}}a^{i\prime}na)$ is used.
- 3. Singularity, duality, or plurality of the person is expressed, not in the initial pronominal element, but in the suffixed subjective pronoun. Consequently the initial element remains unchanged for all numbers.

Owing to the fact that Siuslaw has no distinct subjective suffix for the third person singular, the suffix -tc is added without the aid of the sign of possession $-\bar{\imath}$. Duality and plurality of the third person are indicated by adding to -tc the subjective suffixes $-a^ux$ and -nx respectively.

In § 88 the fact has been mentioned that possessive phrases are verbalized by adding the auxiliary suffix -t (see § 76) to the sign of possession. This -t often figures in the composition of the independent possessive pronouns, especially those for the first and second persons.

The following table shows the independent possessive pronouns:

Singular	1st person 2d person	$na'm^E l ar{\imath} n, \ na'm^E l ar{\imath} t it n$ $n ar{\imath}' x a m l ar{\imath} n x, \ n ar{\imath}' x a m l l t i n x$ $s^E a i n a' m l t c, s^E a i n a' m l$
Dual	Inclusive Exclusive 2d person	$na'm^E lins, na'm^E litins \\ na'm^E lix \Omega n, na'm^E lita v x \Omega n \\ n lix n lits, n l'x am litits \\ s^E a l n a'm t l c w a x $
Plural	Inclusive Exclusive 2d person	$na'm^E linl, \ na'm^E littinl \ na'm^E littinxan \ ni'xam litet, \ ni'xam litet \ s^E a ina'm lten^E x$

It will be noticed that the obscure E of the relative suffix -Eml has been contracted with the preceding vowels of $n\dot{a}$ and $s^{E}a^{i\prime}na$ into a clear a-vowel (see § 9). The weak vowel in $na'm^{E}l\bar{i}n$, $na'm^{E}l\bar{i}ns$, etc., is due to the law of sound-groupings (see § 4).

The third person singular often loses its distinct suffix for that person (-tc). This loss is due to the fact that the form $s^{x}a^{i}na'ml$ is in itself capable of expressing a possessive idea that has the third person as its possessor.

These possessive pronouns have the force of a whole sentence, and may be properly translated by it is mine, it is thine, etc. They are frequently used for the sake of emphasis in addition to the possessive suffixes that are added to nouns, and in such cases invariably precede the nominal concept.

wa'a senx na'm trin wa'as you shall continually speak (with) my language 36.13 $na'm^{E}l\bar{\imath}n \ q'a'\bar{\imath}l$ my pitch, this is my pitch $na'm^{E}l\bar{\imath}t\hat{\imath}n\ lkwa'nuq^{u}$ this is my hat na'm^Elīn mîtà (he) is my father nī'xamtīnx kō'tan your horse nī'xamlīnx mîlà (she is) your mother s^Eaina'mltc wa'as wa^a'syaxa^ūn his language he had spoken 36.14 s^Eaⁱna'mltc Laa' his mouth s^Eaⁱna'mł kō'tan his horse na'm^Elīns kō'tan our (dual, incl.) horses na'm*līxûn tcīl our (dual, excl.) hands nī'xamlīts kwīyō's your (dual) dog $s^{E}a^{i}na'mltc^{w}ax \ k\bar{o}'tan \ their (dual) \ horse$ na'm^Elīnł kō'tan our (plural, incl.) horses na'm^Elīnxan tE'q our (plural, excl.) relative 102.5 nī'xamlītcî tE'q your (plural) relatives s^Eaina'mltcinx qal'tc their (plural) knives

§ 115. The Demonstrative Pronouns

Although Siuslaw has a number of stems that are used as demonstrative pronouns, there could not be detected in them such categories as visibility or invisibility, presence or absence, nearness to or remoteness from the speaker. It is true that in some instances the informant would render a certain demonstrative pronoun as indicating nearness or remoteness; but this rendering was invariably caused by

the leading character of my questions, and never appeared spontaneously.

The demonstrative pronouns, however, present another striking feature that is not commonly found in the American Indian languages. This feature consists in the fact that some of them occur in two distinct forms, one being used with subjects of the sentence, while the other is applied to objects only. This fact serves as another instance illustrating the extent to which the category of subjectivity and objectivity permeates this language.

The following demonstrative pronouns have been found in Siuslaw:

 $t\bar{a}^a k$ has been invariably rendered by This, and in some instances by HERE. It may be used in connection with subjects and objects alike. Duality and plurality of subjects and objects are indicated by the suffixation of the subjective pronouns $-a^u x$ and -nx respectively (see § 24).

tā^ak penî's this skunk
tā^ak texmū'nî this man
tsī'k!ya hīs te'q tā'kîn lakwa'kūn (a) very good thing this here I have obtained 72.15, 16
L!owa'xan tā'kîn ιīū' as a messenger here I come 17.6, 7
tā^a'kwax qa'tc¹ntūx these two will go 32.10, 11
tā^a'kinx texmū'nî these men

tE applies to subjects and objects. There can be no doubt that it is an abbreviated form of the demonstrative pronoun $t\bar{a}^a k$ (see above). It was usually rendered by this or the. When followed by the subjective pronouns (see § 24), the obscure vowel assumes a clear tinge and appears as a distinct a-vowel.

the fire, this Screech-Owl 86.11, 12

\[\tilde{l}ha'yax te L\tilde{l}ya'a^{\bar{a}}\] it passed (by), this fire 32.19

\[\tilde{l}i'k'^n te ta^i\] this here is my house (literally, here I, this one, live)

\[58.8\]

\[\sigma^z tsa h\tilde{l}'tc^{\sigma}tc n\tilde{l}cc\tilde{l}ma^{\sigma}mu te t!\tilde{l}\] that's why bear acts like a person (literally, thus [of a] person his fashion [has] the bear) 60.26

\[\widetilde{l}u'' nxa^{\bar{a}}n te pen''s she was afraid of this skunk 86.1

\[h\tilde{l}na'y\tilde{u}n te m\tilde{l}'k!a h\tilde{l}tc he took along this bad man 23.2, 3

\[n'' ctcanx tanx y\tilde{a}^{\alpha'}xa^i q\tilde{a}tx why do you cry much (literally, how [is it that] you this, much cry) 94.16, 17

uł meg!ai'tx hai'qmas Līya'wa te łk!anū'ku and she danced near

s^za'tsa tanx sî'nⁱxyūtnɛ that's why this you are wanted 18.4 lakwa'ūltxa^ux ta'tc^wax qī'ūtc ta^ux tsîmî'l'ä qwoa'txa^{īw}ax taken away (were) these their (dual) wives, (namely of) them two, Beaver and Muskrat 52.3, 4

. . . . $ta'nxan\ h\bar{u}tc\bar{u}^{i\prime}$ (as) these we (here) play 70.12

In some instances this pronoun may have a verbal force, and is then best rendered by This who. . . .

s^Ea'tsa lit!ai' te tai'yax thus ate those who lived (there) 82.12

 $s^{E} \hat{a} s$ is used with subjects of transitive verbs only, and seems to have a distinct discriminative character. In this capacity it exercises the function of the missing independent pronoun for the third person (see § 113). It may either precede or follow the verb, although there is a prevailing tendency to place it at the end of the sentence. It may be translated by this or he.

 $ullit lit!a'y\bar{u}n s^{E} as$ and he devours him 94.10

 $m\bar{v}'k!a\ te'q\ xa\bar{u}'\bar{u}n\ s^z\dot{a}s$ bad something this (one) had killed 96.12, 13

 $s^{\underline{r}}$ às $qata'y\bar{u}n$ ants $\iota xa\bar{u}'$ he hooks that spear 64.7 $s^{\underline{r}}a's^{\underline{r}}n^{\underline{t}}$ $k!^{\underline{i}}xa'y\bar{u}ts$ he killed us 28.3

 $s^E \hat{a}$ refers to subjects of both transitive and intransitive verbs. The difference between this pronoun and the above discussed $s^E \hat{a}s$ lies in the strictly discriminative character of the latter. It may best be rendered by this, he, and is mostly employed as a personal pronoun for the third person singular (see § 113). Duality and plurality of the subject are indicated by suffixing to $s^E \hat{a}$ the subjective pronouns $-a^u x$ and -n x respectively (see § 24).

 $s^{E}a$ $texm\bar{u}'n\hat{\imath}$ this man

 $ult tsîm s^{\underline{z}} a ya'q^{\underline{u}}y \bar{u}n$ always he sees it 68.22

 $u\bar{t} s^{\underline{z}} \hat{a} p \underline{e} t \bar{t}' t c^{i} t \bar{u} x$ and that one will be first 10.1

 $s^{\underline{z}}a^{\underline{u}}x$ ata's $L!x\bar{u}'y\bar{u}n$ $l\bar{\imath}'t!a^{\bar{\imath}}$ these two only know (where) food (is) 98.9

 $s^{\underline{x}}$ ànx $ts\bar{t}'k!ya$ $\iota!x\bar{u}'y\bar{u}n$ $h\bar{u}tc\bar{u}'^{u}$ these very (well) know (how to) play 72.1, 2

In four instances this pronoun has been used as referring to objects. I believe this use to be the result of erroneous application on the part of the informant. The examples follow.

s^Eà L!xū'yūn lk!an^uwa'k^u him she knows, Screech-Owl 86.7 s^Eà ^uln qī'ūtc hawa'yūn that one I (will my) wife make 90.1, 2 s^Eà ata's ants ma'q!īnūtnE (for) him only the dance was arranged 28.7

towa'tcīs wàn szà yîktî'l·mä spear now that big (one)! 64.2

 $s^Ea^{i\prime}na$ refers to objects only, and serves as the objective form of the missing personal pronoun for the third person (see § 113). Hence it may be rendered by this, that, him. By adding the subjective suffixes to it (see § 24), the dual and plural persons for this pronoun are obtained.

 $y\bar{a}^{a\prime}xa^i$ $h\bar{\imath}tc$ $p\bar{l}na^{\bar{\imath}}tx$ ha^i $s^{\bar{\imath}}a^{i\prime}na$ many people were sorry for that 15.4

kumî'ntcîn nà nîctcī'te wa'a $\bar{i}t$ pe $\bar{t}i'$ te s $^{\epsilon}a^{i'}$ na not I anything will say first (without) her 74.9

s^za'tsa^ux ^ul kumî'ntc te'q s^za''na^ux that's why they two (cared) nothing about them two 54.11, 12

 $t\bar{u}$, $t\bar{u}'a$, a demonstrative pronoun that may best be rendered by THAT ONE. It denotes subjects and objects alike. A comparison between this pronoun and the previously discussed $s^{E}\dot{a}$ suggests that the initial elements t and s may be petrified prefixes having the function of demonstrative pronouns. This assertion receives further substantiation from the fact that Siuslaw forms, in analogy to $s^{E}\dot{a}s$, a discriminative pronoun $t\bar{u}'as$, and that it has two other demonstrative stems whose initial elements are t- and s- respectively. These pronouns are $t\bar{u}'a^{i}t$ that kind and $s^{E}a^{i}t$ this kind, and they may be explained as being composed of t- $(t\bar{u}$ -)+- $a^{i}t$ and s-+- $a^{i}t$. The function of the second element can not be explained. The t- occurs, furthermore, independently as t_{E} (see p. 580).

The pronoun $t\bar{u}$, $t\bar{u}'a$, occurs also in dual and plural forms, obtained by adding the subjective suffixes $-a^ux$ and -nx (see § 24) to it.

 $t\bar{u}$ $y\bar{u}k!a^{\bar{w}}n\hat{\imath}$ $q\bar{\imath}\bar{u}tc\bar{u}'n\hat{\imath}$ that small(est) woman 88.12 $kum\hat{\imath}'ntc$ $h\bar{\imath}s$ $t\bar{u}$ $texm\bar{u}'n\hat{\imath}$ not good (is) that man 90.23; 92.1 $t\bar{u}'a$ $texm\bar{u}'n\hat{\imath}$ that man qna'nxan $let\bar{u}'y\bar{u}n$ $t\bar{u}'a^ux$ $x\bar{a}'ts!\bar{u}$ we (incl.) are hitting those two $t\bar{u}'anx$ $texm\bar{u}'\bar{n}\hat{\imath}$ those men $let\bar{u}'y\bar{u}ts\hat{\imath}n$ $t\bar{u}'as$ that one is hitting me

 $t\bar{u}'a^it$ that (is the) kind 102.2

kumî'nte hīs nàte te seait Lla'ai not good (is for) me this kind (of a) place 44.4, 5

¹ The s as a demonstrative element has been also found in Alsea.

 $s^{\mathbf{E}}a^{i}t^{\mathbf{E}}$ $L!a'^{ai}$ such (a) world 15.1

 $wa^i y \bar{a}^{a'} x a^i t E \ h \bar{\imath} t c$, $s^E a^i t \bar{u}' \ s \hat{\imath}' n^i x y a$ although many (are) these people, that kind (of a thing every one) likes 102.2, 3

ants is the only pronoun that may be said to contain a locative force. It is invariably used in connection with objects that are away from the speaker, and may be rendered by THAT ONE. It may refer to subject and object, and is used in the singular, dual, and plural, although in most cases duality and plurality are accentuated by suffixing the respective subjective pronouns $-a^u x$ and -nx (see § 24). This pronoun may also have a verbal force, and is then best rendered by THAT ONE WHO..., THOSE WHO.... It always precedes the noun.

hamxaū'nî ants tsehau'ya that tied (up) grass 8.6

sukwī'te tsînq!t ants hīte very poor (was) that person 16.10; 17.1 ants qaix last night (literally, that night) 40.14

 $lk!an^uwa'k^u$ wî'nxa $\bar{u}n$ ants penî's Screech-Owl was afraid of that Skunk 86.5

ants $lqa^{i''}t\bar{u}$ ants $Tsxuna'p\bar{\iota}\bar{\imath}$ $t/\bar{\imath}'t/y\bar{u}n$ that tree on which $Tsxunp\bar{\iota}\bar{\imath}$ (Coyote) was sitting 94.6

xaū'nauxûn ants mī'k!a hītc we two killed that bad person 96.8, 9 lakwa'kūun ants qīūtcū'nî antsux tsînī'ztsînī'z those two otters took away those women 52.16

ants L!a'ai hītc those many people 7.1

ants $p = k \bar{u}'^{wi}$ those who play 70.6, 7

atsī'tc waa'xam ants hītc tca'xa^ūt thus was told that man who was going back 30.13, 14

lk!anū'ku ya'qu'yūn a'ntsux meq!a''tx Screech-Owl watched those two who kept on dancing 86.8

s^Ea'tsa xnī'wnīs a'nts^Enx pukwa'' thus keep on doing those who play shinny 78.17

In a number of instances two demonstrative pronouns are used, following each other in immediate succession. This is done primarily for the sake of emphasis. In such sentences the second demonstrative stem may be rendered by a relative pronoun.

 $ha^{i'}natc\ a^{i'}sxa\ l\bar{\imath}'t'.la^{\bar{\imath}}\ tE\ s^{\bar{\varkappa}}\grave{a}\ q^{u_L}.l\bar{\imath}tc$ that otter is eating a different food (literally, different her, also, food, [of] this here sea-otter) 54.7, 8

uł szà te t!āmcî'sk'în and this here (is) the little boy 94.16

uł waa'xam ants s^Ea qa'tcⁱntūx and was told that man who will go
16.7

kumî'ntcwax sî'nixyūn lī'ū ta'īs ants szà they two don't want to stay near here (literally, not they two, want it, near [to] keep on staying, that one here)

Parallel to these forms are the indefinite, interrogative, and reflexive pronouns. The following have been observed:

wate. It has the function of an interrogative, relative, and indefinite pronoun, and applies to animate beings only. When used in an interrogative sense, it is best rendered by who, while as an indefinite pronoun, it is to be translated by someBody. The interrogative character of this particle can be recognized only by the interrogative tone of the sentence in which it occurs.

```
wâtc<sup>i</sup>tc kō'tan whose horse (is it)?

wàtc xa'lntūx somebody will climb up

watc tɛ'xamtc ha<sup>i</sup> (he) who strong (is) his heart 10.1

wàtc L!xū'yūn Lxatū'wi (he) who knows (the art of) running 78.18
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tE'q is used as an interrogative and indefinite pronoun, and applies to animals and inanimate objects only. It may best be rendered by WHAT or SOMETHING.

```
te'q what (is it)?

ha''mūt te'q everything 9.5

tsī'k!ya hīs te'q (a) very good thing 72.15, 16

kumî'ntcinx te'q you (will be) nothing 13.2

ats te'q waxa'yexayîm when something will be given to him 18.5

"t s\s^2 a'tsa te'q q\n^n uh\vec{u}'y\vec{u}n that's why something he finds
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In a few instances tE'q has been rendered by Relative. This free rendering is perfectly justifiable, because in the instances quoted tE'q implies the idea of Being something to the person spoken to or spoken of.

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na'mɛlīnx tɛ'q you (are) my relative (literally, my something you [are]) 20.6
ts'îmstc tɛ'q ants lqlal'ō'mä her own relative (was) that pelican (literally, her own something) 46.1
```

An objective form of this particle has been found in one instance. $t = t q a^u n a' n t l a' k w \bar{\imath} s \bar{u} n$ something we (incl.) will always get 72.17,18 $t \bar{a} q a^{i'} n a$ is the regular objective form of t = t q, and occurs frequently.

§ 115

 $kumî'ntcxûn t\bar{a}qa''na wî'nx$ not we two (excl.) anything fear 94.17 $s\hat{c}'nx\bar{v}t t\bar{a}qa''na$ he wants something 18.5

 $wa'sL^isyanx\ t\bar{a}qa^{i'}na$ (when) you get mad at anything 36.11, 12 $wa'a^{\bar{i}sE}nx\ t\bar{a}qa^{i'}na$ (when) you will say something 38.4

Another objective form of this particle may be the form $t\bar{a}'qan$, occurring in one single instance.

tā'qan tex teaīteī'te xî'ntmīs why do you want to go anywhere (literally, for something, perhaps, somewhere [you] keep on going) 48.1, 2

tcînt, tcî'nta", serves primarily as an interrogative pronoun, in which case it is rendered by which one? Its scope, however, has been widened, permitting its use as a relative pronoun and in some instances as a numeral adverb. In the latter sense the form tcînt is invariably used. It is then translated by whoever, whatever, or by how much, how many?

 $tell'nta^u n tex l^i kwa' y \bar{u} n$ which one I (wonder) shall I take? 88.20; 90.1

tcî'ntaunx sî'nixyūn which one do you want? 40.4, 5

tcî'ntau nîctcai ants hītc whatever does that man 70.22

tcî'ntau hītc Līwa' whatever person came (here) 24.7

 $tci'nta^u yi'kt^itc...$ whosoever... is big 90.1

tcînt hīte qa'nteya Līwa'wax whatever person from somewhere is going to come 38.10, 11

 $tc\hat{\imath}'nt\bar{\imath}nx\ h\bar{\imath}'q!a$ how many shells have you? (literally, how many thy dentalia shells?)

tcînt kō'tan how many horses?

. . . $tc\hat{\imath}nt\ tsxay\bar{u}'^{wi}$. . . on such a day (literally, [on] whatever [a] day) 7.3

ts'îms has the function of a reflexive pronoun, and is best rendered by (I) myself, (thou) thyself, etc., or, when used with nouns, by (my) own, (thy) own, etc.

ts'îms s^Eatsī'tc cî'nixyat!ya to himself thus he always thinks 88.11 LElū'yūn ts'îms I hit myself

ts'îmste te'q ants $lq!al\cdot\bar{o}'m\ddot{a}$ ants $sq\bar{u}m\bar{a}'$ her own relative that Pelican (is of) that Sea-Gull 46.1, 2

 $L!xma\bar{\imath}'y\bar{u}tsm\hat{\imath}n\ ts'\hat{\imath}ms\ m^u\bar{u}'sk^u$ I killed my own brother

qa'wuntî, qa'wuntīte, imparts the idea of reciprocality, and is best rendered by EACH OTHER, MUTUALLY. The difference between the two parallel forms lies in the fact that the latter has been amplified by means of the modal suffix -īte (see § 94).

uł k!īx te'q skwaha'yūsne qa'wîntī everything was placed on both sides 80.8

qawuntī'tewax wînExna'wa each other they two feared 86.2 $qa'w^unt\hat{i}$ on both sides

The Numeral (§§ 116–117)

§ 116. The Cardinals

1. a	$t^a a$	1	8.	7
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2. $x\bar{a}'ts!\bar{u}$ 30.23

3. $c\bar{\imath}' n^a x$ 62.12

4. $x\bar{a}'ts!\bar{u}n$ 40.23

5. Lxa''pis 72.8

6. qa'tīmx

7. $x\bar{a}'ts!\bar{u} qt\bar{a}'max$

8. $c\bar{\imath}'n^ax qt\bar{a}'max$

9. $a'l^aqxa^ut$

10. $k\bar{\imath}x^{E}s$ 8.1

11. $k\bar{\imath}'x^{E}s^{u}l \alpha'l^{a}q$

12. $k\bar{\imath}'x^{E}s^{u}l x\bar{a}'ts!\bar{u}$

13. $k\bar{\imath}'x^{E_8}$ ut $c\bar{\imath}'n^ax$

16. $k\bar{\imath}'x^{E}s^{u}l qa't\bar{\imath}mx$

17. $k\bar{\imath}'x^{\underline{\imath}}s^{\underline{\imath}}\bar{l}^{\underline{\imath}}x\bar{a}'ts!\bar{u}$ $qt\bar{a}'max$

18. $k\bar{\imath}'x^{E}s^{u}\bar{l} c\bar{\imath}'n^{a}x q\bar{t}\bar{a}'max$

19. kī'xEs ut kumî'ntc ataq qai'nat

20. $x\bar{a}'ts!\bar{u}\ k\bar{\imath}xe'st\hat{\imath}m$

21. xā'ts!ū kīxe'stîm ul alaq

30. $c\bar{\imath}'n^ax k\bar{\imath}xe'st\hat{\imath}m$

40. $x\bar{a}'ts!\bar{u}n k\bar{i}xe'st\hat{i}m$

50. Lxa''p's kīxe'stîm

60. qa'tīmx kīxe'stîm

70. $x\bar{a}'ts!\bar{u}$ $qt\bar{a}'max$ $k\bar{\imath}xe'st\hat{\imath}m$

80. cī'nax qtā'max kīxe'stîm

90. a'laqxa''t qtā'max kīxe'stîm

14. $k\bar{\imath}'x^{E}s^{u}\bar{\imath}kx\bar{a}'ts'\bar{\imath}untc\,a^{i}xw\hat{\imath}'yu$ 100. $k\bar{\imath}'x^{E}s\,k\bar{\imath}xe'st\hat{\imath}m$

15. $k\bar{\imath}'x^{E}s^{u}l \, Lxa^{i'}p^{i}stc \, a^{i}xw\hat{\imath}'yu$ 101. $k\bar{\imath}'x^{E}s \, k\bar{\imath}xe'st\hat{\imath}m^{u}l \, al^{a}q$

By origin the Siuslaw numeral system is probably quinary, although there seem to be only four simple numeral stems; namely, those for one, two, three, and five. The numeral $x\bar{a}'ts/\bar{u}n$ four is to all appearances a plural form of $x\bar{a}'ts/\bar{u}$ two. The numeral qa'tīmx six could not be analyzed. It is not improbable, however, that it may signify one (finger) up, in which event seven could be explained as denoting two (FINGERS) UP, while EIGHT could be rendered by three (fingers) up. In spite of incessant attempts, the numeral for NINE could not be analyzed. Its probable rendering may be suggested as one (LACKING TO) TEN. The numerals for FOURTEEN and FIFTEEN may be translated as by TEN AND FOUR ITS ADDITION and TEN AND FIVE ITS ADDITION respectively. The exact rendering of NINE-TEEN is obscure, while TWENTY evidently denotes TWO TIMES TEN, etc.

Siuslaw does not possess the series of ordinal numerals. These and the numeral adverbs, such as the multiplicative numerals, are expressed idiomatically by means of adverbs or adverbial suffixes. The adverbs pelī'te ahead and lîmnī'te behind (see § 119) are very often used as ordinal numerals for the first two numbers.

penî's pelī'tc "l lk!anū'k" lîmnī'tc Skunk (doctored) first, and Screech-Owl second 86.11

 $s^h a^i t \bar{u}' n \hat{i}$ $p \in l\bar{i}' t c$ $x \hat{i}' n t m a^i s t \bar{u} n$ the biggest one first he took along 92.18

 $Qa'a^itc\bar{\imath}x$ $pel\bar{\imath}'tc$ $\iota\bar{\imath}ha'yax$ te $\iota\bar{\imath}ya'a^{\bar{\imath}}$ along North Fork at first it came, this fire 32.19

Multiplicative numerals are sometimes formed by adding to the cardinals the modal suffix -*ītc* (see § 94).

xāts!ūwī'tcîn yîxa'yūn twice I saw him a'lqa^ītcîn L!xū'yūn qnà once I knew it 92.12

Ordinal numerals in the sense of AT THE FIRST, SECOND, etc., are sometimes formed by suffixing to the cardinals the suffix $-a't\bar{u}$.

 $alqa''t\bar{u}\ tsxay\bar{u}'^{wi}$ on the first day, in one day $x\bar{a}ts!\bar{u}w\bar{a}''t\bar{u}\ tsxay\bar{u}'^{wi}$ on the second day, in two days $x\bar{a}ts!\bar{u}na''t\bar{u}\ tsxay\bar{u}'^{wi}$ on the fourth day, in four days

The suffix for the numeral FIVE appears in a somewhat changed form. Instead of the expected $-a't\bar{u}$, this numeral takes the suffixes $-ta't\bar{u}$, $-tya't\bar{u}$. The suggestion may be offered that the inital t- of these suffixes is the adjectival suffix -t (see § 104), and the $-a't\bar{u}$ the regular modal suffix. Of course, this does not explain the occurrence of the semi-vowel y in $-tya't\bar{u}$.

t!āmcīns tcī'ntūx Lxaipîstā''tū tsxayū'wi our (dual, incl.) boys will return in five days 42.7

*Lxa*ⁱ*p*ⁱstya''tū ^u^l wan tcīⁱn hītsî'stc on the fifth day he finally came home 72.9

 $tc\bar{t}'nt\bar{u}x$ $Lxa^ip\hat{i}stya'$ 'tu $tsxay\bar{u}'^{wi}$ he will come back in five days 40.25, 26

Two stems, $k!^{i}x$ and $hai'm\bar{u}t$, are used as definite numerals. The former is best rendered by EACH, EVERY; while the latter, to all appearances an adjective in -t (see § 104), is best translated by ALL.

k!īx tE'q everything 24.4

texmū'nîtewax ants t'āme k'ix they two had each a boy (literally, males their two, those boys, each) 40.19

ha'mūt ma'lte't ants tîmna''q all elks got burned 34.18, 19 ha'mūt qa'te'nt sqa'kte'te all go there 23.6

§ 117. The Decimal System

The units exceeding multiples of ten are expressed by forms whose exact rendering would be ten (twenty) and one (two) as, for instance, $k\bar{\imath}'x^{z}s^{u}l$ $a'l^{u}q$ ten and one, etc. The "tens" are formed by means of

the suffix -tîm, that is added to the cardinal numerals for TEN. The numeral thus amplified is preceded by the cardinals from two to TEN (inclusive). Thus TWENTY, literally translated, means TWO TIMES TEN, THIRTY signifies THREE TIMES TEN, and ONE HUNDRED denotes TEN TIMES TEN. The numeral for THOUSAND was, naturally enough, never used. The informant invariably gave the English equivalent for it.

The Adverb (§§ 118-121)

§ 118. Introductory

Siuslaw has, comparatively speaking, a small number of adverbial stems. These express ideas of a local, temporal, and modal character. A few of them are compounds,—that is to say, they consist of two or more adverbs that occur independently also,—while others occur with the adverbial suffixes whose function is always in harmony with the ideas expressed by the bare stem. Thus a few adverbs indicating local ideas appear with the local suffix -tc (see § 90), while most of the modal adverbs take the suffixes of modality -vtc or -a (see § 94 and 96).

It is quite conceivable that the final k in the local adverbs $t\bar{\imath}k$, $st\bar{\imath}mk$, and $sqa^{\bar{\imath}}k$, may imply some local idea, especially in view of the fact that both $st\bar{\imath}m$ and $st\bar{\imath}mk$ occur.

A very important law applying to local adverbs (and phrases) is the fact that, whenever they are used in connection with nouns, the nouns invariably take the locative case-endings (see § 86).

§ 119. Local Adverbs and Phrases

 $a'mha^itx$ in the middle ha^iq ashore 44.7 $ha^{i\prime}qmas$ alongside, near 25.4 $ha^uw\bar{\imath}'s$ beyond $pzl\bar{\imath}'tc$ ahead, first 32.19 $m^zy\bar{o}^zk^us$ in the beginning 82.11 $t\bar{\imath}\bar{u}'ts^1$ here 17.3 $t\bar{\imath}k$, $ta^{\bar{\imath}}k$ here 56.5, 19

 $t\bar{u}t\bar{t}'m$ there 72.3 $t\bar{u}qa'tm\epsilon$ over there, across $t\bar{u}qya'a^{\bar{u}^2}$ up-stream 32.22 $qa't\bar{t}tc^3$ across the river, opposite 80.16 $q\bar{a}'tk\hat{\iota}$ from here 60.4 $qa'xantc^4$ under, down, below 8.10 $qa'x\hat{u}n$, $qa''x\hat{u}n^5$ high up, above, on 8.7; 34.21

¹ Probably related to the Coos $t\bar{\imath}u$ over there.

² Alsea to'qwī.

³Coos qa'tîtc DOWN THE STREAM.

⁴ Related to Alsea qē'xan UNDER, BELOW.

⁵ Coos qaxan- UP.

 $qa^{u}x^{1}$ on top 76.14 $qa^{i}u'tc^{2}$ below, down the stream 62.17, 18 $qa^{i}wa'a^{\bar{u}}$ below, down stream 80.6 $tqa^{u}w\bar{u}'$, $tqa^{u'}w\bar{\imath}tc$ up-stream 56.8, 12 $st\bar{\imath}m$, $st\bar{\imath}mk$ there 30.23; 32.12 $sq\bar{\imath}'tem$ from there 34.3 $sqa^{i}k$, $sq\bar{\imath}k$ there 14.6 qaihā'n 56.8,qaiha'nte far 10.3;56.5 qan, qanîstcī'te down, below 12.6 qō'xum off shore, out in the water 34.6 qtsī inside lîmnī'te behind, after, second 86.11 lnū outside 38.23 tī'ū near (used also as a verb in the sense to come, to approach)

§ 120. Temporal Adverbs

40.12

ats³ at that time, when 16.8 a''lal then, afterwards 34.3 hī'nak!' right away 20.1 wā'nwîts long ago, already 14.7 wī'yū still, yet yā'tsa a long time 11.3 ta'lūts after a while 50.2 tū awhile

tsā'nxaits yesterday
tsîm always 15.5
ts'ū'xtīts early in the morning 40.9
tcī'kyac L!a'ai sometimes 100.7
kūiyā'tsac L!a'ai after a while,
soon 7.7
k!isā't today 38.16
k!i'zū's tomorrow 60.2
tnāt always 13.3

Lî'mqa quick, right away 19.6

§ 121. Modal Adverbs

a'tsa, $ats\bar{\imath}'tc$ thus 15.5; 11.2 $h\bar{\imath}'catca$ a little $y\bar{a}^{a'}xa^{i}$ much, many 8.5 yux^{u} too much 12.2 $t\hat{\imath}'mwa$ together 40.18 $n\hat{\imath}ctcama^{i'}nat^{i}E$ differently 9.3, 4

s^Ea'tsa, s^Eatsī'tc thus 8.2, 7 s^Ukwī'tc very, very much 16.10 cî'ntcata in a circle tsī'k!ya very, very much 13.9 xyal'x, kū^I xyal'x almost, very nearly 11.1; 10.9, 11.1

Particles (§§ 122-133)

§ 122. Introductory

Siuslaw has a great number of particles which serve to define more elearly a certain part of speech or even a whole sentence. Their

¹ Alsea qaux HIGH.

²Possibly related to Coos qaya'atc DOWN THE STREAM.

⁸See 8 136

⁴ A compound adverb consisting of the negation $k\bar{u}^i$ Not, the adverb $y\bar{u}'tsa$ A long time, amplified by the obscure suffix -c, and of the stem $L!a'a^i$ (see § 133).

⁵By prefixing to this adverb the demonstrative pronoun *ants*, Siuslaw forms a compound adverb $ants\ kl^{E}/L\tilde{u}$, which is best rendered by YESTERDAY.

⁶ See § 125.

meaning was deduced mostly from the sense of the sentence in which they occurred. These stems are either monosyllabic (in which case they may be enclitic or proclitic) or they consist of two or more syllables. A limited number seems to be composed of two or more originally independent particles. As a rule, particles are not capable of word-formation—that is to say, they can not be amplified by means of any of the grammatical processes, such as prefixation, suffixation, etc. But owing to the fact that Siuslaw shows a tendency to keep the verbal stem free from all subjective suffixes, these suffixes are preferably added to the particles that precede the verb (see § 26). Some of these particles seem to be in reality verbal stems, but do not convey a clear verbal idea unless used in conjunction with a proper verbal suffix (see § 135).

In accordance with their syntactic function, the particles may be conveniently subdivided into the following categories:

- (1) Pronominal particles.
- (2) Numeral particles.
- (3) Conjunctions.
- (4) Temporal particles.
- (5) Particles denoting degrees of certainty.
- (6) Particles indicating connection with previously expressed ideas.
- (7) Exhortative particles.
- (8) Restrictive particles.
- (9) Miscellaneous particles.
- (10) Suffixed particle $-\bar{u}$ ($-a^{\bar{u}}$).
- (11) The stem $L!a'^{ai}$.

§ 123. Pronominal Particles

The pronominal forms treated in § 115 are used sometimes without formative prefixes, and appear then like true particles. The following are particularly used in this manner:

 $t\bar{a}^a k$ this, here te this $t\bar{u}$ that e ants that one e wate who, some one

te'q what, something
tcînt, tcî'nta" which one, whoever, whatever, how much,
how many
ts'îms (reflexive) self
qa'w"ntî mutually

BOAS

Related to $tc\hat{\imath}nt$ are the particles $tc\bar{\imath}k$ where, and $tc\bar{a}$, $tca\bar{\imath}tc\bar{\imath}'tc$ where to.

 $tc\bar{\imath}k$, a local particle denoting REST. It may be used indicatively and in an interrogatory sense. It is best rendered by WHERE.

 $tc\bar{\iota}k$ $s^{\underline{\imath}}a^{i}na'ml$ $k\bar{o}'tan$ where is his horse ? $tc\bar{\iota}k$ $qn\bar{u}h\bar{u}'y\bar{u}n$ $h\bar{\iota}tc$ where (ever) he finds a person 94.9, 10 $k\bar{u}^{i}$ $tc\bar{\iota}k$ nowhere 56.11 $tc\bar{\iota}k$ ants $k!\bar{a}lat\bar{u}'^{u}$ where that fun (is) 88.2

 $tc\bar{\iota}k$ ants yîktî'l'm
ä $lqa^{i\prime\prime}t\bar{u}$ where that big log (is) 88.17, 18

 $tc\bar{a}$, $tca\bar{\imath}tc\bar{\imath}'tc$, a local particle indicating motion. It is used in an interrogative and indicative significance, and is best rendered by where (to). The form $tca\bar{\imath}tc\bar{\imath}'tc$ may be explained as caused by the double suffixation of the adverbial suffix $-\bar{\imath}tc$ (see §§ 90, 94). Such double adding of a suffix occurs in only one other instance; namely, in the case of the nominal suffix -ax (see § 101).

kumî'ntc tcā yax nowhere (anything to) see 34.4 kumî'ntcxûn qaiha'ntc tcā nî'ctcīs not we two (excl.) far somewhere will go 56.2

. . . $tc\bar{a}n\ tE\ L\bar{\imath}\bar{u}'$. . . where this I arrived 66.19 $tca\bar{\imath}tc\bar{\imath}'tc\ L\bar{o}^cL\ n\bar{\imath}'ct\bar{u}x$ (I) wonder where he will go 64.20 $tca\bar{\imath}tc\bar{\imath}'tc\ qa'tc^intyax$ he went somewhere

§ 124. Numeral Particles

Here belong the following stems: $y\bar{a}^{a'}xa^i$ many (see also § 12), te'mxut, ts''nexma, $ts''n\bar{u}xt$ half, and $k^{E}a^{\bar{i}}t$ how many. The particles serving as fractional numerals invariably follow the noun they define, while the two other numeral particles may either precede or follow it.

 $y\hat{i}xa'y\bar{u}n\ y\bar{a}^{a'}xa^i\ h\bar{i}tc$ I saw many people $te'mxut\ t\bar{a}'la$ half a dollar

 $h\bar{\imath}'tc^{x}tc$ $ts\hat{\imath}'n$ exma ants $t.'\bar{\imath}$ that bear is half a person (literally [a] person [is] his [one] half, that bear) 60.16

hīte tsî'nīxt ants t!ī half human (is) that bear 60.22

These forms might also be considered as adjectives. It will be noted that most of them end in the adjectival suffix -t (see § 104).

§ 125. Conjunctions

Only three particles were found that may be properly said to have the function of our conjunctions. These particles are $a'l'd\bar{u}$, $a^{i'}sxa$, and ul.

 $a'l\cdot d\bar{u}$ refers to nouns only, and its function is of an inclusive character, indicating that the defined noun is included in the action. It always follows the noun and is best rendered by LIKEWISE. It is frequently used as a verb (see § 135).

 ${}^{u}l \ t/\bar{\imath} \ a'l\cdot d\bar{u} \ ma'ltc^it$ Bear likewise got burned 34.16 $h\bar{\imath}'q^u \ a'l\cdot d\bar{u} \ m\hat{\imath}'ltc\hat{\imath}st$ Wild-Cat likewise burned 34.17 $ya^{u'}xa^{u}x \ a'l\cdot d\bar{u} \ l^it/a'y\bar{u}n$ fern-roots they two likewise eat 98.15 $qa^{i'}x^{\underline{\nu}}nx \ a'l\cdot d\bar{u} \ ya'q^uh\bar{\imath}t\bar{u}x$ at night you likewise shall watch 70.18,

 $a_i'sxa$ serves the same purpose as the preceding $a'l'd\bar{u}$, but may either precede or follow the noun to which it refers. It is best rendered by ALSO, TOO.

 $a'l^aq$ $texm\bar{u}'n\hat{\imath}$ ul $a'l^aq$ $q\bar{\imath}\bar{u}tc\bar{u}'n\hat{\imath}$ ul a''sxa $sqa^{\bar{\imath}}ktc\bar{\imath}'tc$ $qa'tc^int\bar{u}x$ one man and one woman too will go there 30.21, 22

 $ha^{i\prime}natc~a^{i\prime}sxa~l\bar{\imath}'t'.a^{\bar{\imath}}$ her food belonged to some one else (literally, different her, also, food) 54.7

"I has various functions. Its chief function is that of a copula between nouns and sentences, and in that case is best rendered by AND. Its position is free, although it tends to follow the noun and to precede the verb.

 $a't^aq t = xm\bar{u}'n\hat{\imath} u^l a't^aq q\bar{\imath}\bar{u}tc\bar{u}'n\hat{\imath}$ one man and one woman 30.21, 22 $m\hat{\imath}ta'a^{\bar{\imath}}t\hat{\imath}n u^l m\hat{\imath}ta'a^{\bar{\imath}}t\hat{\imath}n$ my father and my mother

peni's peli'tc ul $lk!an\bar{u}'k^u$ $l\hat{n}mn\bar{i}'tc$ Skunk (doctored) first, and Screech-Owl second 86.11

 $s^{\underline{r}}ats\overline{\imath}'tc$ waa', ${}^{u}l$ $h\overline{\imath}'q/a^{\overline{\imath}}t$ thus he said and started 22.5, 6 ta^{i} ${}^{u}l$ $l^{i}t/a^{i'}$ he sits and eats

It serves, furthermore, to introduce a new idea, in which case its functional character may best be compared to that of our syntactic period. Its exact rendering is a rather difficult matter, unless the arbitrary then be excepted.

L!xū'yūn mī'k!a tsī'k!ya. L!xū'yūn hī'sa tk!an²wa'k² ants penî's. Łna²'wi hītc²t tqaqa²'txa²n pena's she knew him (to be) very bad. Screech-Owl knew that Skunk very well. At a rich man Skunk was breaking his wind 86.5, 6, 7

s^zatsī'tc waa' ants lk!anū'k^u. Ants plna'st ^ul cî'nixyat!ya āqa'wax. ^ul s^zatsī'tc waa' ants lk!anū'k^u. Thus said that Screech-Owl. Then that sick man thought of running away. Then thus said that Screech-Owl 86.14, 15, 16

Finally, it may denote a connection with a previously expressed idea, especially when used in conjunction with the particle wa^i (see § 128).

wa[†] yîkt ants hītsī'[†], [‡]tā'qnîs hītū'stc although big (is) that house, still (it is) full (of) people 25.2, 3

waⁱ teī'wa maj^ate ants lqaⁱ''tū, ^ul mîlteaⁱ 'although in the water lay those logs, nevertheless (they) began to burn 32.22

wał yāa'xai hīte, ul hai'mūt sāàs lit!a'yūn although many (were) the people, still he devoured (them) all 94.10, 11

This subordinate function, as it were, is particularly brought out when ul is followed or preceded by the modal adverb a'tsa, $s^{\underline{s}}a'tsa$ thus (see § 121). This phrase is invariably rendered by that is why.

a'tsa ut wàn temū'tx hītcū'u that is why now people assemble 15.5,6 a'tsan ut kumî'ntc sî'nixyūn that is why I don't want it 15.8 sɛa'tsa ut kumî'ntc nī'k!a xî'ntmīt hītc that was why not alone traveled a person 94.11

 $u\bar{t}$ $s^{\underline{\nu}}a'tsa$ $u\bar{t}$ $haya'm\bar{u}t$ $h^{i}yatc$ $L!x\bar{u}'y\bar{u}n$ and this is why all people know it

§ 126. Temporal Particles

While Siuslaw employs distinct suffixes for the purpose of expressing the different tenses in the verb, it has a few particles that are used to define more clearly the time, duration, or occurrence of a certain action. These are used mostly in conjunction with the proper temporal suffixes. The following particles serve this purpose:

 $\bar{a}L$ denotes commencement of an action, and has been rendered rather freely by NOW.

 $\bar{a}' \tan l\bar{\imath}t'a'wax$ now I commence to eat $\bar{a}\iota s\bar{\imath}\iota a'wax$ now he commences to swim ${}^{u}l^{E}nx \ \bar{a}\iota \ h\bar{u}tea'te$ now they began to play 72.23, 24

wàn indicates finality, completion of action. It either precedes or follows the verb. The informant invariably rendered it by NOW, THEN, but the most proper rendering would be FINALLY.

 ^{u}t wàn $tc\bar{\imath}^i$ n he finally returned 68.12 $\bar{a}qa'qa^ux$ wàn they two finally ran away 92.5 wàn $sm\bar{u}t'a't'$ finally it ends 9.1 $sqa^{\bar{\imath}}k$ wàn $hawa^{i'}$ there finally it ends 14.6

wa', waha', expresses repetition of action, and is best rendered by AGAIN. It rarely occurs as an independent particle, being mostly used as a verb (see § 135). The explanation for the occurrence of the double form has been given in § 3.

qa'tcⁱnt ants hītc waha' that man went again 19.5 k!înk'ya'waxan waha'wax I will look again 56.20 ul wàn waha'ha^an qa'msk^utc finally again (said) to him his younger brother 56.20, 21

"ln kumî'nte xwī' $L!t\bar{u}x$ wa' $t\bar{u}x$ I will not go back again 46.8 waha' xalna' ants $ya^{\epsilon}k^{u}s$ again climb up those seals 62.10

tīyax- indicates short duration of action. It always occurs in verbal form (see § 135), and is best rendered by A WHILE.

\$\lambda 'yaxem qa'q^{u'}nem!\$ listen a while!
\$\lambda 'yax^axyaxan a^{u'}s\hat{s}syax\$ I slept a while
\$\lambda iyaxa'waxan a^{u}sa'wax\$ I intend to sleep a while 27.5, 6

§ 127. Particles Denoting Degrees of Certainty and Emotional States

a'ck!ali indicates a supposition on the part of the speaker, and is best rendered by PERHAPS, (I) THOUGHT. It consists of two etymologically obscure stems, a'ck!a and li. The subjective pronouns, when added to this particle, are always suffixed to the initial element, and never to li. It is invariably placed at the beginning of the sentence.

a'ck!anl lî xaū' (I) thought you (had) died 68.14, 15 a'ck!alî atsī'tc xwīL!a'wax ants t!ā'mcīns (I) thought thus were going to return our (dual, incl.) boys 42.9, 10 a'ck!alî qa'tcint he went (away) perhaps

ha'nhan emphasizes a statement as having actually occurred. Hence it is rendered by INDEED, TO BE SURE. It precedes the verb.

**u\u00e4 w\u00e4n ha'nhan s\u00e4atsa'tx h\u00e4tc\u00fcu'\u00e4 now, indeed, thus people play 7.4
**u\u00e4 w\u00e4n ha'nhan \u00e1\u00e4\u00e4u'\u00e4wanx h\u00e4ts\u00e4'stc finally, sure enough, they were coming to different houses 30.6

hank! "KIND OF," LIKE, has a double function. When used with verbs, it implies that the action is not intimately known to the speaker. When referring to nouns (objects), it expresses a comparison between the defined noun and one already known to the speaker. It always precedes the noun or verb.

hank! tcīktc ha¹ he is in a way glad (literally, "kind of" somewhere his mind?) 70.15
hank! wî'nx¹tx ha¹ he is rather afraid

hank! hī'tc^Etc nîctcîma^emū tE qwo'txa^ī the beaver acts like a person (literally, like a person his actions [of] this beaver) 54.11 hank! hītc (he is) like (an) Indian 102.5

tex (I) wonder, suppose (if), (I) don't know. This particle has a dubitative character, expressing doubt on the part of the speaker as to the possibility or advisability of a certain action. It may refer to any part of the sentence, but must always precede the verb.

 $tc\hat{\imath}'nta^un\ tex\ l^ikwa'y\bar{u}n\ I$ wonder which one (shall) I take 88.20; 90.1

 $n\hat{i}'ctc\bar{i}$ tex $x\hat{i}'ntm\bar{i}s$ $h\bar{i}tc$ (I) wonder how (a) person (can) keep on traveling

nî'ctcan tex nîctca'wax (I doubt whether we) shall accomplish (anything) 60.9

nî'ctcant tex xawa'ūn (I) wonder how we (incl.) can kill him 15.7

kîl. This particle occurs in the texts only once; but, judging from the examples obtained in conversation, it seems to express agreeable surprise.

 $h\bar{\imath}^{i\prime}san\,k\hat{\imath}l\,wan\,waa'y\bar{u}ts$ well he told me (I was agreea
bıy surprised) 46.18

tai kît wàn he is here (literally, he stays, surprise)

k (I) MAY, PERHAPS. This is a dubitative particle, occurring also in Coos, and denoting possibility of action. Owing to its dubitative character, it has often an interrogative significance.

nī'ctca ku what is the matter? (literally, how, perhaps . . .) 90.12 k!înk'ya'waxan tqauwī'tc ku waha'wax I may look again up-stream 56.20

 $n\bar{\imath}'ctxan\ k^u\ a'nts\hat{\imath}n\ m\bar{a}t!\bar{\imath}'\ tE\ k\bar{u}^i\ tc\bar{\imath}'n\bar{\imath}l$ what may (be the cause that) that my elder brother, this here, not comes back? 58.11, 12 $l^ikwa'y\bar{u}nanx\ k^u\ tt'\bar{\imath}'a^{\bar{\imath}}$ you may get salmon 48.18

 $k^u n \partial_t$, a compound particle, consisting of the preceding one and of the particle of interrogation $n \partial_t$ (see § 131). Its significance is dubitative, and it may be rendered by IT SEEMS, PERHAPS, MAYBE, (I) GUESS. Its position is freely movable.

wàn $k^u n a t \bar{a}' k \hat{i} n s^z a t \bar{s} i' t c a^u s \hat{i}' s$ now it seems, this I thus dream 70.1 $y \bar{a}^a' x a^i t t^j \bar{i}' a^{\bar{i}} t q a^u w \bar{i}' k^u n a$ much salmon may be up-stream 56.8

 $s^{\underline{r}}$ às $k^{\underline{u}}$ nà $c^{\underline{u}}x\bar{u}'y\bar{u}n$ he, I guess, drove it away 56.11 $takwa'k\bar{u}^{\underline{u}}n$ $k^{\underline{u}}$ nà he took him (away), perhaps 58.14 $tum\hat{v}'$ ntc tunà $s^{\underline{r}}$ ats \bar{v}' tc not thus (it is), I guess 21.10

xī has the same function as the previously discussed hank! (see p. 594). It may best be rendered by (it) looks like, as if.

 $x\bar{a}'ts/\bar{u}$ $x\bar{\imath}$ $h\bar{\imath}tc$ te $k\hat{\imath}'nna$ (it) looks as if two people here were talking $plna^{\bar{\imath}}tx$ $x\bar{\imath}$ (it) looks as if he were sick $tqa\iota a^{\bar{\imath}'}txan$ $x\bar{\imath}$ I feel rather warm

 $L\bar{o}^{\varepsilon}L$ (I) wonder, (I) don't know. It either precedes or else follows the verb.

 $tca\bar{\imath}tc\bar{\imath}'tc \ L\bar{\imath}^{\varepsilon}L \ n\bar{\imath}'ct\bar{u}x$ (I) wonder where (he will) go 64.20 $tc\bar{a} \ L\bar{\imath}^{\varepsilon}L \ L\bar{\imath}'\bar{u}t\bar{u}x$ (I) wonder where he will stop (arrive) 64.24 $plna^{i'} \ L\bar{\imath}^{\varepsilon}L$ (I) wonder whether he is sick

§ 128. Particles Denoting Connection with Previously Expressed Ideas

Siuslaw has only two particles that serve this purpose. These are $n\hat{v}'ctc\hat{v}m$ and wa^{i} .

nî'ctcîm indicates causality, and is best rendered by BECAUSE.

- . . . $n\hat{v}'ctc\hat{v}m$ $sqa^{\bar{\imath}}k$ $L\bar{v}'wat.'\bar{\imath}$. . . because there he frequently came 68.4, 5
- . . . $n\hat{n}'ctc\hat{n}m s^{E}\dot{a}s \ k'^{i}xa'y\bar{u}n \ tE \ h\bar{v}tc$. . . because he made disappear these people 18.8
- . . . $n\hat{\imath}'ctc\hat{\imath}m\hat{\imath}n \ meq!ya'wax$. . . because I intend to dance 72.12 . . . $n\hat{\imath}'ct\hat{\imath}m^{\underline{\nu}}nx \ nam^{\underline{\nu}}l \ te^{\underline{\imath}}q$. . . because you are my relative 21.5

 wa^i is best rendered by ALTHOUGH, EVEN, IN SPITE OF. It may refer to the sentence as a whole or to any of its parts. The complex of ideas dependent upon wa^i is invariably introduced by the conjunction ul (see § 125).

cuqwa'an hawa'yūn, wa' cā'yatc he passes it as roast, although his penis [it was] (literally, roast he makes it) 90.13

nî'ctcîm sqaīk tī'wat!ī, wa' yā'tsa, because there he frequently came every time (literally, because there he came frequently, even for a long time) 68.4, 5

wał mī'k!aū L!aya' ul Lxata' even on a bad place he runs 14.1 wał yîkt ants hītsī'i ul tā'qnîs hītū'ste although big (was) that house, nevertheless full (it was of) people 25.2, 3 wai qaix, ut xînt in spite of (the fact that it was) night, (they) kept on going 64.24

 $wa^{3} t_{E} q m\bar{\imath}'k/a ul t^{i}t!a'y\bar{u}n s^{E}as$ even (if it is) something bad still she eats it 44.20

§ 129. Exhortative Particles

qaⁱl expresses a polite command addressed to the first and third persons. It is hence employed in the formation of the exhortative mode. The verb usually occurs with exhortative suffixes (see §§ 41, 48, 63, 64), although instances of idiomatic expressions are not lacking where these suffixes have been omitted (see § 139). This particle is best rendered by LET (ME, HIM, US, etc.).

 $qa^{i}t$ $qatc^{i}n\bar{i}'xm\hat{i}$ let him go! $qa^{i}ta^{u}x takw\bar{i}'n\bar{i}$ let them two seize (them)! 52.12, 13 $qa^{i}tn x\bar{a}_{L}t'i'tsm_{E} h\bar{i}ts\bar{i}'i$ let me fix his house! $qa^{i}twan a^{u}st\bar{u}x$ let him sleep now! 27.8

 $tc\bar{u}$ serves to emphasize the imperative and exhortative modes. It invariably follows the verb, which must occur in either of these two forms. It can not be translated easily. In some instances the informant rendered it by TRY TO.

qaqū''nem tcū listen now!

tī't!emans tcū let us (incl. dual) eat!
qa'txem tcū cry!

awsem tcū try to sleep!

temà' indicates a polite command addressed to any person. The informant rendered it by it is better to. . . Although it usually followed verbs having imperative suffixes, I was able to obtain examples showing the use of this particle in conjunction with verbal expressions of a non-imperative character.

qwa' nyūx temà 'Laaya' to better pour it into his mouth! 29.2 a^w sem temà (you had) better sleep! temà wa' tūx it is better (that) he should talk

ak"ha'n is apparently a compound particle, whose component elements can no longer be analyzed. It has an emphatic character, implying that a certain command addressed to the second person must be obeyed. It is best rendered by MUST, NECESSARILY.

 $l\bar{\imath}'t'$! Em $ak^uha'n$ you must eat! $L!w\bar{u}'n\bar{\imath}s$ $ak^uha'n$ you must tell him! $L!\bar{\imath}'l\bar{\imath}s$ $ak^uha'n$ you must hit him!

§ 130. Restrictive Particles

ata's limits the action to only one object, and is to be rendered by only, merely. It usually follows the restricted object.

lqa'qaⁱnx ata's your wind only (is sick) 86.16, 17

pā'l'ū ata's qatcū'txaūtnE from (one) well only it is being drunk

(plural) 76.12

sqaīk wàn ata's hawai' only there now it ends 29.7

 s^{E} às ata's $L/x\bar{u}'y\bar{u}n$ he only knows it 44.8

 $ha^{i\prime}ts\overline{\imath}$ has a restrictive function, and is best rendered by NOTHING BUT.

 $h\bar{\imath}q!aha^{\bar{\imath}\prime}n\hat{\imath}$ ants $xu'nha^i$ $ha^{i'}ts\bar{\imath}$ nothing but dentalia shells these (people) bet 78.14

 $ha^{i'}ts\bar{\imath}n \ k\bar{\imath}'tan \ y\hat{\imath}xa'y\bar{u}n$ nothing but horses I saw

 $tx\bar{u}$ MERELY, ONLY, JUST. It refers mostly to the verb, and may either precede or follow it.

kumî'nte txū qūūteūnya't hūte not for nothing a person gets a wife (literally, not just a woman has [gets a] person) 74.1

§ 131. Miscellaneous Particles

 $k\bar{u}^i$, $kum\hat{\imath}'nte$, no, not. These are two etymologically related stems that are used as particles of negation. The final te in $kum\hat{\imath}'nte$ is the adverbial suffix (see §§ 23, 94)

 $k\bar{u}^i$ $c\hat{c}'l$ $i\bar{v}$ he did not move 27.2, 3 $k\bar{u}^i$ $n\hat{c}'ctca$ $n\bar{v}'ctc\bar{u}tn_E$ nothing could be done to him 94.12, 13 $k\bar{u}^i y\bar{a}'tsac_L!a'^{ai}$ not long then . . . 7.7 $kum\hat{c}'ntc$ $h\bar{v}'sa$ not good (it is) 12.2 $kum\hat{c}'ntc$ $l\bar{v}'tan$ ants $k\bar{c}'tan$ not food had the horses 34.10

When followed by the subjective pronouns (see § 24), $k\bar{u}^i$ is contracted into $kw\bar{\imath}$. This contraction is not based on any distinct phonetic law, but is the result of rapidity of speech.

 $kw\bar{\imath}'ya^ux\ ya'xa^{\bar{\imath}}l\ m\hat{\imath}'ck'la^{\bar{\imath}}$ not he saw their (dual) vulvas 90.3 $kw\bar{\imath}nx\ y\bar{a}'tsa\ s^xa'ts^xyax$ not they long (did) thus 11.3, 4

§§ 130-131

In certain cases the negated verb takes, beside the negative particle, the distinct suffix of negation -il (see § 53).

 $ha^{\overline{u}}$, $h\bar{a}'n\hat{\imath}k$, YES, ALL RIGHT, are used as particles of affirmation.

 $ha^{\bar{u}}$ yes, all right 21.8

 $h\bar{a}'n\hat{\imath}k$ yes

 $ha^{\bar{u}}$ $L\hat{v}'mqan$ $tc\bar{v}'nt\bar{u}x$ all right, I'll come back right away 56.21, 22 $ha^{\bar{u}}$ wa'nxan $hatc'a'^w\bar{u}n$ yes, now we (excl.) shall ask her 74.12

 $n\grave{\alpha}$ serves as a particle of interrogation, and refers to the sentence as a whole. Its phonetic similarity to the independent personal pronoun for the first person singular (see § 24) is merely accidental.

nîcteī'teîn tex nà wa'aⁱs I wonder what shall I say? 74.7 plnaⁱ nà is he sick? pākwa'wanx nà are you going to play shinny?

 $a^{\overline{u}}$, $h\overline{e}$, have an exclamatory character, and may be called interjections.

 $a^{\bar{u}}$, $n\hat{\imath}ctc\bar{\imath}'tc$ pla^an $n\hat{\alpha}$ waha' what! is he sick again? $h\bar{e}$, $kum\hat{\imath}'ntc$ $h\bar{\imath}'isa$ $n\bar{\imath}'x^atc$ Hey! it (does) not (look) well on you 13.5

 $ka't\bar{\imath}$, $kat\bar{\imath}'xt\hat{\imath}$, an emphatic particle. It never occurs alone, being always preceded by the negation $k\bar{u}^i$, $kum\hat{\imath}'ntc$ (see p. 598), and is then best rendered by NOT AT ALL.

 $kum\hat{\imath}'ntc\ kat\bar{\imath}'\ xa^{u'}w\bar{\imath}l$ not at all he came out (from water) 64.7, 8 $k\bar{u}^i\ kat\bar{\imath}'xt\hat{\imath}\ L!xma^i\ ants\ ya^\epsilon k^us$ he did not entirely kill that seal 64.12, 13

 $k\bar{u}^i kat\bar{v}'xt\hat{\imath} xa^{u'}w\bar{\imath}\bar{t}$ not again he floated up 64.16, 17

 $m\hat{\imath}ntc$, a temporal particle indicating time in general. It is rendered by WHEN, SOMETIMES. The final tc is the adverbial suffix par excellence (see § 23).

mîntc L!aya' some time mîntc $L\bar{o}^{\epsilon}L$ $L\bar{\iota}'\bar{u}t\bar{u}x$ (I) wonder when he will arrive mî'ntcinx $tca'xa\bar{u}tyax$ when did you go home?

tsan, ants, $k\bar{u}^i$ nats. These three particles are etymologically related. The last one is composed of the particle of negation $k\bar{u}^i$ not and of nats. The forms ants and nats resulted from the law of consonantic metathesis (see § 13); ants is easily confused with the demonstrative pronoun of similar phonetic structure (see § 115).

These particles serve to introduce conditional clauses, and are best rendered by IF, SINCE. $k\bar{u}^i$ n ats is rendered by IF NOT (see also § 136).

 $tsa'ntc\hat{\imath} t\bar{u}'ha s\hat{\imath}'n^ixy\bar{u}n$. . . if you want to buy her . . . 74.8 $tsa'ntc\hat{\imath} s\hat{\imath}'n^ixyaxa^{\bar{u}}n$, ${}^u\bar{\imath}tc\hat{\imath} hatc'a'y\bar{u}n$ since you want her, (go and) ask her 74.10, 11

yāa'xai hītc temuwai' sqaīk, ants haiqai' ants hamī'tcī many people assembled there, when (if) those whales come ashore 82.21, 22... ants ikwa'myax ants înq!a'aī when (ice) closed up that river 78.3

Whenever the subordinate clause is introduced by the negative $k\bar{u}^i$ n ats, the co-ordinate sentence that follows must be preceded by the particle n ats.

 $k\bar{u}^i$ nàts $x\bar{a}'wa^axa^{\bar{u}}tn_E$, "t nàts $ts\bar{\iota}'k'/ya$ $m\bar{\iota}'k'/a$ $L'a'^{ai}$ if he had not been killed, it would have been a very bad country 29.7, 8 $k\bar{u}^i$ nàts $L\bar{\iota}'\bar{u}yax$, "ln nàts $nakwa'yat\bar{\iota}t\bar{\iota}$ ha' if he had not come, I

should have been sorry

 $n\hat{\imath}'ctca$, $n\bar{\imath}'ctca$, $n\bar{\imath}ctx$. These three forms are undoubtedly etymologically related. Their primary function can not be easily defined, owing to the fact that they are used for the purpose of expressing grammatical concepts of a varying character. The most frequent uses made of these particles are those of an interrogative and indefinite pronoun. The function of an interrogative pronoun is chiefly confined to the form $n\hat{\imath}'ctca$ when followed by the demonstrative pronoun tE (see § 115), while it serves as an indefinite pronoun whenever it is preceded by the negative particle $k\bar{u}^i$, $kum\hat{\imath}'ntc$ not. $n\hat{\imath}'ctca$ is frequently amplified by means of the modal suffix $-\bar{\imath}tc$ (see § 94).

 $n\bar{v}'$ etca k^u te cuqwa'an te ha'kwat!ya what may (be the reason that) this roast here continually falls down? 90.12

 $n\bar{v}'ctcanx\ tanx\ y\bar{a}^{a'}xa^i\ q\bar{a}tx$ why do you (this one) cry (so) much? 94.16, 17

nî'ctcan tex nîctca'wax I doubt whether (we) shall accomplish anything 60.9

nî'ctcant tex xawa'ūn how can we kill him? 15.7

. . . $n\hat{i}'ctca\ tE\ ta^i$. . . how this one was living 16.2

 $k\bar{u}^i$ $n\hat{v}'ctca$ $n\bar{v}'ctc\bar{u}tn_E$ nothing could be done (to stop) him 94.12, 13 $k\bar{u}^i$ $n\hat{v}'ctca$ $qa'tcw\bar{t}l$ not able to get a drink 76.11

 $k\bar{u}^i$ $n\hat{i}'ctca$ $la'kw\bar{i}l$ $l\bar{\iota}t'laya'$ she could not get food 96.16, 17 $n\hat{i}ctc\bar{i}'tc^{\underline{v}}tc\hat{i}$ te $tem^uwa'tam$. . . why you have been gathered 30.17

kumî'nte nîetcī'te cî'nxīt he thinks of nothing (else) 60.20, 21 kumî'nte*tcî nîetcī'te ta'teî temū'ūts not for nothing did I assemble you (here) 30.18, 19

nīctx occurs in two instances only, and to all appearances has an interrogative significance.

 $n\bar{\imath}'ctxan\ k^u\ a'nts\hat{\imath}n\ m\bar{a}t'\bar{\imath}'\ tE\ k\bar{u}^i\ tc\bar{\imath}'n\bar{\imath}t$ what may (be the reason that) my elder brother here does not come back? 58.11, 12 $n\bar{\imath}ctx\ k^u\ a'naxa^{\bar{\imath}}$ how (would it be if) he were given up? 64.26

In a great many cases $n\hat{\imath}'ctca$ and $n\bar{\imath}'ctca$ are used as verbs with a significance that adapts itself to the sense of the sentence (see § 135). The particles are then verbalized by means of some of the verbal suffixes.

kūⁱ nî'ctca nī'ctcūtnɛ nothing could be done (to stop) him 94.12, 13 kūⁱ nî'ctca tcaītcī'tc nî'ctcīl not can anywhere (they) go 76.14 kumî'ntcxûn nî'ctcīs not we two (excl.) will keep on going 56.2 nî'ctcan tɛx nîctca'wax I doubt whether (we) are going to do (anything) 60.9

nī'ctcat'aux sî'nixyūn to fight mutually they two want (it) 52.2

In one instance the addition of a nominal suffix has transformed $n\hat{v}'ctca$ into a noun.

kumî'nte qwate L!xū'xun nî'eteate ants nî'eteīsî no one knows what happened to them (literally, how their arrival) 40.15, 16

§ 132. The Suffixed Particle -ū (-a¹)

It indicates an action, transitive or intransitive, that is performed near the speaker, and may be added to stems other than verbal. It always stands in final position as a loose suffix. Since similar formative elements expressing other locative categories were not found in Siuslaw, and in view of the fact that Alsea employs, besides this suffix, many other suffixes denoting location of action, I am inclined to believe that this element represents a formative element borrowed from Alsea. The Siuslaw render it by HERE, THIS WAY. A peculiar phonetic law seems to be intimately connected with this particle. When following the consonantic cluster nx, it causes the dropping of the x (see § 4). The interchange between \bar{u} and $a^{\bar{u}}$ has been discussed in § 2.

 $ka^{\bar{a}}s = \text{to follow } 92.7$

kⁱwasⁱyū'tsana^ū you will overtake me 92.3

 $qa^{u'}x\hat{u}n$ above 80.12

 $y\bar{u}^{wi}_{L}/a'tx \ qa^{u}x\hat{u}n\bar{u}'$ it broke on top 94.4

 $qa'tc\hat{n}nt\bar{u}x$ he will come $xw\bar{v}'_{L}/Em$ come back! $L\bar{v}\bar{u}'\bar{u}nanx$ they come (trans.)

xî'ntanx they travel 88.20

ya'qu'y \bar{u} 'nanx thou art seen $qa^ih\bar{a}'n$ from afar 56.8 $sq\bar{a}'t$ Em from there 34.3

qa'tcintūxaū nàtche will come to me xwīl!emaū come back this way! Līū'ūnanaū tcī'wa'nɛ they come out from the water

xî'ntana^ū tî'mwa they travel this way together

ya'qu'yū'nanaū thou art seen here qa'hā'hanaū tāū' he came from afar sqā'tmanū tsīL!a'L!āun I shoot at him from there

§ 133. The Stem L!a'ai

The original function of this stem is that of a noun denoting PLACE, COUNTRY, GROUND, WORLD, and it occurs in this function in a great many instances. Its locative form is L/aya' or $L/ay\bar{u}'s$ (see § 86).

 $m\bar{\imath}'k/a \, \iota / a'^{ai}$ a bad world 29.8 $y\bar{a}k/\hat{\imath}sk'\hat{\imath}n\bar{u}' \, \iota / aya' \, ul \, t\bar{\imath}y\bar{u}'^{ui}$ on a small place they were living

mî'tcîstūn L!ayū'stc he made (them) fall to the ground 94.7, 8

In most cases, however, it is used with a significance which, while intimately connected with its original meaning, seems to lend to it a peculiar function. Thus it is employed in the formation of verbs expressing meteorological phenomena, and serves as the (impersonal) subject of such verbs.

hố'n[¢]k!ya L!a'aⁱ it rained 78.1 k!u^xwîna^{i'} L!a'aⁱ ice (appeared) all over 76.11 qa^{i'}xîxyax te L!a'aⁱ it got dark 34.4 nā'qutyax L!a'aⁱ it got cold 76.10, 11 hū''nyax L!a'aⁱ it was dark (foggy) 34.8, 9 kumî'ntc wī' Līt ants L!a'aⁱ there was no low tide 34.22 qūnema^{i'} L!a'aⁱ (when) winter begins 78.5

From the Siuslaw point of view this application of L/a'ai is perfectly justifiable, because to his mind verbs expressing natural phenomena represent real actions performed by the universe as a personified subject. Consequently he renders our neutral phrases it rains, etc., by the world rains, etc., using the noun L/a'ai as the general subject of the action.

As a further consequence of this general significance, L/a'^{ai} is used to denote plurality of subjects and objects, especially in cases where the verb is used in its singular form (see §§ 78, 79, 139).

t/āmcî'l·mä L/a'ai all the children 34.6, 7 qīūtcū'nî L!a'ai many women 82.14 sexa^{\vec{a}'}tc qaa'xam ants \(L!a'^{ai} \) te'q into the canoe were put many things 34.5 metcī'tcetc xwā'ka ants L!a'ai one-sided their heads (of) those (people) 70.5, 6 vāa'xai xu'nhai L!a'ai they bet a great deal 70.6 hīq!ahaū'nî L!a'ai many dentalia shells 70.6 tsī'k!ya mī'k!a wā'nwîts L!a'ai very bad (things existed) long ago 14.7 stīm L!a'ai ma'q!īs there they keep on dancing 29.3 $waa'a^{\bar{u}}tsmE$ ants $L!a'^{ai}$ $h\bar{v}tc$ he said to all his people 7.1 $p_E k \bar{u}'^u L' a'^{ai}$ they play shinny 9.4 L!oxa'xa"tsme hītc L!a'ai he sent all his people 30.1, 2 $k/u^x w \bar{\imath}' n \bar{u} n \, L/a'^{ai}$ he made ice all over 94.2, 3 tcīt'a't'ūn L!a'ai he caused the wind to blow all over 94.5

This stem occurs also as a suffix. In such cases it is abbreviated into -*L*! (see § 77).

§ 134. Nouns and Verbs as Qualifiers

Siuslaw has no means of indicating by a grammatical device the sex of a given noun; that is to say, it does not exhibit grammatical gender. Hence, whenever it is desired to distinguish between the male and the female of a species, the nouns $t \equiv x m \bar{u}' n \hat{\imath}$ man and $q \bar{\imath} \bar{u} t c \bar{u}' n \hat{\imath}$ woman are used as qualifying a given appellative term. The qualifying noun either precedes or follows the qualified term.

qīūtcū'nî kwī'yōs a female dog
texmū'nî kō'tan a male horse, stallion
tsî'sqan qīūtcū'nî a female deer, doe
la'kukyax hītū'te texmū'nya she took a male person 60.23
texmū'nîtcwax ants t!āmc k!īx they two had boys each (literally,
male their [dual] those infants each [are]) 40.19

Not infrequently verbs are used to qualify the actions implied by another verbal stem. The qualifier has then the function of a modal adverb, and its significance may best be compared to that of our adverbs ending in -LY. The position of the qualifier is freely movable.

"\langle sl\overline{\pi} xu'x" xw\overline{\pi} L!\alpha' L!\ so down(-wardly) he came back (literally, he slid down and came back) 12.6

Lain abone (8 110)

xawa'' hītc "l kumî'ntc tcī'nīt xwī'r!īt (when) a person dies, (he will) not come back (by way of) return(-ing) (literally, not he comes back [and] returns) 42.11

mîta'tewax ants tqūtū' waa' their (dual) father, that one, shouted, saying (literally, shouted [and] said) 52.8

§ 135. Particles as Verbs

The frequent use of particles as verbs constitutes a characteristic feature of Siuslaw that is chiefly due to the fact that the majority of stems are neutral, deriving their nominal or verbal significance from the nature of the suffix that is added to them (see § 22). Consequently any particle (or adverb) may serve as a verb when occurring with the proper verbalizing suffixes, mostly the pronominal and temporal elements.

hail of anger it was (coming) ashama

ha^iq shore (§ 119)	$ha^{\nu}q\hat{\imath}qyax$ it was (coming) ashore 56.13
$s^{\underline{z}}a'tsa$ thus (§ 121)	$y\bar{a}'tsa\ s^{\underline{x}}a'ts^{\underline{x}}yax$ for a long time thus they (did) 11.3, 4
$y\bar{a}^{a\prime}xa^{i}$ many (§ 124)	stīmts ya'xtūx there you two will multiply 32.6
$a'l\cdot dar{u}$ likewise (§ 125)	al·twa'wanx also you (come) 16.4 a'l·tūtūnx hūtcūw'stc also you will (have) fun 22.8 wlawx al·twa' hītū'stc they two again were among people 98.17,
wa', waha' again (§ 126)	"t wàn waha' ha"n qa'msk"tc finally again (said to him) his younger brother 56.20, 21 wa' tūnx m"qwa' lemte wa' as you will again (talk with) Crow's language 38.8, 9
<i>lī'yax</i> - a while (§ 126)	<i>līyaxa'waxan</i> a ^u sa'wax a little while I intend (doing it), (namely to) sleep 27.5, 6
nî'etea (§ 131)	teî'ntau nîcteai' ants hīte whatever does a man 70.22 kumî'ntexûn nî'eteīs not we two (excl.) will keep on (going) 56.2

§ 136. The Conditional Clause

The rendering of the conditional clause in Siuslaw is accomplished in so many different ways, that it was thought best, for the sake of §§ 135-136

conciseness, to devote a separate section to this subject. The usual procedure is to introduce a conditional clause by means of the temporal adverb ats at that time, when (see § 120), or by means of either of these three related particles: tsan, $k\bar{u}^i$ nats, ants (see § 131).

ats $t\bar{e}'q$ $waxa'y\bar{e}xay\hat{v}m$ if something (will) be given to him 18.5 $tsa'ntc\hat{i}$ $t\bar{u}'ha$ $s\hat{i}'n^ixy\bar{u}n$ if you (to) buy want her 74.8 $y\bar{a}^a'xa^i$ $h\bar{i}tc$ $t\bar{e}m^uwa^{i'}$ $sqa^{\bar{i}}k$, ants $ha^iqa^{i'}$ ants $ham\bar{i}'$ $tc\bar{i}$ many people assemble there, when those whales come ashore 82.21, 22 $k\bar{u}^i$ nats $x\bar{a}'wa^axa^{\bar{u}}tn\bar{e}$ if he had not been killed 29.7

There are, however, other ways of expressing a conditional clause that are resorted to more frequently than the process just mentioned. Of these, the use of the past tense as conveying conditionality is of an exceedingly frequent occurrence, and is due to the participial function that is assigned by the Siuslaw to that tense (see § 74). In such cases the conditional clause tends to precede the sentence expressing the co-ordinate thought, although instances of a reversed order are by no means rare. The verb of the co-ordinate clause takes usually (but not as a rule) the durative suffix (see § 69).

tcī'k¤nx ya'xyaxaūn hītc, ul¤nx L!wa'nīsūn if somewhere you see a person, you will tell of it (literally, having seen . . .) 38.12, 13 wa'sLisyanx tāqai'na, ul¤nx tsī'k!ya qau'xûn wa'aīs if you get mad at anything, you very loud will always talk (literally, having become mad . . .) 36.11, 12

Lī'wayanx înq/a'ītc, "lɛnx qnū'wī'wūs whenever they came into a river, they would find (literally, having come . . .) 66.21, 22 Līūna" ya"x, "l sēatsī'tc waa'yūn when they two came together, then thus she said 46.7

înq!a'ītc hītc ta''yax, *ul yāa'xa' sînq!* if in the ocean a man lives, (very) much he is hungry 44.12, 13

tsī'k!ya hīs atsī'te waa'yax very good (it would have been) if thus he had said 42.13

The conditional clause is also expressed by the use of the future tense.

sî'nixyū'ne ts!îlna'te xawa'au, au'stūxax it was desired (that) with an arrow he (should) be killed, if he should (be a) sleep(er) 24.1 tsī'k!ya hīs t!ā'mcīns tcī'ntūx very good (would it be) if our children (dual incl.) should come back 42.6, 7

hawa''tūx te tsī' L!ī, "lens tsīL!a't tūx when finished will (be) these arrows, then we two (incl.) will shoot 50.14

 $s\bar{\imath}''t\bar{u}nx$, $ulnx\ qn\bar{\imath}'x^ats\ xn\bar{\imath}'^wn\bar{\imath}s\bar{u}n$ when (if) you will grow up, then you will do it 98.10

The conditional clause may also be expressed by the verb in its present tense.

sî'nixyanx līt!aya', ulnx nàtc Lī'wīs if you want food, then you will always come to me 44.6

te'q xawa'' pī''tsîs, ut seàs tit!a'yūn ha''qyax if something dies in the ocean, he eats it (it) having come ashore 44.19, 20

wīla' l'a'ai ut ha''qmas tcī'wa xî'ntme when the water is low, alongside of the beach he travels 46.16

tcīn hītsî'stc ants qwo'txa^ī, atsī'tc waa'yūtsmē qī'ūtc when he gets home, that Beaver, thus he says to his wife 48.17

§ 137. VOCABULARY

All Siuslaw words may be divided into two distinct classes, those of a denominating character and neutral stems. To the former belong all nouns of relationship, terms denoting parts of the body, animal names, words expressing natural objects, etc. These nouns never consist of more than three syllables. By far the greater part of the vocabulary consists of neutral stems, whose nominal or verbal function depends solely upon the sense in which they are used in a sentence and upon the functional value of the suffix with which they occur (see § 22). These stems are mostly monosyllabic, and consist of a vowel and consonant, of a consonant or consonantic cluster followed by a vowel, or (in most cases) of a consonant vowel and consonant.

 a^us - to sleep 24.1 $\bar{a}q$ - to take off 13.1 anax- to give up 16.8 a^iq - to leave $\bar{a}q$ - to go away 52.10 a^itc - to trade 36.4 $\bar{\iota}t$ - to break 94.4

wa- to speak 7.1qaa- to enter 34.5 ta^i - to sit, to live 16.2 $xa\bar{u}$ - to die 16.8 $s\bar{v}$ - to grow 98.10tk/a- to open (one's mouth) 28.2meg/- to dance 19.2 $x\hat{v}$ ntm- to travel 12.10

meq!- to dance 19.2 $x\hat{i}ntm$ - to travel 12.10 $x\bar{a}\iota!$ - to do, to make 50.8 $tq\bar{u}l$ - to shout 52.8yax- to see 20.10 $c\hat{i}l$:x- to shake 27.2 $w\hat{i}nx$ - to be afraid 17.6 $\iota!w\bar{a}n$ - to tell 17.1

qatc^En- to go 8.2

As examples of bisyllabic stems, the following may be given:

 $was L^i s$ - to be angry 36.11, 12 $tem \bar{u}$ - to assemble 7.3 $qaq \bar{u}$ n- to listen $k / \bar{a} / la^u$ - to be tired 36.21 $s\hat{n} x \hat{i}$ - to desire 11.7 $x\hat{n} / la^u$ - to work 48.10

 $ha'n^{E}n\bar{\imath}t$!- to believe 46.3

Onomatopoetic expressions are exceedingly rare, being confined to three animal names and one verbal stem.

mî'tcmîtc grouse (probably called so from its cry mît-mît) pūpuhū'nîk! owl qō'qōq swan (white) $x\bar{u}n$ - to snore $ul w an x \bar{u}^u n$ now he snores 27.9

A few terms appear in a reduplicated form (see § 109).

8 138. STRUCTURE OF SENTENCES

The absence of nominal incorporation and polysynthesis as grammatical devices renders the Siuslaw sentence subject to easy analysis, and prevents the many complications that are met with in many other American languages. Each part of the sentence—such as subject, nominal object, predicate, and attribute—is expressed by means of a phonetically independent word. The successive order in which these parts of a sentence are arranged is arbitrary and exempt from any well-defined rules. The subject may be placed at the beginning or at the end of the sentence, usage favoring its occurrence at the very end, especially in cases where the sentence contains a nominal subject and object.

 $lk!an\bar{u}'k^u$ ul $m_{Eq}!a^{\bar{i}'}tx$ $ha^{i'}qmas$ $L\bar{i}ya'wa$ Screech-Owl was continually dancing alongside of the fire 86.2, 3

łk!anuwa'ku wî'nxaūn ants penî's Screech-Owl fears that Skunk

tsī'k!ya wî'nxaūn ants penî's łk!anuwa'ku very much is afraid of that Skunk, Screech-Owl 86.3

pîtca'ya^ux lqatūwīyū's ants qīūtcū'nî they two go over logs, these women 88.15, 16

Nominal objects may either precede or follow the subject of the sentence.

 $h\bar{\imath}na'w\bar{\imath}u$ ants $p\bar{\imath}na'st\ lk'an^uwa'k^u$ she intends to take along that sick man, Screech-Owl 88.1, 2

waa'a^ūn sqūmā' ants lq!al·ō'mä said Pelican to that Sea-Gull 44.17 Of a similar free position are those parts of the sentence that express adverbial ideas. They may precede or follow the verb.

ułaux tcī'watc hakwa'aī they two into the water will be thrown 88.7.8

xa'lint qa'xûntc lqatūwīyū'stc he climbs up on a tree 12.4 $y\bar{a}k!\hat{s}k'\hat{n}\bar{u}'$ L!aya' $u\bar{t}$ $t\bar{t}y\bar{u}'wi$ on a small place they live 38.19 $l^ikwa'y\bar{u}nanx\ k^u\,lt'\bar{\imath}'a^{\bar{\imath}}\,s_Exa^{\bar{\imath}\prime}$ you may get salmon in the boat 48.18 Nominal and adverbial attributive complements may precede or follow the noun or verb, excepting the demonstrative pronouns ants, tE (see § 115), which are usually placed immediately before the noun. Owing to the fact that all adjectives are intransitive verbs, they seldom refer to the noun, and are freely movable.

yā''xa' hīte plna'tx ha' many people were sorry 15.4
yîxa'yūn hīte yā''xa' he saw many people
wî'nxa''n tsī'k!ya tɛ pɛnî's she was very much afraid of Skunk 86.1
tsī'k!ya''x xaū' sî'n'xyūn very much they two wanted him to die
86.19
yuwa'yūn yā''xa' ants q!a'īt they collected lots of that pitch 88.5, 6

Lxa^uyaxa^ū'nî ants penî's that other skunk 86.18, 19 yîkt ants hītsī'i big (is) that house 25.2

 $h\bar{\imath}'tc^{E}tc$ $n\hat{\imath}ctc\hat{\imath}ma^{e}mu$ $t \in t/\bar{\imath}$ a person's fashion (has) this Bear 60.26

The same freedom of order as is exhibited by the different parts of the sentence is found in the relative position of coordinate and subordinate sentences. Subordinate clauses are usually introduced by particles, and they may precede or follow the principal clause.

waⁱ tcī'wa ma^atc ants lqaⁱ''tū, ^ul mîltcaⁱ' although in the water lay those logs, still (they) burned 32.22

nî'ctcîm sqaīk zī'wat!ī, wai yā'tsa because there he came frequently, even for a long time 68.4, 5

yā vai hītc, vi tem vai sqa k, ants haiqai ants hamī teī many people assemble there, when those whales come ashore 82.21, 22 te q xawai pī'tsîs, vi se às lit/a'yūn hai qyax when something dies in the ocean, he eats it after it has come ashore 44.19, 20

§ 139. IDIOMATIC EXPRESSIONS

Here belongs in first place the manner of expressing comparison of adjectives. The comparative degree is expressed by using the objective form of the pronoun (or noun) for the compared object, which is invariably placed at the end of the sentence. In some cases the idea of comparison is brought out more forcibly by the adverb pelī'te ahead, first, following or preceding the object.

s^Eà hīs nàtc he is better than I (am) na'han hī'sa nī'xatc I am better than you (are) yîktî'l·män s^Ea''na pelī'tc I am taller than he (is) yîkt s^Eà pelī'tc na'tc^Enl he is taller than we (are) The superlative is expressed in the same manner, although the augmentative or diminutive suffixes (see §§ 83, 84) or the suffix $-\bar{u}n\hat{\imath}$ (see §§ 102) are preferably used to indicate the superlative degree.

 $l'na^{uwi}$ $s^{z}a$ $na'tc^{z}nxan$ he is (the) richest of us all $s^{z}a$ $y\bar{a}k!\hat{\imath}'sk'\hat{\imath}n$ $texm\bar{u}'n\hat{\imath}$ he is the smallest man na'han $y\hat{\imath}kt\hat{\imath}'l\cdot m\ddot{a}$ I am the tallest $s^{z}a$ $y\hat{\imath}kt\bar{u}'n\hat{\imath}$ that biggest one $t\bar{u}$ $y\bar{a}k!a^{\bar{u}'}n\hat{\imath}$ that smallest one 88.12

A very important example of idiomatic phraseology is the (colloquial) use of the singular number for the plural. It will be remembered that Siuslaw has only two suffixes expressing plurality, neither of which is used consistently (see § 79, 80). In many cases the adverb $y\bar{a}^{a'}xa^i$ much, many (see § 121), the numeral particle $ha^{i'}m\bar{u}t$ all (see § 124) or the stem L/a'^{ai} place, world (see § 133), is employed for the purpose of denoting plural subjects and objects, and, while these stems are at times used in conjunction with one of the plural suffixes, they more frequently express plurality without the aid of these suffixes; that is to say, the verb is more often used in the singular form.

 $y\bar{a}^{a'}xa^i \ t.'a'^{ai} \ h\bar{\imath}tc \ y\hat{\imath}xa'y\bar{\imath}n$ he saw many people 70.2 $y\bar{a}^{a'}xa^i \ h\bar{\imath}tc \ p\bar{\imath}na^{\bar{\imath}}tx \ ha^i$ many people were sorry 15.4 $ha^{i'}m\bar{\imath}t$. . . $l^{i}lkwa^{i'}$ all get it 82.6

 $ta^{i\prime}qat\ skwaha^{i\prime}tx\ xw\bar{a}k\bar{\imath}'\ ants\ {\it L.'a'}^{ai}$ feathers have on their heads those people 10.9

Very often, however, the singular number has a plural function, even without the aid of any of these particles, as may be seen from the following examples:

 $s^{\underline{z}}a'tsa\ l^it/a^{i'}\ t^{\underline{z}}\ ta^{i'}yax$ thus eat those who lived here 82.12

uł tqau'wītc tayai' they lived up stream 82.12, 13

uł temuwa' sqaik they assemble there 82.21, 22

 $c\bar{\imath}'n^axtc\ ya'xa^{\bar{\imath}}\ ants\ ya^{\epsilon}k^us$ three were the seals (literally, three his number, that seal) 62.16, 17

xā'ts!ū hītcīlqa'' two people dig 84.2

 $s\hat{\imath}'n^{i}xy\bar{u}n\ lq/\bar{a}'n\bar{u}$ they wanted (to buy) hides 100.15

 $h\bar{\imath}q/aha^{\bar{\imath}\prime}n\hat{\imath}$ ants $xu'nha^i~ha^{i\prime}ts\bar{\imath}$ nothing but dentalia shells these (people) bet 78.14

Another peculiar idiomatic expression is found in the manner of expressing an act performed by two subjects, both of whom are mentioned. This is usually done by adding the subjective pronoun for the third person dual $-a^ux$ (see § 24) to one of the subjects, using the other in its absolutive form. The noun taking the pronominal suffix occurs invariably in its discriminative form (see § 111). It is not absolutely necessary that these two subjects should follow each other in immediate succession.

s^za'tsatc nîctcîma^emū te sqūma' wā'nwîts lq!al·ōa'ma^ux thus was long ago the custom of pelican and sea-gull (literally, thus his custom, [of] this pelican long ago, [of] sea-gull, [of] them two) 48.4, 5

qwo'txaⁱ tsîmîl'a'wa^ux taⁱ beaver and muskrat lived 48.6

s^Eatsī'tc^wax halk! mā'q^uL tE uma'lī^wax thus is told the story of Crow and Thunder (literally, thus their two, story, Crow [of] this [and] this Thunder [of them two] 38.18

q̄ūtcî'l·mä ltɛkºwa'ntcwax tai tî'mwa an old woman and her grandchild lived together (literally, old woman, her grandchild, they two, lived together) 96.15

lax stīm qa'txast ants texmū'nî qayū'tc**tc**ax they two there commenced to cry that man and his wife (literally, they two, there, commenced to cry, that man, his wife, they two) 58.17, 18
Lxa**yaxa**\(\overline{n}\)î ants penî's tsī'k!ya**x xa\(\overline{u}\)' sî'nixy\(\overline{n}\)n ants plnast (he and) that other skunk very much they two wanted (that) that sick man (should) die 86.18, 19

An idiomatic expression of irregular occurrence is the formation of the imperative mode of a verb that is preceded by the stem $ha\bar{u}$ - to stop. Such a phrase consists of the imperative form of the verb to stop followed by the demonstrative pronoun $s^{\bar{x}}\hat{a}$, and of the past tense of the verbal stem that expresses the prohibited action.

ha' um s anx q a' txyax quit crying! (literally, stop, this one you [who] has been crying)

ha'ūm s¤anx tsī'L!yax stop shooting! ha'ūm s¤anx qā'Lxyax stop counting!

The verb expressing the prohibited action may sometimes occur without the suffix for the past tense.

 $ha'\bar{u}matc\hat{i}$ $s^{\bar{e}}a'tc\hat{i}$ waana'wa stop talking to one another! $ha'\bar{u}m$ $s^{\bar{e}}anx$ $c^{u}x\bar{u}'y\bar{u}n$ $t \in k\bar{o}'tan$ stop scaring these horses!

As the last instance of idiomatic phraseology may be mentioned the use of the durative as a negative imperative, a use that has been fully discussed in §§ 40, 60, and 61.

TEXTS

THE DEATH OF GRIZZLY BEAR¹

Wā'nwîts.² Tsī'k!ya³ mī'k!a wā'nwîts² Lla'ai.⁴ Klēxū'⁵ Llaya'⁶ bad long ago world. Each on Very place on Long ago. ul7 sEait8 L!a'ai.4 S^Ea'tsa³ hī'q!aq!yax⁹ wā'nwîts.² Miya'k!a¹⁰ hiya'tc¹¹ Thus it had started long ago. Bad then such world. person łit!a'yūn12 Lla'ai 4 litla'yūn.12 Swāl13 hīte wā'nwîts.2 Hitc devoured people many long ago. Person devoured him. Grizzly paai'Ln14 gatcinai',15 u} $s^{E}as^{16}$ L!xmaī'yūs¹⁷ u} līt!ī'vūs.18 would kill him would devour to hunt goes, then he and s^Ea^{i'}na.²¹ uł temū'tx²² Yāa'xai19 hīte płna¹/tx²⁰ ha^i hītcū'u.23 persons sorry their hearts for that. Then assemble (pl.) people. Many SînExyū'u 24 xāL!a'ūłtx.25 xawa'au, 27 u} Tsîm 26 A'tsa.28 wàn ²⁹ be fixed his Always killed That's why now Desire (pl.) shall be. (disposition). hītcū'wi.30 waai'tx 31 mātīyū'u 32 u} temū'tx 22 t.E 33 T. 2 ai 4 chiefs (of) this assemble (pl.) people. Then say continually region. tex 36 xawa'un ?37 "Pła'ntxan 34 hai tsī'k!ya.3 Nî'ctcanl³⁵ "Sorry our hearts very. How we doubt kill him? For 1 See Leo J. Frachtenberg, Lower Umpqua Texts, Columbia University Contributions to Anthropology, Vol. IV, pp. 15 et seq. 2 Temporal adverb (§ 120). 8 Modal adverb (§ 121). 4 See § 133. ⁵ $k/\bar{i}x$ EACH, EVERY (§§ 124, 2); $-\bar{u}$ local suffix of rest (§ 91). 6 L/a'ai particle (§ 133); -a locative case (§§ 86, 8). 7 Conjunction (§ 125). 8 Demonstrative pronoun (§ 115). 9 hīq!- to start, to commence (§ 108); -yax past tense (§ 74). 10 Discriminative form of mī'k/a (§ 111). 11 Discriminative form of httc PERSON (§ 111). 12 lit!- TO EAT (§ 12); -ai verbalizing (§ 75); -ūn direct object of third person (§§ 28, 8). 13 Discriminative form of swal GRIZZLY BEAR (§ 111). 14 Transposed from palnai' (§ 14); paln- to Hunt; -ai verbalizing (§ 75). 15 qaten- TO GO, TO START; -ai verbalizing (§§ 75, 136). 16 Demonstrative pronoun (§ 115). 17 L!xmai- TO KILL; -ai verbalizing (§§ 75, 9, 2); -ūs durative (§§ 69, 8). ¹⁸ $l\bar{\imath}t'$: TO EAT; -ai verbalizing (§§ 75, 2); - $\bar{u}s$ durative (§§ 69, 8). 19 Modal adverb (§ 121). 20 pln- to be sick; -aitx suffix indicating that object forms an inseparable part of the subject (§ 33). 21 Demonstrative pronoun (§ 115). 22 temū- to assemble; -tx plural (§ 80). 23 hitc Person; -ūu plural (§ 79). ²⁴ \hat{sinxi} - to want, to desire; $-\bar{u}u$ plural (§§ 79, 8) 25 xāl!- TO MAKE, TO FIX; -ūltx passive (§ 39). 26 Temporal adverb (§ 120). 27 xaŭ- TO DIE; -aau future passive (§§ 56, 8). 28 Modal adverb (§ 121); a'tsa ul for that Reason (§ 125). 29 Temporal particle (§ 126). 20 hitc Person; -ūwi plural (§ 79). ²¹ waz- to speak; $-a^{7}tx$ frequentative (§§ 68, 9).

 22 maā'tī CHIEF (§ 98); -ūu plural (§§ 79, 8). 23 Demonstrative pronoun (§ 115).

²⁴ Abbreviated; for *pla'ntxanxan*; *pln*-TO BE SICK (§ 112); -tx suffix indicating that object forms an inseparable part of the subject (§ 33); -nxan exclusive plural (§§ 24, 4).

³⁵ nî'ctca particle (§ 131); -nl inclusive plural (§ 24).

²⁶ Particle (§ 127).

³⁷ xaū- to die (§ 112); -ūn direct object of third person (§ 28).

kumî'nte 38 $xa'wil^{39}$ $tsil!i'te.^{40}$ $A'tsan^{41}$ uln^{42} $kumi'nte^{38}$ Thus I arrow through. not he die not so I tsîL!ī'tc40 L!xmaya'au.''44 uł wàn29 waa'tx45 hītcū'u,23 sî'nixvūn 43 killed he shall be." Then finally want it arrow with say (pl.) k!înk'ya'au 46 nî'ctca 47 tE 33 tai. 48 SEa'tsa 3 tū'na'au. 49 uł wan²⁹ this lives. it will be gone how Thus he will be Then now and seen invited. ga'teintx 50 k!înk't'ū'wi.51 ul wàn29 L!īL!wa'xam.52 Līū'ūn.53 he is approached. searchers. Then now He got there. "K!aha'yū'nanx 54 al'twa'wanx 55 hūtcūu'stc 56 L!aya'tc." 57 Kumî'ntc 38 "Invited art thou, also about thou fun to place to." a'mhate⁵⁸ ha¹. uł tea'xa^ūt⁵⁹ uł tcīⁱn ants 60 hitc. ul seatsi'te 61 willing his mind. So goes back and goes home that man. And L!waan.62 "Kumî'ntc³⁸ a'mhatc⁵⁸ hai." SEatsī'tc 61 L!waan 62 ants 60 "Not willing his mind." Thus relates Yāa'xai19 hūtcū'u63 Lla'ai4 ants 60 temū'uwi 64 uł waa'xam 65 hīte. fun they (of) that man. Much assembly. Then ants 60 SEA 66 ga'tcintūx.67 "Kumî'ntcînl 68 ana'xyūn.69 that who go will. "Not we give it up will. When xa'ūtūx,71 ułnł⁷² ana'xyūn.''⁶⁹ Atsī'tc⁷³ Llōnī'txaū'ne.⁷⁴ Thus it is repeatedly said. then we give it up will." he die will.

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38 Particle of negation (§ 131).
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³⁹ xaū- to DIE; -īl negative (§§ 53, 8).

⁴⁰ tsī/L/ī ARROW (§ 98); -ītc adverbial (§§ 94, 9, 12).
41 a/tsa THUS (§ 121); -n 1st person singular (§ 24).

 $^{^{42}}$ ul then (§ 125); n 1st person singular (§ 24). a'lsan uln for that reason I (§ 125). Singular instead of plural (§ 139). Should have been a'lsanxan ulenxan.

⁴³ sînxi- to Desire (§ 4); -un direct object of third person (§§ 24, 28, 8).

⁴⁴ L!xmai- TO KILL; -aau future passive (§§ 56, 8).

⁴⁵ waa- to say; -tx plural (§ 80).

⁴⁶ k/lnk'ī- to go and look; -aau future passive (§§ 56, 8).

⁴⁷ Particle (§ 131).

⁴⁸ t-(1) TO LIVE, TO RESIDE; -a: verbalizing (§ 75).

⁴⁹ $t\bar{u}$ 'n- TO INVITE; - aa^u future passive (§ 56).

⁵⁰ qaten- TO START, TO GO (§ 4); -tx plural (§ 80).

⁵¹ $k/\ln k'\bar{\imath}$ - TO GO AND LOOK; $-t'\bar{u}vi$ nominal (§ 99).

⁵² L̄v̄ū- TO COME, TO APPROACH (§§ 107, 112); -xam present passive (§§ 55).

⁵³ Līū- TO ARRIVE, TO COME; -ūn direct object of third person (§§ 28, 10).

⁶⁴ k/a'- TO INVITE; -ai verbalizing (§§ 75, 3); -\vec{u}nE passive (§§ 58, 8); -nx 2d person singular (§§ 24, 4).
65 Contracted; for al-twa'waxanx(§ 9); a'l-d\vec{u}LIKEWISE (§§ 125, 135); -awax intentional (§§ 70, 8); -nx
2d person singular (§§ 24, 4).

⁵⁶ $h\bar{u}tc\bar{u}'u$ FUN (§ 97); $-\bar{u}s$ locative case (§§ 86, 9); -tc local (§ 90).

⁵⁷ L!α'ai GROUND (§ 133); -a locative case (§§ 86, 8); -tc local (§ 90).

⁵⁸ a'mha WILLING; -tc possessive 3d person singular (§ 88).

⁵⁹ tcaxū- TO TURN BACK; -t present (§§ 72, 2).

⁶⁰ Demonstrative pronoun (§ 115).

⁶¹ sEa'tsa THUS (§ 121): -itc modal (§§ 94, 9).

⁶² L!on- TO RELATE (§ 112).

⁶³ $h\bar{u}tc$ - TO PLAY; $-\bar{u}u$ nominal (§ 97).

⁶⁴ $t = m \bar{u}$ - to assemble; $-\bar{u}wi$ nominal (§§ 97, 9).

⁶⁵ waa- To speak, To say; -xam present passive (§ 55).

⁶⁶ Demonstrative pronoun (§ 115).

⁶⁷ qaten- TO GO (§ 4); -tūx future (§ 73).

⁶⁸ kumi'ntc NOT (§ 131); -nl inclusive plural (§§ 24, 4).

[∞] anx- to give up; -yūn exhortative with direct object of third person (§§ 41, 112).

⁷⁰ Temporal adverb (§ 120).

⁷¹ xaū- TO DIE; -tūx future (§ 73).

⁷² ul THEN (§ 125); -nl inclusive plural (§§ 24, 4).

⁷⁸ a'tsa Thus (§ 121): -ītc modal (§§ 94, 9).

⁷¹ L!on- TO TELL, TO SAY; -itx frequentative (§ 68); -au ne passive (§ 58).

uł wan²⁹ L!ōxa'xam⁷⁵ waa'xam⁶⁵ ants⁶⁰ hīte. Sukwī'te⁷⁶ tsîng!t⁷⁷ is sent is told that man. Then finally ants to hitc L!oxa'xam. 15 "Hi'sanx 18 L!wa'nisūn. 19 Kwinx 10 nietei'te 11 "Well thou shalt tell him. that man who is sent. Not thou what-like L!wa'nīsūn⁷⁹ mī'k!a'na.⁸² L!wa'nīsūnanx⁸³ s^Eatsī'tc,⁶¹ 'Sî'n^Exyūt-shalt tell'him bad-ly. Shalt tell him thou thus, 'Desire shalt tell him sanxan⁸⁴ Lī'ūtūx⁸⁵ tīū'ts.⁸⁶ Tsī'k!yanxan⁸⁷ sî'nixyūn⁴³ hūtca'au.²⁸⁸ we-thee come shall here. Very we want it Atsī'tc^Enx ⁸⁹ L!wā'nīsūn. ⁷⁹ Kwīnx ⁸⁰ L!wā'nīsūn ⁷⁹ mī'k!a'na. ⁸²

Thus thou shalt tell him. Not thou shalt tell him bad-ly. Thus thou $Y\bar{a}^a'xa^ite^{90}\quad ha^i,\quad ts\bar{i}'k!ya^3\quad m\bar{i}'k!a.''\quad {}^ul\quad wan^{29}\quad qa'te^int^{91}\quad ants^{60}$ Much his mind, very bad." So finally starts hītc. Wînx tsī'k!ya.3 "L!ºwa'xan 92 tā'kîn 93 Līū'." ul wàn 20 man. He fears very. "Messenger I this I come." Then now wīłwa¹′. ⁹⁴ "Nîctcī'tcanx ⁹⁵ wa^a′yaxa^ūts ⁹⁶ ants ⁶⁰ Lī'ūyax ?" ⁹⁷— he assents. "What-like thee told he-thee that (who) came ?"— "Kumî'ntc38 nîctcī'tc81 wa'aīł.96 Txūn99 L!ōna'yūtnE100 sEatsī'tc:61 what-like he said. Just I am told

⁷⁵ L/ox- TO SEND; -xam present passive (§§ 55, 4).

⁷⁶ Modal adverb (§§ 121, 94).

[&]quot; tsing!- TO BE POOR; -t nominal (§ 104).

⁷⁸ hīis GOOD; -a modal (§ 96); -nx 2d person singular (§ 24).

⁷⁹ L/ $\bar{o}n$ - TO TELL (§ 112); - $\bar{i}s$ durative (§ 69); - $\bar{u}n$ direct object of third person (§ 28).

⁸⁰ kūi NOT (§ 131); -nx 2d person singular (§ 24).

⁸¹ nî'ctca WHAT (§ 131); -ītc modal (§§ 94, 9).

⁸² mī'k!a BAD (§ 96): -'na modal (§ 94).

⁸³ L/on- to tell (§ 112); -is durative (§ 69); -ūn direct object of third person (§ 28); -nx 2d person singular (§§ 24, 4).

⁸⁴ sînxi- to desire; -ūtsanxan direct object of first and second persons we-thee (§§ 29, 8, and Table, p. 473).

⁸⁵ $L\bar{\imath}\bar{u}$ - TO COME; $-t\bar{u}x$ future (§ 73).

⁸⁶ Local adverb (§ 119).

⁸⁷ tsī'k!ya VERY (§ 121); -nxan exclusive plural (§ 24).

⁸⁸ hūtc- to play, to have fun; -aau future passive (§ 56).

⁸⁹ atsī'tc THUS (§§ 121, 94); -nx 2nd person singular (§§ 24, 4).

⁹⁰ yāa'xai Much (§ 121); -tc possessive 3rd person singular (§ 88).

⁹¹ qatcn- TO START (§ 4); -t present (§ 72).

⁹² Contracted; for L/o'waxaxan (§ 24); L/ox- TO SEND (§ 112); -ax nominal (§ 101); -n1st person singular (§§ 24, 4).

⁹³ tāak THIS (§ 115); -n 1st person singular (§§ 24, 4).

⁹⁴ wilū- to affirm, to agree, to assent; -ai verbalizing (§§ 75, 8).

⁹⁶ ni'ctca what (§ 131); -itc modal (§§ 94, 9); -nx 2ud person singular (§§ 24, 4).

⁹⁶ waa- to say; -yax past (§ 74); -aūts direct object of first and second persons (§ 29).

⁹⁷ Līū- TO COME; -yax past (§ 74).

⁹⁸ waa- TO SAY; -a:l negative (§§ 53, 9).

⁹⁹ $tx\bar{u}$ JUST (§ 130); -n 1st person singular (§ 24).

¹⁰⁰ L/on- to tell; -a: verbalizing (§ 75); -ūtne passive (§§ 58, 8).

¹⁰¹ k!a'- TO INVITE; -ai verbalizing (§§ 75, 3); -ū'nE passive (§§ 58, 8); -n 1st person singular (§ 24).

¹⁰² atsi'tc THUS (§§ 121, 94); -n 1st person singular (§§ 24, 4).

¹⁰³ L/on- TO TELL; -as verbalizing (§ 75); -ūts direct object of first person and second persons (§§ 29, 8, and Table, p. 480).

¹⁰⁴ tsī/k/ya VERY (§ 121); -nx 3d person plural (§ 24).

Seatsī'tcîn¹⁰⁶ L!owa'x ¹⁰⁷ Līwa'wax. 105 tā'kîn 93 Līū'.'" SEatsī'te 61 intend to come Thus I messenger this I come."" Thus (thou). waai'. 108 "TE"qîn 109 waxa^ū'mE 110 tā'kîn 93 k!aha'yū'nE?"111___ "Something I be given this I (who) am invited ?"he says. waa'autne. 112 Txii 113 nîctcī'tc81 wan 7 hūtcū'u 114 is said. anything Just now L!a'ai.4 SEa'tsa3 tanx 115 sî'nExyūtne 116 Lī'ūtūx."85— "SEatsī'tcEnx 117 art wanted come shall."-"Thus thou Thus this thou many. L!wa'nīs.118 'Sî'nxīt 119 tāga'na.120 Ats70 te'q 120 waxa'yexayîm, 121 uł something. When be given to him, 'He wants something then Lī'ūtūx.'85 Seatsī'tcenx 117 waa'vūts."122 wan 29 he come will.' Thus thee tells he-thee." a'laq 123 sEatsī'tc 61 waa' ants 60 "Txū 113 vāa'xaitc90 hīte. Then thus says that one man. "Just much his sî'nixya, 124 nî'ctcîm 125 tE 33 ha¹. SEatsī'tc 61 SEAS 16 k!ixa'yūn 126 he desires, mind. Thus because kills he these vāa'xaitc 90 A'tsa ul 28 hai." Atsī'te73 hītc. waa' ants 60 hītc. people. That's why that much his mind." Thus says 'Meg!ē'na'au.127 Hūya'ūltx 128 hal. "Atsī'tc⁷³ waa'xam, 65 "Thus he is told, 'It will be danced Changed his mind. (will be) for him. waai', 108 płanyai't!yūn 129 haitc.'130 SEatsī'tc 61 6 A ts 70 tE'q 120 mind his.' he says. When something sorry continually for Thus Lī'ūtūx.''85 Seatsī'tcîn 106 waa'aūts." 132 wā'xvaxaūme,131 u} be given to him. Thus me tells he-me." then he come will.'

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105 Līū- TO COME; -awax intentional (§§ 70, 8).
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¹⁰⁶ $s^E ats \tilde{i}'tc$ Thus (§§ 121, 94); -n 1st person singular (§§ 24, 4).

¹⁰⁷ Contracted; for L/owa'xax (§ 24); L/ox- To SEND (§ 112); -ax nominal (§ 101).

¹⁰⁸ waa- to say; -ai verbalizing (§§ 75, 9).

¹⁰⁰ teq pronominal particle (§ 123); -n 1st person singular (§§ 24, 4).

¹¹⁰ wax- TO GIVE; -aum E passive (§ 38).

¹¹¹ k/a'- TO INVITE (§ 3); -a; verbalizing (§ 75); - $\bar{u}'nE$ passive (§§ 58, 8).

¹¹² waa- TO SAY; -autnE passive (§ 58).

¹¹³ Restrictive particle (§ 130).

¹¹⁴ hūtc- TO HAVE FUN; -ūu plural (§ 79).

¹¹⁵ tāak THIS (§ 115); -nx 2d person singular (§§ 24, 16).

¹¹⁶ sînxī- to desire; -ūtne passive (§§ 58, 8).

^{117 8}Eatsi'tc THUS (§§ 121, 94); -nx 2d person singular (§§ 24, 4).

¹¹⁸ L!on- TO RELATE (§ 112); -7s durative (§ 69).

¹¹⁹ sinxi- to desire; -ai verbalizing (§§ 75, 2); -t present (§ 72).

¹²⁰ Pronominal particle (§ 123).

¹²¹ Mis-heard for wā'xyaxaīmĒ; wāx- TO GIVĒ; -yax past denoting conditionality (§§ 74, 136); -aīmĒ passive (§ 38).

¹²² waa- TO SAY; -ai verbalizing (§§ 75, 9); -ūts direct object of first and second persons (§ 29, Table, p. 466, § 8).

¹²³ Numeral (§ 116).

¹²⁴ sînxī- to DESIRE (§§ 112, 8).

¹²⁵ Particle (§ 128).

¹²⁶ k!ix- TO DISAPPEAR; -ai verbalizing (§ 75); -ūn direct object of third person (§§ 28, 8).

¹²⁷ mag!- TO DANCE; -in verbal (§§ 81, 2); -aau passive (§ 56).

¹²⁸ hūya- to change; -ūltx passive (§ 39).

¹²⁹ Contracted; for planyaiya't!yūn; pln- to be sorry (§ 112); -at verbalizing (§§ 75, 8); -at/ī frequentative (§ 68); $-\bar{u}n$ direct object of third person (§§ 28, 8).

¹³⁰ hal- MIND, HEART (§ 98); -tc possessive 3d person singular (§§ 88, 139).

¹³¹ wax- to give; -yax past denoting conditionality (§§ 74, 135), $-a\bar{u}mE$ passive (§ 38). 132 waa- TO SAY; -auts direct object of first and second persons (§ 29 and Table, p. 480).

ga'tcint 91 ants 60 waha'. 133 "SEatsī'tcEnx 117 uł wan 29 hītc now starts that man again. "Thus thou Then wa'a^īsūn. 134 'Waxa'yīmanx 135 qanī'nał.' A tsī'tcEnx89 L!ona'yūn. 136 'Is given to thee knife.' Thus thou tell him. shalt tell him. k!aha'yū'nanx.54 Hūtcū'wi 114 'Lî'mqanx 137 qa'teintūx,67 Lla'ai 4 Play 'Quick thou invited art thou. start shalt, many Sî'nixyū'nanx 138 Lī'ūtūx.'85 Atsī'tcEnx89 L!ona'yūn." 136 vāa'xai.19 Wanted art thou come shall.' Thus thou tell him." "Qna'han141 Cî'nixyat!ya 139 ants 60 hīte L!ōxa'au.140 waa'vūn.142 that man (who) sent will be. "I say to him. Thinks continually gna'han 141 waa'yūn,142 hī'nak!1144 L!xū'yūn 143 nîctcī'tc81 u} Know it Ι what-like say to him, and right away u} qa'tcEnt 91 ants 60 "Qna'han 141 ga'tcEntux." 67 wàn 29 hītc. he start will." Then now goes that man. waa'yūn, 142 u} hī'nak!i 144 ga'tcEntūx."67 right away say to him, and he start will." Atsī'tc73 cî'nixyat!ya139 ants60 hītc. ul xînt ul Līū'. Līū'ūn.53 that man. So he goes and arrives. He comes to him. thinks continually Tsī'k!yanx 145 sî'nixyū'nE 146 Līwa'wax. 105 "L!owa'xan 92 tā'kîn 93 Līū'. intend to come. " Messenger I this I come. Very thou art wanted smū't'Etūx 148 Kūi yā'tsac L!a'ai 147 u} ants 60 Lla'ai4 hūtcū'u, 63 then end will that big fun. Pretty soon tE'q. 120 Atsī'tcîn 102 waa'yūtne.149 Na'mElinx 150 Nîctcī'tcanx 95 Thus I am told. Mine thou relative. What manner thou waa'a^ũn. 153 tanx 115 kū 151 hai?" Atsī'tc73 "Yāa'a'mhaⁱtī¹⁵²

xa¹txan 154 ha'i.

(think in my) mind.

not

mind?"

this

Thus he

S^Ea'tsan 155 tE 33 kumî'ntc 38 a'mha^ītī 152 ha¹.

not

says to him.

willing (my) mind.

Txun99

Just I

Thus I

willing (thy)

¹²³ Temporal particle (§ 126).

¹³⁴ waa- To SAY; -als durative (§§ 69, 9); -ūn direct object of third person (§ 28).

¹³⁵ wax- to give; -ai verbalizing (§ 75); -īme passive (§§ 38, 8); -nx 2d person singular (§ 24).

¹³⁶ L!on- to relate; -ai verbalizing (§ 75); -ūn direct object of third person (§§ 28, 8).

¹³⁷ L2'mqa RIGHT AWAY (§§ 120, 96); -nx 2d person singular (§ 24).

¹³⁸ $sinx\bar{i}$ - To DESIRE; $-\bar{u}$ 'ne passive (§§ 58, 8); -nx 2d person singular (§ 24).

¹³⁹ cînxî- To THINK (§ 4); -at/î frequentative (§§ 68, 8, 7).

¹⁴⁰ L!ox- TOSEND; -aau future passive (§ 56).

¹⁴¹ q- discriminative (§ 21); na'han personal pronoun 1st singular (§ 113).

¹⁴² waa- to say; -ai verbalizing (§ 75); -ūn direct object of third person (§§ 28, 8).

¹⁴³ L/xu- TO KNOW; $-\bar{u}i$ verbalizing (§§ 76, 9); $-\bar{u}n$ direct object of third person (§§ 28, 8).

¹⁴⁴ Temporal adverb (§ 120).

¹⁴⁵ tsī/k!ya VERY (§§ 121, 96); -nx 2d person singular (§ 24).

¹⁴⁶ sînxī- to desire (§ 4); -ū'nE passive (§§ 58, 8).

¹⁴⁷ Temporal adverb (§ 120).

¹⁴⁸ $sm\bar{u}t'$ - to end, to finish; $-t\bar{u}x$ future (§§ 73, 4).

¹⁴⁹ waa- to say; -ai verbalizing (§ 75); -ūtnE passive (§§ 58, 8).

 $^{^{150}}$ Contracted; for $na'm^E lin^E nx$ (§ 15); $n\dot{a}$ I (§ 113);-Eml relative (§§ 87, 9); -īn possessive 1st singular (§ 88); -nx 2d person singular (§§ 24, 4).

¹⁵¹ Particle of negation (§ 131).

¹⁵² a'mha WILLING; -aîtî possessive (§§ 88, 9).

¹⁵³ waa- TO SAY; -aun direct object of third person (§ 28).

 $^{^{154}}y\bar{a}a'xai$ Much (§ 121); -tx suffix indicating that object forms an inseparable part of the subject (§ 33), -n 1st person singular (§§ 24, 4).

¹⁵⁵ $s^Ea'tsa$ THUS (§ 121); -n 1st person singular (§ 24).

in my) TE''qEnx 165 waxa T'me. 110 SEa'tsanx 162 tE 33 k!aha'y Te. 111 Na'mE-Something thee it is given. Thus thou this art invited. te'q, 120 s^Ea'tsanx 162 tanx 115 likwa'yūts 166 qnà. 167 finx 150 SEatsī'thus thee this thee fetch I-thee I. relative, thou Thus tā'kîn 93 this I $m^{E}nx^{170}$ $na'm^{E}l^{171}$ $te'q.^{120}$ $S^{E}a'tsanx^{162}$ te^{33} $L\bar{1}u'\bar{u}ts^{172}$ this come I-thee relative. Thus thee me of Sî'nixyūtsanx 173 qnà 166 hūtca'wax. 174 SEa'tsanx 162 tE 33 L!ī'L!ūtūts. 175 _ I intend to play. Thus thou this approach I-thee. Want I-thee kumî'nte³⁸ k^unà ¹⁵⁶ te'q ¹²⁰ mī'k!a'na ⁸² not perhaps something badly S^Eatsī'tcīn ¹⁷⁶ ha¹: Thus my mind, nīxatc. 177 A'tsan 41 te 33 nà 178 L!ōxa'xam." - "Haū! 179 Tsī'k!yanx 146 Thus I this I am sent." — "Yes! ha¹." — "Kumî'ntc³⁸ kunà ¹⁵⁶ s^Eatsī'tc. ⁶¹ S^Ea'tsan ¹⁵⁵ tā'kîn ⁹³ nà ¹⁷⁸ mind." perhaps thus. Thus I this I

¹⁵⁶ Dubitative particle (§ 127).

¹⁵⁷ xaū- TO DIE (§ 112).

¹⁵⁸ ul THEN (§ 125); -n 1st person singular (§ 24); sEa'tsa ul THAT'S WHY.

¹⁵⁹ yāa'xai MUCH (§ 121); -aītī possessive (§§ 88, 9).

¹⁶⁰ txū JUST (§ 130); -nx 2d person singular (§ 24).

¹⁶¹ yax- TO SEE (§ 112).

¹⁶² $s^Ea'tsa$ THUS (§ 121); -nx 2d person singular (§ 24).

¹⁶³ hīis GOOD; -a modal (§ 96),

¹⁶⁴ haū- to make, to finish; -ai verbalizing (§§ 75, 8); -ime passive (§§ 38, 8).

¹⁶⁵ tE'q SOMETHING (§ 123); -nx 2d person singular (§§ 24, 4).

¹⁶⁶ lakū- to take, to fetch (§ 12); -ai verbalizing (§§ 75, 8); -ūts direct object of first and second persons (§ 29, Table, p. 480 and § 8).

¹⁶⁷ q-discriminative (§ 21); nà personal pronoun 1st singular (§ 113).

¹⁶⁸ Modal adverb (§§ 121, 96).

¹⁶⁹ wax- to give; -aume passive (§ 38); -nx 2d person singular (§ 24).

¹⁷⁰ nf'ctcim because (§ 128); -nx 2d person singular (§§ 24, 4).

¹⁷¹ nà personal pronoun 1st singular (§ 113); -Emi relative (§§ 87, 9).

¹⁷² LĪŪ- TO COME; -Ūts direct object of first and second persons (§ 29, Table, p 480, § 10).

¹⁷³ sinxi- to desire; -ūtsanx direct object of first and second persons I-thee (§ 29, Table, p. 473, § 8).

¹⁷⁴ hūtc- TO PLAY; -awax intentional (§ 70).

¹⁷⁵ Līū- TO APPROACH (§ 107); -t present (§ 72); -ūts direct object of first and second persons (§ 29 and Table, p. 480).

¹⁷⁶ s^E atsi'tc thus (§§ 121, 94); -in possessive 1st singular (§ 88).

¹⁷⁷ Objective form of personal pronoun 2d singular (§ 113).

¹⁷⁸ Personal pronoun 1st singular (§ 113).

¹⁷⁹ Particle of affirmation (§ 131).

¹e0 L/xmī- TO KILL; -ai verbalizing (§ 75); -nx 3d person plural (§ 24); -n 1st person singular (§§ 24, 4).

¹⁸¹ sinxi- to DESIRE; -ūts direct object of first and second persons (§§ 29, 8, Table, p. 480).

L!ōxa'xam. 75 SEatsī'tc61 nàts. 182 kūi 151 nàts 182 nà 178 L!ō'xvaxaŭ'nE. 183 Thus if not, not conditional I had been sent. Qa'tcintūnx 184 wàn?" 29 - "Qa'tcintūxan. 185 Hī'sanx 78 mā'nīsūts 186 now?" -"Go will I. Well thou shalt watch Start wilt thou qnī'xats." 187 waa'aūn, 153 "Haū!179 Atsī'tcīn 188 SEatsī'tc 61 he tells him. "All right! Thus my Thus Kumî'ntc 38 kunà 156 te'q 120 mī'k la'na 82 te 33 hūtcū'u 63 L la'ai." 4_ perhaps something bad-ly this fun "Haū, 179 qa'tcintūxan 185 wàn. 29 Kumî'ntc 38 te'q,120 xaū'wàn 29 now. now something, die start will I Not tūxan." 189 Seatsī'tc 61 waai'108 ul hī'q !aīt. 190 "Kumî'ntc38 kunà 156 Thus he says and "Not starts. wàn 29 s atsi'tc. 61 Qa'tcintūnx ?" 184 Atsī'tc⁷³ waa'a^ūn.¹⁵³ "Tsī'k!-Go wilt thou?" Thus he tells him. thus. qnà 166 sî'nixyūts. 181 A'l:tūtūnx 191 hūtcūu'stc." 56 Atsī'tc 73 like I-thee. Also shalt thou fun to." I waa'ūn. 192 "Qa'tcintūxan 185 wan." 29 uł wan 29 qa'tcint. 91 Cî'nix-"Go will I now." Then finally vat!īs 193 ants 60 hīte ła'kut!wî. 194 SEatsī'te 61 cî'n xvat!īs. 193 he thinks continually. fetcher. Thus on thinking that man Qa'tcintaux 195 wan. 29 Līwī'tcwax 196 wan 29 xînt. ułaux 197 s atsītc 61 go. So they two thus Go they two now. "Approach, man- now ner of, they two hīte." Te!haucya'xam 200 wan. 29 Wan 29 teī'n. T!emt!ma'xam 201 wan. 29

Gladness was felt now. Finally he He is assembled about now. returns. "Tsī'k!yanx 145 hīs tanx 115 Līū', ts'îl mū't. Hū'tetūnl 202 yā xa." 203 good this thou comest, Play will we much." "Very thou friend.

¹⁸² Particle (§ 131).

¹⁸³ L'ox- TO SEND; -yax past denoting conditionality (§§ 74, 136); -au ne passive (§ 58).

¹⁸⁴ Contracted; for qa'tcEntūxanx (§ 24); qatcn- To Go (§ 4); -tūx future (§ 73); -nx 2d person singular

¹⁸⁵ qaten- to Go (§ 4); -tūx future (§ 73); -n 1st person singular (§§ 24, 4).

¹⁸⁶ män- to watch; -is durative (§ 69); -üts direct object of first and second persons (§ 29, Table, p. 480).

¹⁸⁷ q-discriminative (§ 21); nīxats personal pronoun 2d singular (§ 113).

¹⁸⁸ atsī'tc thus (§§ 121, 94); -īn possessive 1st singular (§ 88).

¹⁸⁹ xaū- TO DIE; -tūx future denoting conditionality (§§ 73, 136); -n 1st person singular (§§ 24, 4).

¹⁹⁰ hīq!- to start, to commence; -ai verbalizing (§§ 75, 9); -t present (§ 72).

¹⁹¹ Contracted; for a'l·tūtūxanx (§ 24); a'l·dū Likewise (§§ 125, 135); -tūx future (§ 73); -nx 2d person singular (§§ 24, 4).

¹⁹² waa- to say; -ūn direct object of third person (§ 28).

¹⁹³ cînxī- to think (§ 4); -at/ī frequentative (§§ 68, 8); -īs durative (§§ 69, 9).

¹⁹⁴ laku- to take, to fetch; -t/wi nominal (§ 100).

¹⁹⁵ qatcn- TO GO (§ 4); -t present (§ 72); -aux 3d person dual (§ 24).

¹⁹⁸ $L\bar{\imath}\bar{u}$ - TO APPROACH; $-\bar{\imath}tc$ modal (§§ 94, 8); -wax transposed for -aux 3d dual (§§ 24, 13).

¹⁹⁷ ul THEN (§ 125); -aux 3d dual (§ 24).

¹⁹⁸ xumc- TO APPROACH, TO COME (§ 108); -aux 3d dual (§ 24).

¹⁹⁹ hīn- to take along; -ai verbalizing (§ 75); -ūn direct object of third person (§§ 28, 8).

²⁰⁰ Abbreviated; for tc/haucyaxxam (§15); tc/hacu- to feel glad (§ 12); -yax past (§ 74); -xam present passive (§§ 55, 15).

²⁰¹ tEmū- to assemble (§ 107); -xam present passive (§ 55).

²⁰² Contracted from hū'tctūxanl (§ 24); hūtc- TO PLAY; -tūx future (§ 73); -nl inclusive plural (§§ 24, 4).

⁹⁰³ yāax- MUCH; -a modal (§ 96).

Atsī'te 73 waa' ants 60 hīte. Temū'tx 22 hīteū'u 23 ants 60 Lla'ai. 4 Wal 204 says that man. Assemble (pl.) people those many. Although yāa'xai 19 ants 60 hīte, ut hai'mūt 205 qa'teint 91 sqaīkteī'te, 206 ants 60 L!a'ai.4 go now there to, manner, that crowd. those people, still all "Tsī'k!ya³ hīs tanx 115 Līū'. Yāa' xanxan 208 Łā'nīsūtne 207 ants 60 hītc. Is called con- that man. "Very good this thou comest. Much we tinually hūtcūi', 209 Hū'tctūns." 210_ '' Haū!" 179 SEatsī'tc 61 waa' ants 60 hītc. have fun. Play will we two." - "All right!" Thus says that "Ya'quhītūnx,211 kwīnx80 au'sīs.212 Yāa'xanxan208 hūtcūi'."209 Atsī'tc73 "Look shalt thou, not thou shalt sleep. Much we play." waa¹'sū'nE²¹³ ants⁶⁰ hīte. Wā'nwîts² ha'wa.²¹⁴ Sî'nixyū'nE 146 repeatedly told Long ago it is ready. that man. It is desired ts!îlna'tc²¹⁵ xawa'a^u, ²⁷ a^u'stūxax. ²¹⁶ Atsī'tc⁷³ ha'ūsīme. ²¹⁷ "Ts'îl'mū't, pitch with killed he shall when sleeper he Thus it is agreed. "Friend, be, will be. kwīnx 80 au'sīs. 212 Hū'tctūns." 210 Atsī'tc 73 wa'aīsū'nE. 213 "SEa'tsanx 162 not thou sleep con- Play will we two." Thus he is repeatedly told. tinually. tanx 115 k!aha'vūtne." 218 Seatsī'tc 61 waai'sūtne. 219 "Yāa'xai 19 L!a'ai 4 this thou art invited." Thus he is told continu-"Many nîcteama''nat'ū'wi 220 ants 60 tīyū'wi 221 hūteū'wi 222 K!īx 223 te'q 120 hūteal' 224 (of) inhabitants games. Each something uł Enx 225 yîxa'yūn. 226 SEa'tsanx 162 tanx 115 k!aha'yū'nE. 111 Tsī'k!v-Thus thou this thou seest it. art invited. anxan⁸⁷ hī'sītī²²⁷ ha¹. Kumî'ntc³⁸ tE'q¹²⁰ mī'k!a'na."82 Atsī'te 73 good is (our) heart. Not something badly." wa'aīsū'nE. 213 Teî'ntau 228 hīte Līwai', 229 ul atsī'te 73 waa'yūsne.230 he is repeatedly told. Whatever person comes, so he frequently was told (by him). thus

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204 Particle (§ 128).
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²⁰⁵ Numeral particle (§ 124).

²⁰⁶ sqaīk THERE (§ 119); -tc local of motion (§ 90); -ītc modal (§ 94).

²⁰⁷ ln- TO CALL BY NAME; -īsūtnE durative passive (§ 59).

²⁰⁸ yāax- MUCH; -a modal (§ 96); -nxan exclusive plural (§ 24).

²⁰⁹ hūtc- TO PLAY, TO HAVE FUN; -ūi verbalizing (§ 75).

²¹⁰ Contracted; for $\hbar \tilde{u}'tct\tilde{u}xans$ (§ 24); $\hbar \tilde{u}tc$ - To PLAY; $-t\tilde{u}x$ future (§ 73); -ns inclusive dual (§§ 24, 4). ²¹¹ Contracted; for $ya'qu\hbar \tilde{t}t\tilde{u}xanx$ (§ 24); yaqu'- To LOOK (§ 3); -ai verbalizing (§§ 75, 2); $-t\tilde{u}x$ future (§ 73); -nx 2d person singular (§§ 24, 4).

²¹² aus. To SLEEP (§ 12); -īs durative (§ 69).

²¹³ waa- TO SAY; -aīsū'nE durative passive (§§ 59, 9).

²¹⁴ haü- to make, to have ready (§ 112).

²¹⁵ ts/aln PITCH; -a locative case (§§ 86, 12); -tc adverbial (§ 90).

 $^{^{216}}aus$ - TO SLEEP (§ 12); $-t\bar{u}x$ future denoting conditionality (§§ 73, 136); -ax nominal (§ 101).

²¹⁷ haū YES (§ 131); -ūs durative (§§ 69, 9); -īmɛ passive (§ 38).

²¹⁸ k/a'- TO INVITE; (§ 3); -a' verbalizing (§ 75); -ūtnE passive (§§ 58, 8).

²¹⁹waa- TO SPEAK; -aisūtnE durative passive (§§ 59, 9).

²²⁰ nîctcama i'nat'- DIFFERENT; -ūwi plural (§ 79).

²²¹ tai- TO LIVE (§ 2); -ūwi nominal (§§ 97, 8).

²²² hūtc- to play, to have fun; -ūwi nominal (§ 97).

²²³ Numeral particle (§ 124).

²²⁴ hūtc- TO HAVE FUN; -ai nominal (§ 98).

²²⁵ ul THEN (§ 125); -nx 2d person singular (§§ 24, 4).

²²⁵ yax- To see (§ 12); -ai verbalizing (§ 75); -ūn direct object of third person (§§ 28, 8).

²²⁷ hīs GOOD; -ītī possessive (§ 88).

²²⁸pronominal particle (§ 123).

²²⁹ $L\bar{\imath}\bar{u}$ - TO COME; -ai verbalizing (§§ 75, 8).

²³⁰ waa- to say; -ai verbalizing (§ 75); -ūsnz durative passive (§§ 59, 8).

hīs tanx 115 Līū', ts'îl mū't. Wal 204 vā'tsa 231 "Tsī'k!va3 Although long time good this thou come, friend. $L!a'a', u' u' xn\bar{i}'wn\bar{i}s.^{232} Ya'quh\bar{i}t\bar{u}nx."^{211} u' s^{\epsilon}ats\bar{i}'tc^{61} wa'a^{\bar{i}}s\bar{u}'n\epsilon.^{213}$ crowd, still does continually. Look shalt thou." Then thus he is told repeatedly. "SEa'tsanxan²³³ klaha'yūts.²³⁴ Yāa'xaⁱ¹⁹ hūteū'^{wi}, 63 Wàn²⁹ hīna'a^u, 235 fun." invite we-thee. Much Finally he taken will be tcīk 236 ants 60 hūtcū'u 63 Lla'ai. 4 Sqaīk 237 hīna'au. 235 Ma'ltcū'nE 238 that fun great. There he taken Fire is made (in) where will be. hītsī'i.239 vîkt 240 ants 60 hītsī'i,239 ants 60 Wal 204 tā'qnîs Although house, big that Stīm 242 ya'quhait243 ants 60 "Tī'kEnxan 244 hītū'stc.241 hīte. that "Here we There man. qnà." 167 ta'nxan²⁴⁵ hūteūⁱ',²⁰⁹ ta'nxan²⁴⁵ k!aha'yūts²³⁴ Hai'qmas 246 these we play, these we invite we-thee I." Alongside ants 60 Līya'a^ū. 249 tī' xam 247 Līva'watc.248 Q!a'īł "Yaxau'wite 250 "Multitude kind of he is seated fire at. Pitch that fire. va'quhaitūn."251 Atsī'te 73 cî'nixvat!īs 103 r.la'ai4 hītc ants 60 look at now I," Thus keeps on thinking Ma'ltcū'ne 238 ants 60 hītsī'i. 230 "Kwīnx 80 au'sīs 212 ts'îl mū't. Fire is built (in) that house. "Not thou always sleep, friend. ta'nxan²⁴⁵ waa'yūts¹²² qnà ¹⁶⁷ Līwa'wanx." ²⁵²— "Haū! ¹⁷⁰ tsī'k! yan ²⁵³ tell we-thee I intend to come thou."- "All right! hī'sītī²²⁷ ha¹. Yaqu'ya'waxan²⁵⁴ hūtcūu'stc⁵⁶ L!aya'."²⁵⁵ Atsī'tc⁷³ wa'a¹s²⁵⁶ good (my) mind. Intend to look I fun at Thus says continually great at." Hai'qmas 246 tī'xam 247 Līya'wa. 257 Ya'quhīsū'ne. 258 ants 60 hite. Close by He is continually watched. man. he is seated fire.

²³¹ Temporal adverb (§ 120).

²³² xnīwn- TO DO; -īs durative (§ 69).

²³³ $s^E a'tsa$ - THUS (§§ 121, 96); -nxan exclusive plural (§ 24).

²³⁴ k/a'- TO INVITE (§ 3); -ai verbalizing (§ 75); -ūts direct object of first and second persons (§ 29, Table, p.480, § 8).

²³⁵ hin- to take along; -aau future passive (§ 56).

²³⁶ Particle (§ 131).

²³⁷ Local adverb (§ 119).

²³⁸ maltc- TO BURN: -ū'nE passive (§ 58).

²³⁹ See § 98.

²⁴⁰ See § 104.

²⁴¹ hītū's locative form of hītc (§ 86); -tc adverbial (§ 90).

²⁴² Local adverb (§ 119).

²⁴³ yaqu'- TO LOOK (§ 3); -ai verbalizing (§§ 75, 9); -t present (§ 72).

²⁴⁴ tīk HERE (§ 119); -nxan exclusive plural (§§ 24, 4).

²⁴⁵ tāak THIS (§ 115); -nxan exclusive plural (§§ 24, 16).

²⁴⁶ Local adverb (§ 119).

²⁴⁷ tai to sit (§ 2); -xam present passive (§ 55).

²⁴³ $L\bar{i}ya'a\bar{u}$ FIRE (§ 97); -a locative case (§§ 86,8); -tc local (§ 90).

²⁴⁹ See § 97

²⁵⁰ yax- MANY; -aūwi nominal (§ 97); -ītc modal (§§ 94, 9).

 $^{^{251}}yaq^{u^*}$ -To Look; (§3); -a: verbalizing (§75); -t present (§72); - $\bar{u}n$ direct object of third person (§28). 252 Contracted from Līwa'waxanx (§ 24); Līw-To come; -awax intentional (§§ 70, 8); -nx 2d person singular (§§ 24, 4).

²⁵³ tsī/k!ya VERY (§ 121); -n 1st person singular (§ 24).

²⁵⁴ yaqu'- TO LOOK (§ 3); -awax intentional (§§ 70, 8); -n 1st person singular (§§ 24, 4).

²⁵⁵ L!a'ai particle (§ 133); -a locative case (§§ 86, 8).

²⁵⁶ waa- TO SAY; -ais durative (§§ 69, 9).

²⁵⁷ Līya'aū FIRE (§ 97); -a locative case (§§ 86, 8).

²⁵⁸ yaqu'- TO LOOK (§ 3); -īsū'nE durative passive (§§ 59, 9).

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Wusya'aist 259 ants 60 mī'kla hītc. L!īL!wī'sūtnE 260 wan. 29 "Kwīnx 80
  Begins to feel that bad man, He is continually now.
                                                                            "Not thou
     sleepy
                                                approached
au'sīs, 212
               ya'quhīsEnx.261
                                    A'tsanxan<sup>262</sup>
                                                         ta'nxan 245
                                                                          waa'yūts 122
               always look thou.
                                        Thus we
                                                           these we
                                                                           tell we-thee
always sleep,
                                       au'sīs,<sup>212</sup> ya'quhīs<sup>E</sup>nx.<sup>261</sup>
Līwa'wanx, 252
                     Kwīnx 80
                                                                             Atsī'te 73
                                     sleep always,
intend to come thou.
                     Not thou
                                                       watch always thou.
                                                                                 Thus
tanx 115 k!aha'yū'nE. 111 Hī's nxan 263 hawa 'tx 264 ha'." Wusya'a st 259
                                   Good we
                                                  make our heart." Begins to feel sleepy
this thou art invited.
         mî'ck'la<sup>ī</sup>.<sup>265</sup> Ya'q<sup>u</sup>hīsu'nE.<sup>258</sup>
ants 60
                                                      Ha'ūsīme 266 ants 60 ts!aln.
          bad man. He is constantly watched. Is made ready for him that
S^{\rm E}a^{\rm i}na'tc^{\,267} xawa'a''. {\rm L}ar{\rm I}'war{\rm I}s^{\rm u'}nE^{\,268} ants ^{60} mEq{\rm !y}ar{\rm u}'^{\rm u\,269} That with killed he will be. He is constantly those dancers
                                                                                 L.19/ai 4
                                  approached by
"Hai'qa<sup>I</sup>teya, <sup>270</sup> ts'îl mū't, mîlte I'xmīnx." Atsī'te <sup>73</sup> wa'a sū'n E. <sup>213</sup>
  "Shore-like from, friend, thou mayest get burned." Thus he is constantly told.
"Kwīnx 80 au'sīs 212 ts'îl mū't."—"Wusya'a stîn." 272 Meg!yū'u 269
                always sleep friend." — "Begin to feel sleepy I." Dance (pl.)
L!a'ai. 4 Ausî's. 273 "Hai'qa<sup>I</sup>teya, 270 mîlteī'xmīnx." 271 Te!hau'eīsūtne. 274
                        "Shore-like from, mayest get burned Gladness is constantly
          He sleeps.
                                                thou."
                                                                            felt.
Sea'tsa 3 xawa'au. 27 Wusya'aist 259 wan. 29 Atsī'te 73 wa'aisūtne, 219
           killed he will be. He begins to sleep finally,
                                                             Thus he is constantly told,
                     "Shore-like from, mayest get burned" mîtcī'xmīnx." 271
                                                                   Kūi 151 cî'l xīł. 276
cî'l'xīsūtnE.275
                                          mayest get burned Not he
 he is shaken con-
     stantly.
                                                  thou."
                                           L!ivaxaū'wi 278
uł wan 29 gaa'xam 277
                               ants 60
                                                               ts!aln.
                                                                          MEQ!VU'u 269
              is brought in
                                that
                                                 boiled
                                                                            Dance (pl.)
So finally
                                                               pitch.
L!a'ai, 4
           "Hai'qaitcva<sup>270</sup> ts'îl'mū't."
                                                   Kū<sup>i 151</sup>
                                                              kwī'sīł,279
                                                                             tsī'k!va³
          "Shore-like from
                                     friend."
                                                    Not
                                                              wakes up not,
ausî's. 273 Atsī'te 73 waa'. "A'nxaūtsateî. 280 Łīyaxa'waxan 281 ausa'wax." 282
            Thus he says. "Leave alone you-me. A while intend I
he sleeps.
                                                                        sleep intend."
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259 wusi- to feel sleepy; -ai verbalizing (§ 75); -st inchoative (§ 66).
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²⁶⁰ Līū- TO APPROACH (§ 107); -īsūtnE durative passive (§§ 59, 8).

²⁶¹ yaqu -TO LOOK (§ 3); -7s durative (§ 69); -nx 2d person singular (§§ 24, 4).

²⁶² a'tsa THUS (§ 121); -nxan exclusive plural (§ 24).

²⁶³ hīis GOOD; -nxan exclusive plural (§§ 24, 4). 264 haū-to make; -attx suffix indicating that object forms an inseparable part of the subject (§§ 33,8).

²⁶⁵ See § 98. 266 ha'ūs READY, DONE; -īme passive (§ 38).

²⁶⁷ $s^E a^{i'} n a$ HE, THAT ONE (§ 115); -tc adverbial (§ 90).

²⁶⁸ Līu- TO APPROACH; -īsū'n E durative passive (§§ 59, 8).

²⁶⁹ maq!ī- TO DANCE; -ūu nominal (§§ 97, 8).

²⁷⁰ haiq shore (§ 119); -aitc modal (§ 94); -ya local (§ 93).

²⁷¹ maltc- to burn (§ 12); -īxmî intransitive exhortative (§ 63); -ī future passive (§ 56, 9); -nx 2d person singular (§ 24).

²⁷² wusi- to feel sleepy; -ai verbalizing (§ 75); -st inchoative (§ 66); -n 1st person singular (§§ 24, 4).

²⁷³ asu- TO SLEEP (§§ 12, 108).

²⁷⁴tc/hacu- TO BE GLAD (§ 12); -īsūtnE durative passive (§ 59).

²⁷⁵ cîl·x- TO SHAKE, TO MOVE; -isūtnE durative passive (§ 59).

²⁷⁶ cîl·x- TO MOVE, TO SHAKE; -īl negative (§ 53).

²⁷⁷ qaa- to enter; -xam present passive (§ 55).

 $²⁷⁸L/\bar{i}xu$ - TO BOIL (§§ 112, 7); $-a\bar{u}wi$ nominal (§§ 97, 9).

²⁷⁹ kwis- to WAKE UP; -il negative (§ 53).

²⁰⁰ anx- to let alone; -aūlsatct direct object of first and second persons You-me (§ 29, Table, p. 473, and \$\$ 24, 4).

²⁸¹ tiyax- A WHILE (§§ 126, 135); -awax intentional (§ 70); -n 1st person singular (§§ 24, 4).

²⁸² asu- TO SLEEP (§ 12); -awax intentional (§ 70).

uł wan 29 ci'ni xyaxam 283 s atsī'tc: 61 "Qail 284 wan 29 au'stūx." 285 it was thought "Let thus: now he sleep shall." now Ła'qwīs 286 ants 60 ts!ałn L!ivaxaū'wi.278 Atsī'tc 73 waa'xam.65 "Qaīl 284" Boils conthat pitch boiled. Thus it is said. tinually

wàn 29 au'stūx. 285 Hai'ga Iteva, 270 ts'îl mū't." Kū 151 cî'l xīl. 276 ul he sleep shall. Shore, manner, from, friend." Not he moves not. Then

wan 29 xūun.

now he snores.

Ha^I'mūt²⁰⁵ L!a'al 4 te'q 120 łokwI'xam. 287 Teîmtea'mî 288 łokwI'xam. 287 many something is seized.

Kā'stitūx, 289 ul txū 113 teîmtca'myatc 290 xawa'au. 27 ul wàn 29 xūun. Get up will he, then just ax with killed he will be. And now he snores, Łk!a'atc²⁹¹ Laa' uł wàn 29 haū'tx 292 hītcū'u, 23 Tsī'k!va3 xūun. Open his mouth he-snores. Then finally Very quit (pl.) people.

tcīmā'nīsū'nE. 293 'L!xmīya'yūnanł. 294 SEa'sEnl 295 k!ixa'yūts, 296 he is watched "Kill him will we. us kills he-us, constantly.

 $s^{E}a'tsanl^{297} L!xm\overline{i}ya'y\overline{u}n.^{"298} Lokw\overline{i}'xam^{287} wan^{29} ants^{60} L!^{i}yaxa^{\overline{u}'wi}.^{278} \\ thus we kill will him." Is seized now that boiled (pitch).$

"Hai'qaiteya²⁷⁰ ts'îl'mū't, mîlteī'xmīnx." ²⁷¹ Kumî'nte ³⁸ cî'l'xīl. ²⁷⁶ friend, mayest get burned thou." "Shore-like, from Not he moves not. wàn 29 xwākī'tc 299 tī'xam 247 ants 60 L!ivaxaū'wi. 278 Tc!haucu'wi 300 head on is placed that boiled (pitch). Glad are (pl.) L 2 al 4 SEA 66 ants 60 ata's 301 mag!ī'nūtne.302 Hūva'ūltx 128 that it is danced for. Is changed on him his those many. He only (one)

²⁸³ cînxī- to think (§ 4); -yax past (§§ 74, 8); -xam present passive (§§ 55, 15).

²⁸⁴ Exhortative particle (§ 129).

²⁸⁵ asu- To SLEEP (§ 12); -tūx future (§ 73).

²⁸⁶ laqu- TO BOIL; -īs durative (§§ 69, 8).

²⁸⁷ Instead of lakwī/xam (§§ 11, 14); laku- To TAKE; -ai verbalizing (§§ 75, 2); -xam present passive (§ 55).

²⁸⁸ See § 109.

²⁸⁹ kast- TO GET UP; -tūx future denoting conditionality (§§ 73, 136, 4).

²⁹⁰ tcimtca'mi Ax (§ 109); -a locative case (§§ 86, 8); -tc adverbial (§ 90).

²⁹¹ lk/aa- to open one's mouth; -tc possessive 3d singular (§ 88).

²⁹² haū- TO QUIT; -tx plural (§ 80).

²⁹³ tcīmān- TO WATCH; -īsū'nE durative passive (§ 59).

²⁹⁴ L/xmī- TO KILL; -ai verbalizing (§§ 75, 8); -yūn exhortative with direct object of third person (§§ 41, 8); -nl inclusive plural (§§ 24, 4).

²⁹⁵ $s^Ea's$ HE (§ 115); -nl inclusive plural (§§ 24, 4).

²⁰⁸ k!ix- to DISAPPEAR; -ai verbalizing (§ 75); -ūts direct object of first and second persons (§ 29, Table, p. 480, and § 8).

²⁹⁷ $s^Ea'tsa$ THUS (§§ 121, 96); -nl inclusive plural (§ 24).

²⁹⁸ L!xm7- TO KILL; -a; verbalizing (§§ 75, 8); -yūn exhortative with direct object of third person (§§ 41, 9).

²⁹⁹ xwaki' locative form of xwā'ka HEAD (§ 86); -tc local (§ 90).

⁸⁰⁰ tc/hacu- TO FEEL GLAD (§ 12); $-\bar{u}wi$ plural (§ 79).

⁸⁰¹ Restrictive particle (§ 130).

³⁰² maq!ī- TO DANCE; -īn verbal (§§ 81, 9); -ūtnE passive (§ 58).

s^Ea'tsa.³ SEa'tsa 8 ants 60 meg | vū'u 269 L!a'ai, 4 uł wàn 29 skwaha', 303 Thus those many. Then finally he stands up, mind thus. dance (pl.) ants 60 L!iyaxaū'wi.278 u} stīm 242 skwahaŭ'wi 304 L!a'ai 4 Łokwī'xam 287 that boiled (pitch). Is seized And there stand (pl.) hai'mūt 205 ants 60 tcîmtcî'mya.305 Wal 204 vāa'xai19 tE'q,120 axes with (are). Although all those much something, still pī'ūme. 306 u} kumî'ntc 38 kwī'sīł.279 "Qwa"nyūx 307 temà '308 noise is made Still he wakes up not. "Pour it it is better with it. wàn 29 Laava'tc!" 309 qū'nī'xamīmE.310 Txū 113 uł mî'ltcîstx 311 Laa'. it is poured into (his mouth). mouth into!" now Just begins to burn his Stīm 242 L!a'ai 4 ma'q!īs.312 Mî'ltcîst 313 ants 60 hītc. Mî'ltcîstx 311 There many keep on dancing. Begins to burn that man. Begins to burn his hai'mūt²⁰⁵ hī'qūi. Stīm 242 wàn 29 yāk!ī'tcyaxam³¹⁴ xwā'kate 315 hair. There finally was cut into pieces head his tcîmtca'myatc.290 Stīm 242 tqū'nīs316 ants 60 mī'k!a hītc. Xauwī'-There diffuses smoke ax with. that bad man. Killed constantly tE 33 mī'k!a hītc. this had was person. Sqaik 237 wàn 29 ata's 301 hawai'.318 Kni 151 nàts 182 s^Ea'tsa³ it ends. There now only Not if thus xa'waaxaūtne,319 nàts 182 mī'k!a Lla'ai, 4 SEa'tsa3 uł tsī'k!ya³ he had been killed, then conditional very bad world. xauwi'xamvax 317 mī'k!a hitc. SEatsī'tc 61 wàn 29 ata's 301 Thus was killed bad man. finally only Sqaik 237 wā'nwîtsaxax 320 nîctcîma^emū.³²¹ wàn 29 smît'ūi'. 322 old-timers (of) custom. There finally it ends.

³⁰³ skwa'- TO STAND (§§ 3, 112).

^{**} skwa'- TO STAND (§ 3); -aŭwi plural (§ 79).

³⁰⁵ tcîmtca'mî AX (§ 109); -a locative case (§§ 86, 12, 8).

²⁰⁶ piū- to make noise; -ūme passive (§§ 38, 9).

³⁰⁷ qū'n- TO POUR (§§ 7, 112); •yūx imperative with indirect object of third person (§ 43).

⁸⁰⁸ Exhortative particle (§ 129).

²⁰⁹ Laaya' locative form of Laa' MOUTH (§ 86); -tc local (§ 90).

 $²¹⁰ q\bar{u}$ 'n- To Pour; $-\bar{i}$ (-ai) verbalizing (§§ 75, 2); -xam present passive (§ 55); - \bar{i} mE passive (§ 38).

²¹¹ Contracted from $mt'ltctst^Etx$ (§ 15); maltc- TO BURN (§ 3); -st inchoative (§§ 66, 4); -tx suffix indicating that object forms an inseparable part of the subject (§ 33).

⁸¹² mag/ī- TO DANCE; -īs durative (§§ 69, 9).

³¹³ maltc- TO BURN (§ 3); -st inchoative (§§ 66, 4).

³¹⁴ Contracted from $y\bar{a}k/\bar{i}'tcyaxxam$ (§ 15); $y\bar{a}k'$ - small; - $\bar{i}'c$ modal (§ 94); -yax past (§ 74); -xam present passive (§§ 55, 57).

³¹⁵ xwā'ka HEAD; -tc possessive 3d singular (§ 88).

 $^{^{216}}tq\bar{u}n\bar{i}'i$ smoke (§ 98); $-\bar{i}s$ durative (§§ 69, 9).

²¹⁷ xaū- TO DIE; -ai verbalizing (§§ 75, 2, 8, 11); -xamyax past passive (§ 57).

⁸¹⁸ $ha\bar{u}$ - to end, to finish; -a; verbalizing (§§ 75, 8).

sig Evidently for $xa'\bar{u}yaxa^{\bar{u}tnE}$; $xa\bar{u}$ - to die; yax past denoting conditionality (§§ 74, 136); $-a\bar{u}tnE$ passive (§ 58).

⁸²⁰ $w\bar{a}'nwits$ Long ago (§ 120); -ax nominal (§§ 101, 108).

⁸²¹ See § 103.

⁸²² smūt'- TO END, TO FINISH (§ 12); $-\bar{u}^i$ verbalizing (§ 75).

[Translation]

(It happened) long ago. The world was very bad long ago. Everywhere it was so, and this was the cause of it: A bad person was devouring (the people). Grizzly Bear was devouring them long ago. Whenever a man went out hunting, he would kill and devour him. Many people felt sorry because of that. So one day the people came together and tried to devise some remedy. (They all agreed that Grizzly) must be killed. For that reason they came together. Then the chiefs of that region said, "We feel very sorry, but how are we going to kill him? He can not be killed by means of arrows: hence we don't want to kill him with an arrow." Then finally someone suggested to go and see how Grizzly lived, and to invite him (to come to the meeting-place). So one man went in search of him. And (when the messenger) came to Grizzly's residence, (he said,) "You, too, are invited to come to the play-grounds." But Grizzly Bear was not willing to go: hence the messenger went back, and, upon returning, related thus: "He does not want (to come)." (In the mean while) the people who had assembled had lots of fun. (Then after a while another messenger was sent), and the man who was about to go was told thus: "We won't give up. When he is dead, then we will give up." Thus it was repeatedly asserted.

Then finally the man was ordered to go. He was a very poor man. "Speak to him carefully, don't tell him anything bad. Tell him thus: 'We want you to come here. We are going to have lots of fun.' Thus you shall tell him. Don't tell him anything bad. He is shrewd and very bad." Then that man started out, thinking (a great deal) to himself, for he was very much afraid (of Grizzly). (And when he came to Grizzly, he said,) "I come here as a messenger." (He then told him his mission and departed. Not long afterwards Grizzly's friends came to visit him and inquired about the messenger's mission). One of them said, "What did the man tell you who came (here)?"-"He said nothing (of importance). I was simply informed that I am invited (to some games). Thus he told me: 'People want you to come very much. For that purpose I came here as a messenger." (After a while another messenger was sent to Grizzly, requesting him to come at once.) Then (Grizzly) said thus (to the messenger): "Will anything be given to me, if I come?"-"Nothing was said (about that). People are just playing, and that's why you are invited to come." (Then Grizzly said), "You tell them thus: 'He wants something. If something be given to him, then he will come.' Thus he says to you."

(The messenger went back to his people and told them what Grizzly said). And he (furthermore) said, "He is shrewd. He thinks (of not coming), because he has killed (so many) people. That's why he is shrewd." Thus the messenger said. "He was (evidently) told (by some friend) that a dance had been arranged for the purpose of changing his (mean) disposition, and that everybody dislikes him. That's why he replied, 'If something be given to him, then he will come.' That's why he told me (so)."

Then another messenger went to Grizzly. "You tell him thus: 'A knife will be given to you.' Thus tell him. 'You shall start right away, you are invited to come. Many people are playing (there), and it is desirable that you should come.' Thus you tell him." And that messenger kept on thinking, "I will speak to him. I know what to tell him, so that he will start right away." Then the messenger started. "I will speak to him, and he will start right away." Thus he was thinking as he kept on going. Finally he came to (Grizzly, and said), "A messenger I come. You are wanted very much. Pretty soon the games will come to an end, and for that reason I was told (to come here). You are my relative. Why don't you want to go?" And (Grizzly) answered him thus: "I am wise, that's why I don't want to go. It seems to me that I am simply wanted (there) to be killed. That's why I am wise."—"Not so, they want you to see (the fun). For that purpose (only) you are wanted. Their intentions toward you are good. A present will be given to you. For that reason you are invited. You are my relative, hence I (came to) fetch you. That's why I came quickly. A knife will be given to you, because you are invited. I came right away, since you are my relative. The reason why I came to you is because I want you to have some fun. That's why I came to you. I don't think that anything bad will happen to you. That's why I was sent." (And Grizzly answered,) "Yes, you are a bad man. They want to kill me, that's why I don't want (to go)."—"I don't think (it will be) thus. (Not) for that purpose I was sent. If it were as you say, I should not have been sent. Will you go now?"-"I shall go. You will have to take

good care of me." And (the messenger) said thus to (Grizzly): "All right, I don't think that anything bad will happen (to you) on the part of those who play (there)."—"All right, I will go. I don't care, even if I die." Thus said (Grizzly) as he started. "I don't think (it will be) as (bad as you imagine). Are you coming?" Thus said (the messenger) to him. "I should very much like to have you, too, at these games." Finally (Grizzly) said, "I will go." So he started. And the man who came to fetch him was thinking continually. He was thinking thus.

Now they two kept on going; and when they were almost there, the two (chiefs) were told, "They two are coming. He is bringing that bad man." So everybody was glad; and when he arrived, people assembled about him. "It's very good that you came, O friend! We shall have a great deal of fun." Thus everybody said (to him). Many people assembled (around him). Although there were many of them, still they all went there (to Grizzly), shouting, "It's very good that you came. We will play a great deal. We two will play." (Then Grizzly would say,) "All right."—"You shall watch (us). You sha'n't sleep. We will play a great deal." Thus he was constantly told. (Everything) had been made ready long ago. It had been decided to kill him with pitch during his sleep. Thus it had been agreed upon. "Friend, don't sleep! we two will play." Thus people kept on telling him. "For that reason you were invited." Thus he was told. "People who live here know different kinds of games, and you will witness all kinds of fun. For that purpose you have been invited. We are well disposed (towards you). No mishap will befall you." Thus he was constantly told. Whoever came in would tell him thus. "It's very good that you came, O friend! You will see, they will play for a long time." And he would (also) be told, "That's why we invited you. There is going to be a great deal of fun."

At last he was taken to the play-grounds. A fire was started in the house, which, although very large, was nevertheless full of people. Grizzly Bear was looking there. "Here we play, those who have invited you." He was seated near the fire, which consisted of pitch. "It seems to me I see (too) many people." Thus Grizzly was thinking. And the fire in the house kept burning. "Don't sleep, O friend! (Not) for that purpose we asked you to come (here)."—"All

right! I am glad. I intend to watch the fun." Thus Grizzly was saying, seated close to the fire. He was constantly watched.

(After a while) he began to feel sleepy. Then people kept on approaching him, (saying,) "Don't sleep, look on! For that purpose we invited you. We have abandoned all our hatred." (Again) he began to feel sleepy, (and again) he was constantly watched. The pitch with which he was going to be killed was made ready; while many dancers went to him, (saying,) "Move away from the fire, you may get burned, friend!" Thus they were telling him. "Don't sleep, friend!"-"I feel sleepy." People kept on dancing, while he began to fall asleep. "Move away from the fire, you may get burned!" Everybody was glad, because he was going to be killed. At last he began to sleep. Then people kept on shaking him, saying to him thus: "Move away from the fire, you may get burned!" But he did not move. So the boiling pitch was brought in, while the people kept on dancing (and saying), "Move away from the fire, friend!" But he did not get up. He was very sleepy, and (merely) said, "Leave me alone! I intend to sleep a while." So the people thought thus: "Let him sleep." And while the pitch kept on boiling, they said, "Let him sleep. Move away from the fire, O friend!" But he did not move, and (soon) commenced to snore.

Then people took hold of all kinds of things. They seized axes, (because it had been decided that as soon as) he should wake up, they would kill him with an ax. He was snoring, keeping his mouth wide open. Then the people got ready. They watched him closely. "We will kill him, because he has killed (so many of) us." Then the boiling pitch was seized, (and one man shouted,) "Move away from the fire, friend, you may get burned!" But he did not move. Then they held the boiling pitch over his head, and everybody was glad, for the dance had been arranged with the purpose in view of getting rid of (the consequences of) his mean disposition. For that purpose so many people had been dancing. Finally (one man) stood up and took hold of the boiling pitch. And around Grizzly there were standing many armed with axes. They made noise with all kinds of implements, but he did not wake up. (Then one man said,) "Better pour it into his mouth!" So it was poured into his mouth, which began to burn (right away). And the people kept on dancing,

(as Grizzly Bear) was consumed (gradually) by the fire. His hair got burned, and then his head was cut into pieces with an ax. And while suffering death, he was constantly diffusing smoke.

Here (the story) ends. If (Grizzly Bear) had not been killed, this would have been a very bad place. Thus that man was killed. Such was the custom of people living long ago. Here at last it ends.

INVOCATION OF RAIN¹

Kluxwînai'tx2 Lla'ai 3 Yāa'xai ū'ltī 4 L!avū's.5 Nā'qutyax⁶ Ice (has on) its (body) world. Much ground on. Cold became snow Kūi 8 nî'ctca 9 qa'tcwīł 10 ants 11 L!a'ai. 3 L!a'ai,3 k!uxwînai'7 L!a'ai, 3 universe, ice has world. Not how drink not that gatcūi'txaūtne.15 Pā'l·ū 12 ata's 13 ul 14 Haya'mūt16 hivàtc17 gatcūi'only then it is drunk from. ATT people Wai'19 yāa'xai hīte, uli sqaīk 20 qateūi'tx.21 Tcī'wa 22 ul 14 Although many people, still there drink (pl.). Water on k!uxwînai'.7 Kū¹⁸ nî'ctca 9 tcaītcī'tc23 nî'ctcīł²⁴ ants¹¹ tīyū'wi.25 Not manner where manner go not those inhabitants. Qauxa¹′x²⁶ k!u^xwînīvū′s²⁷ gatc^Enatū'u 28 ants 11 hīte L!a'ai.3 Top along ice on go (pl.) those people many. wàn 29 texmîl·a'mî 30 L!xū'yūn 31 ants 11 wā'nwîtsaxax 32 nîctcîma mū. 33 people old know it that long ago people

¹ See Leo J. Frachtenberg, Lower Umpqua Texts (Columbia University Contributions to Anthropology, vol. 1v, pp. 76 et seq.)

 $^{^{2}}$ $k/uxw\bar{v}n$ - ICE (§ 12); $-a\bar{v}tx$ suffix indicating that object forms an inseparable part of the subject (§ 33).

³ Particle (§ 133).

⁴ See § 98.

⁵ L/a'ai GROUND (§ 133); · us locative case (§§ 86, 9, 8).

⁶ naqut- TO BE COLD; -yax past (§ 74).

⁷ k!uxwīn- ICE (§ 12); -ai verbalizing (§ 75).

⁸ Particle of negation (§ 131).

⁹ Particle (§ 131).

¹⁰ qatcū- TO DRINK; -īl negative (§§ 53, 8).

¹¹ Demonstrative pronoun (§ 115).

¹² See § 97.

¹⁸ Restrictive particle (§ 130).

¹⁴ Conjunction (§ 125).

¹⁵ $qatc\bar{u}$ - To Drink; $-\bar{u}i$ verbalizing (§§ 75, 9); -tx plural (§ 80); $-a\bar{u}tnE$ passive (§ 58).

¹⁶ Discriminative form of hai'mūt ALL (§§ 111, 124).

¹⁷ Discriminative form of hitc Person (§§ 111, 7).

¹⁹ qateū- to drink; -ūi verbalizing (§ 75); -tx plural (§ 80); -aūn direct object of third person (§ 28).

¹⁹ l'article (§ 128).

²⁰ Local adverb (§ 119).

²¹ $qatc\bar{u}$ - TO DRINK; $-\bar{u}i$ verbalizing (§§ 75, 9); -tx plural (§ 80).

²² $tc\bar{\imath}$ WATER (§ 88); -a locative case (§§ 86, 8).

²³ Particle (§§ 131, 94, 108).

²⁴ ni'ctca MANNER (§§ 131, 135); -il negative (§§ 53, 9).

²⁵ tai-, $t\bar{\imath}$ - TO LIVE (§ 2); $-\bar{u}wi$ nominal (§§ 97, 8).

²⁶ qaux HIGH, TOP (§ 119); -aīx local (§ 92).

²⁷ k/uxwī'nī ICE (§§ 98, 12); -ūs locative case (§§ 86, 8).

²⁸ qaten- TO GO (§ 4); -t present (§§ 72, 4); -ūu plural (§ 79).

²⁹ Temporal particle (§ 126).

³⁰ Discriminative form of texmi'l·mä (§ 111); texam strong; -il·mä augmentative (§ 84).

³¹ L/xu- TO KNOW; -ūi verbalizing (§§ 75, 9); -ūn direct object of third person (§§ 28, 8).

³² wā'nwîts LONG AGO (§ 119); -ax nominal (§§ 101, 108).

⁸³ See § 103.

	ants ¹¹ tcîxnī'n that Raccoon,		ed at also	ants ¹¹ that
tsxu'nplī.36 Lāna Coyote. He is c	at!I'yūsne,37 "alled constantly,		xnī'nE, hî'n taccoon, to rai	
L!a'ai!3 Wa'aīs ³⁹ world! Tell to				
Nākwa'yatyanxan,	nEqū'txar			
łānat!ī'yūsne:37 he is called continually:		teîxnī'nE, h		
Mō'luptsînī'sla,41 Coyote,	hî'n ^e k!ītsxats ⁴² to rain cause ye two your			
L!a'ai.3 Haya'mū universe. All	•			ułauX 49 and they two
tqūlī'yūsnE, ³⁴ ul are shouted at the continually,	n finally ca	Ek!ya''tx ⁵⁰ L! uses to rain we s (body)		48 ul 14
tqūłū''nE, ⁵¹ ants ⁵ it is shouted, when				
	hawa ¹ ′. 55 Sm it ends. If			Tā'kîn ⁵⁷ This I
L!xū'yūn. ³¹ know it.				

³⁴ $tq\bar{u}l$ - TO SHOUT; -ai (-i) verbalizing (§§ 75, 2); - $\bar{u}snz$ durative passive (§§ 59, 8).

³⁵ Conjunction (§ 125).

³⁶ See § 98.

³⁷ ln- TO CALL; -at!ī frequentative (§ 68); -usnE durative passive (§§ 59, 8).

³⁸ $\hbar \hat{\imath} n^{\epsilon} k/\bar{\imath}$ - TO RAIN; -ai (- $\bar{\imath}$) verbalizing (§§ 75, 2, 9); -tsx imperative (§ 47).

³⁰ waa- to speak; -ais transitive imperative (§§ 62, 9).

⁴⁰ Demonstrative pronoun (§ 115).

⁴¹ Alsea term for COYOTE.

⁴² $hin^{\epsilon}k$. To rain; -ai (-1) verbalizing (§§ 75, 9, 2); -tsx imperative (§ 47); -ts 2d person dual (§§ 24, 4)

⁴³ nākwa'yat- to be poor; -nxan exclusive plural (§§ 24, 4, 8).

⁴⁴ Contracted from $nEqut\bar{u}i'txanxan$ (§ 15); naqut- to BE COLD (§ 12); $-\bar{u}i$ verbalizing (§ 75); -tx suffix indicating that object forms an inseparable part of subject (§ 33); -nxan exclusive plural (§§ 24, 4).

⁴⁵ yāax- MUCH; -a modal (§ 96).

⁴⁶ $h\hat{\imath}n^{\varepsilon}k/\bar{\imath}$ - TO RAIN; -ai verbalizing (§§ 75, 8).

⁴⁷ hanînît!- TO BELIEVE; -ūn direct object of third person (§ 28).

⁴⁸ Modal adverb (§§ 121, 96).

⁴⁹ ul THEN (§ 125); -aux 3d person dual (§ 24).

 $[\]omega$ hinthing to Rain; -ai verbalizing (§§ 75, 8); -tx suffix indicating that object forms an inseparable part of subject (§ 33).

⁵¹ $tq\bar{u}l$ - TO SHOUT; $-\bar{u}'nE$ passive (§ 58).

⁵² Particle (§ 131).

⁶³ thūm- TO SHUT, TO CLOSE (§§ 7, 112); -yax past denoting conditionality (§§ 74, 136).

⁵⁴ See § 98.

⁵⁵ $ha\bar{u}$ - TO END; -ai verbalizing (§§ 75, 8).

⁵⁸ $sm\bar{u}t'$ - To END (§ 12); $-\bar{u}i$ verbalizing (§ 75).

⁵ tāok THIS (§§ 115, 12); -n 1st person singular (§§ 24, 4).

[Translation]

(When in former days the) ground was covered with ice, much snow (lay) on the ground, and it became very cold, then the people had no way of drinking (water freely). From one well only could they drink, and all people drank from it. Although many were the people, still they all drank there. (And when) ice began to appear on the water (of the rivers), then all inhabitants could not go any-They were forced to go along the surface of the ice. Then (at such times there would always be some) old man who knew that (ancient) custom of the people of long ago. (He would then tell it to his people.) And Raccoon would be invoked, and Covote likewise would be invoked. He would be called by name, "Raccoon, Raccoon, cause thy rain (to flow)! Speak to Coyote! Cause ye two your rain (to flow)! We are in straits, we are very cold." Then (once more Raccoon) would be invoked, "Raccoon, Raccoon, cause thy rain (to flow)! (You and) Coyote cause ye your (dual) rain (to flow)!" Then at last it All people believed in (the efficacy of this formula). For that reason they two would be invoked, (until) it would commence to rain. Thus people were shouting whenever (ice) closed up the rivers.

Now there it ends. It is the finish. (Thus) I know it.